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# *Germany Revisited*

## **EDUCATION**

### *in the* **FEDERAL REPUBLIC**

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## Foreword

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**O**N JUNE 8, 1955, Dr. Alina M. Lindegren of the United States Office of Education, arrived in Bonn for a 6-week educational visit to the Federal Republic of Germany. When she mentioned that she had been on a similar mission to Germany in 1935 she was told, "Much has happened since then. We believe you will find many changes."

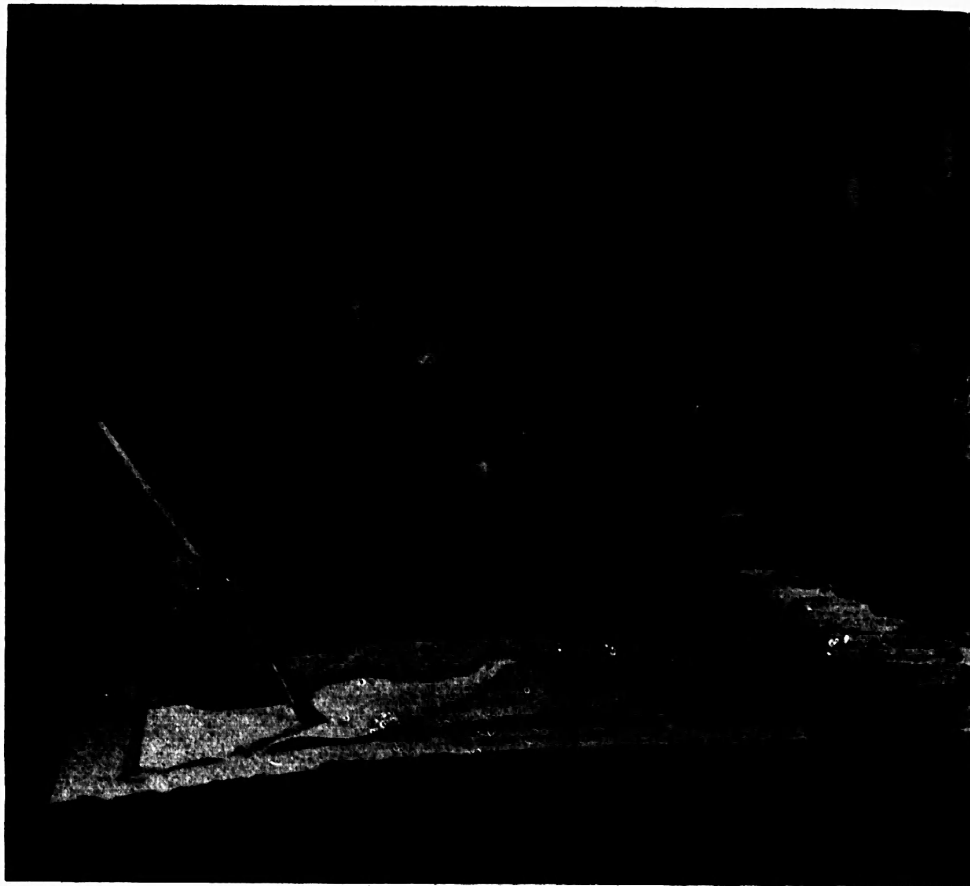
Much had happened—World War II and a decade of postwar recovery. In the following pages the author tells of some of the changes in education which she saw or felt.

Just before completing this *Bulletin* and exactly a week before her retirement, Dr. Lindegren died on January 25, 1957, as the result of a fall that day. The many persons in the United States and abroad who knew Dr. Lindegren's competence in the field of European educational systems and in the interpretation of credentials of foreign students and all who knew her personally will join the Office in its sorrow.

To the many persons and organizations in the Federal Republic of Germany and in the United States who have aided in bringing this study to completion, the Office of Education expresses its gratitude. Particularly, the Office expresses its appreciation to the Washington Embassy of the Federal Republic of Germany; to Burr W. Phillips, Professor of Education and History at the University of Wisconsin, who prepared the material on "The Social Studies in German Schools" appearing in Chapter IV; and to Paul Bodenman, Assistant to the Director, Educational Exchange and Training Branch in the Office, who reviewed the total manuscript and assisted with the completion of Chapter VI on "Higher Education."

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*Photo from Südd. Verlag—Courtesy, Inter Nations*  
**Budding Artist, Munich**

## Chapter I

### Introduction

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**D**URING THE 84 years between the unification of Germany in 1871 to 1955, the German people lived for 47 years with an imperial form of Government, 15 in a Republic, 12 in a totalitarian State, and 10 in a Second Republic. The German Federal Republic is now 8 years of age. These changes from constitutional monarchy through warfare to republic, from Republic through internal revolution to dictatorship, and from dictatorship through war and occupation to the Second Republic in so short a time were violent and drastic.

Each political change was followed by educational change. The purpose of this *Bulletin* is to note the changes or trends in education in the Federal Republic of Germany as seen or felt in 1955 by one who 20 years before in 1935 had similar firsthand contact with education in Germany. Reference to education in other periods is made to the extent necessary for an understanding and appreciation of the significance of the changes made or in progress.

In the classes visited in 1955 there was an atmosphere of friendliness, mutual understanding, and cooperation between teachers and pupils that was very noticeable. Pupil participation was in evidence in discussion. Most of the classes were in new, attractive buildings with good light, modern equipment, and laboratory facilities. Some classes were in schools restored and modernized after the war. Playgrounds were in use or in process of preparation or expansion.

In one school the pupils were in the midst of changing their library books. The school library had the open-shelf system and the children were busy and happy in making their own selections.

The teacher in charge said that this was one of the things they had learned from America. Formerly under the closed-shelf system children selected their books by their titles from a list.

Conversations with reference to the Exchange of Persons Program brought out that between 1948 and 1954 the program had afforded opportunity for approximately 15,000 persons to visit the United States. This appeared to be a high point in the life of most of them—something to which they often refer. To teachers it gave an opportunity to observe the relations between teachers and pupils in school in the United States, between teachers and parents at the Parent Teacher Association meetings, and to see in action the varied programs for the good of the child, the school, and the community.

To one person the visit was like "something out of fairyland" which had given her an "entirely new outlook on life." She felt that the program "promotes democracy in Germany because persons of lower rank are consulted at German professional meetings and tend to be treated as equals, regardless of rank, when they have had the experience of a visit to the United States."

The Federal Republic of Germany (Deutsche Bundesrepublik) was established formally on September 21, 1949 and includes the



*Photo from Staatl. Landesbibliothek*

**4th Grade—Steinadlerweg School, Hamburg-Billstedt**



States (Länder) of Baden-Wuerttemberg, Bavaria (Bayern), Hesse (Hessen), Lower Saxony (Niedersachsen), North Rhine-Westphalia (Nordrhein-Westfalen), Rhineland-Palatinate (Rheinland-Pfalz), Saarland, Schleswig-Holstein, Bremen, and Hamburg. West Berlin, though treated much like a State in this *Bulletin*, is in a different category. In approving the draft Berlin Constitution, the Allied Kommandatura approved section (1) of Article 1 which states "Berlin is a German land [state] and at the same time a city." Simultaneously, it specifically suspended the second and third sections of Article 1 which would have made Berlin a State of the Federal Republic and would have made the Basic Law and the laws of the Federal Republic binding on Berlin.<sup>1</sup> In all, Western Germany covers an area of 94,723 square miles and has a population of about 50,000,000. As of mid-1953 there were some 2,233,000 people in West Berlin.

The Bonn Constitution, entitled the *Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany*,<sup>2</sup> states in Article 20 that "(1) The Federal Republic of Germany is a democratic and social state. (2) All state authority emanates from the people . . ." Freedom of speech and freedom of the press are guaranteed. According to Section (3) of Article 3, "No one may be prejudiced or privileged because of his sex, descent, race, language, homeland and origin, faith or his religious and political opinions." According to Article 21 (1), "The parties shall participate in forming the political will of the people. They can be freely formed. Their internal organization must conform to democratic principles. They must publicly account for the sources of their funds."

The members of the Lower House of Parliament (Bundestag) which corresponds somewhat to the House of Representatives in the Congress of the United States, according to Article 38 (1) "shall be elected by the people in universal, free, equal, direct and secret elections. They shall be representatives of the whole people, not bound to orders and instructions and subject only to their conscience." The States participate in the legislation and admin-

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<sup>1</sup> Office of the U. S. High Commissioner for Germany, Policy Reports Secretary, Office of the Executive Secretary. *1950 Berlin Constitution and Electoral Law*. Berlin: The Office, January 15, 1951, pages 5 and 11.

<sup>2</sup> Department of State. *The Bonn Constitution: Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany*. (Agreed Anglo-American translation) Publication 3526, European and British Commonwealth Series 8. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, June 1949, 52 p.

istration of the Federal Republic through the Upper House of Parliament known as the Federal Council (Bundesrat) whose members are selected by the legislatures of the States. Each State has from 3 to 5 members in the Federal Council depending on the size of its population.

The Federal President is elected for a period of 5 years by the Federal Convention which consists of the members in the Lower House and an equal number selected by the governments of the States. The Federal Government consists of the Federal Chancellor and the Federal Ministers. The Chancellor is elected by the Lower House on the proposal of the President. The Ministers are appointed by the President on the proposal of the Chancellor.

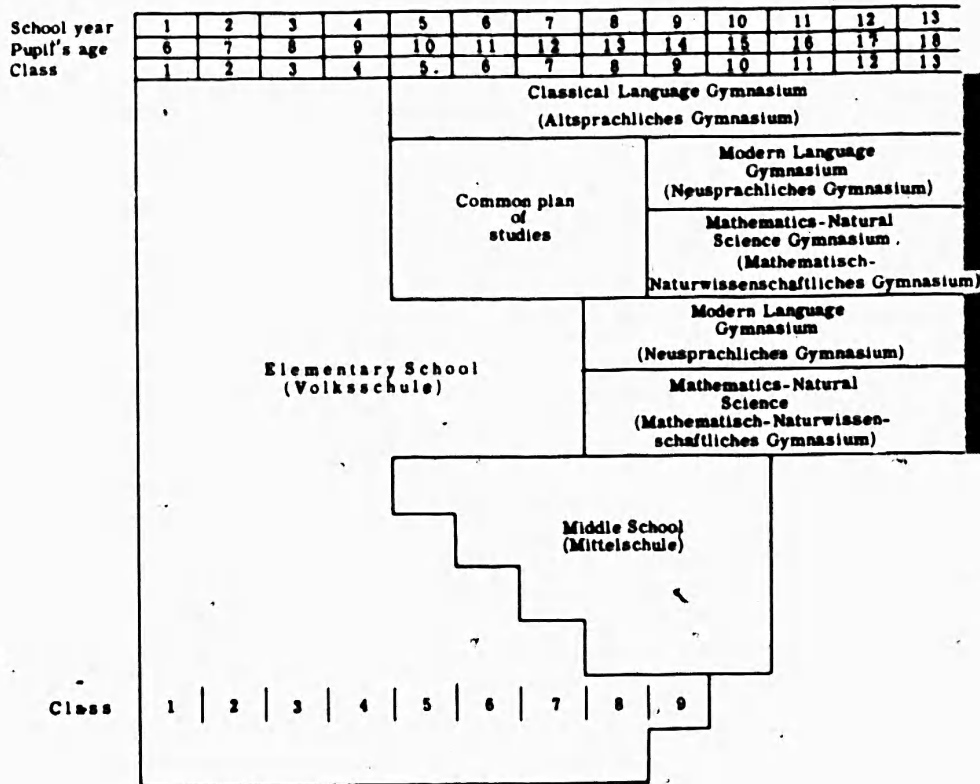
The States have the right of legislation insofar as the Basic Law does not specifically accord legislative powers to the Federal Government. Federal laws are enforced by the States either on their own behalf or on behalf of the Federal Republic.

Article 7 of the Basic Law relates to education. It states:

- (1) The entire educational system shall be under the supervision of the state.
- (2) Those entitled to bring up the child shall have the right to decide whether it shall receive religious instruction.
- (3) Religious instruction shall form part of the curriculum in the state schools with the exception of non-confessional schools. Religious instruction shall, without prejudice to the state's right of supervision, be given according to the principles of the religious societies. No teacher may be obliged against his will to give religious instruction.
- (4) The right to establish private schools shall be guaranteed. Private schools as substitute for state schools shall require the sanction of the state and shall be subject to Land legislation. The sanction must be given if the private schools, in their educational aims and facilities, as well as in the scholarly training of their teaching personnel, are not inferior to the state schools and if a separation of the pupils according to the means of the parents is not encouraged. The sanction must be withheld if the economic and legal status of the teaching personnel is not sufficiently assured.
- (5) A private elementary school shall be permitted only if the educational administration recognizes a specific pedagogic interest or, at the request of those entitled to bring up children, if it is to be established as a general community school (*Gemeinschaftsschule*), as a confessional or ideological school or if a state elementary school of this type does not exist in the Gemeinde.
- (6) Preparatory schools shall remain abolished.

The organization of education in the Federal Republic of Germany is shown in the following graph.

Graph 1. Organization of Education according to the Duesseldorf Agreement of February 17, 1955



■ Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung)

## Chapter II

### Control of Education

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#### STATE CONTROL UNDER THE EMPIRE AND THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC

**I**N 1871 when Germany became a united nation each of the States of the new nation had charge of its own educational system. This continued throughout the period of the Empire and of the Republic.

During the period of the Empire, education in the various States was chiefly the concern of the Ministries of Education and Religious Affairs and, to some extent, of other Ministries, depending on the size and traditions of the State concerned. Prussia, for example, had the following educational organization:

**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION:** Elementary, secondary, and higher education; fine arts, religious and medical affairs.

**MINISTRY OF TRADE AND COMMERCE:** Vocational schools.

**MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE:** Agricultural schools.

**MINISTRY OF INTERIOR:** Kindergarten and welfare organizations; organizations for general culture and recreation.

Under the Republic the organization was the same except that all functions of public welfare were centralized in the Prussian Ministry of Public Welfare and a Department of General Culture was added to the Federal Ministry of Interior for the consideration of educational problems of interest to the Nation as a whole.

**CENTRAL CONTROL UNDER HITLER**

In January 1933 when Hitler became Chancellor, Germany had no national Ministry of Education. Administration and supervision of education were the concern of each individual State. One year later a law of January 30, 1934 on the Reorganization of the Nation (Gesetz über den Neuaufbau des Reiches) transferred the control of education from the individual States to the National Government. Shortly thereafter, a law of May 1, 1934 established the National Ministry of Science, Education and Public Instruction. The Prussian Minister of Science, Art and Education was appointed to head the new Ministry as National and Prussian Minister of Science, Education and Public Instruction.

Through the establishment of this national Ministry of Education, the control of education became a function of the Central Government. The Ministries of Education in the individual States continued to exist mainly to carry out the orders and decrees of the National Ministry of Education (Reichserziehungsministerium), as it was generally called.

Prussia at that time included approximately 60 percent of the area and population of Germany. Its Ministry of Education traced its origin to the School Committee (Schulkollegium) established in 1787 under the Minister of Church and School Affairs. When the National Socialist Party undertook the direction of the cultural affairs of the Nation, this old, well-organized Ministry located in the national capital, was continued in control of education in Prussia. The extension of its authority to include the area of the other States was accomplished with relative ease since they already had become administrative units.

In 1936, the National Ministry of Education had the following divisions with duties as indicated:

1. Central Office (Zentralamt): Administration, legislation, educational relationship with other countries.
2. Office of the Minister.
3. Office for Science (Amt für Wissenschaft): All matters concerning institutions of education and research.
4. Office of Education (Amt für Erziehung): Elementary and middle schools, secondary schools; vocational, agricultural, and social welfare schools.
5. Office for Folk Culture (Amt für Volksbildung): Art academies, libraries, museums and castles; care of public monuments, national parks, etc.; music and cultural art, literature and theater, films and radio.

6. Office of Physical Education (Amt für körperliche Erziehung): Gymnastics, physical education, and care of youth.
7. Land [State] Year Division (Abteilung Landjahr): Schooling for leaders, inner organization of the land year.

Within each State, education, in compliance with the decrees and regulations of the National Ministry, came under an Education Administration or Office (Unterrichtsverwaltung) which generally was the former State Ministry of Education modified to meet new conditions. In Prussia, the State Ministry supervised directly the institutions of higher education and delegated immediate supervision of other schools to more localized authority. In each of the provinces of Prussia, secondary education was under the School Division of the Upper President of the Province (Oberpräsident-Schulabteilung) with work done by upper school councilors (Oberschulräte). Elementary and middle schools were under the School Division of the County President (Regierungspräsident-Schulabteilung), and school councilors (Schulräte) attended to the duties. The City of Berlin had a State Commissioner (Staatskommissar) instead of a county president. The National Government did not assist in meeting the cost of education; that was borne mainly by the States and the communities.

#### STATE CONTROL IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC

With the end of the War in 1945, the national educational administrative machinery was dissolved and the functions of its Ministry of Education transferred to the State governments. A retrospect of a hypothetical foreign observer written in 1953, gives some idea of the immensity of the task of educational reconstruction along democratic lines which faced the States when they regained control and indicates why the States began where they had left off in 1932.<sup>1</sup>

In retrospect, a foreign observer might be led to believe that Germany, after 1945, had the great opportunity to build up an entirely modern educational system meeting the needs and demands of present-day society. . . . Such an observer . . . in 1953, might feel that Germany missed an excellent chance to have the most perfect educational system existing in our time.

The observer then notes economic conditions after 1945 which made it impossible to provide well-equipped physical plants. New

<sup>1</sup> Erich J. Hylla, and Friedrich O. Kegel. *Education in Germany: An Introduction for Foreigners*. Frankfurt a. Main: Hochschule für Internationale Pädagogische Forschung, 1954, p. 7-8.

political and social organization did not exist in 1945. It has been evolving in form and spirit in a "slow and painful process of growth." In the absence of a "reasonably well defined spirit of the German community as a whole, the educational energies, lacking a definitely circumscribed goal, were at low ebb," and traditions of pre-National Socialist days were filling the vacuum. Decrees of the Western Occupation Powers "seemingly backed this tendency by making the school organizations and legislation as existing in the various German States before the Nazi regime the basis for postwar practice."

As a result, school organization "in 1953 represents pretty much the old pattern of more than 20 years ago which, in turn, had retained many features of earlier stages of its development. Instead of realizing our fictitious observer's dream of a sweeping revolution of German education, the schools largely reverted to the status of 1932, but they considered it only as a point of departure for developments intended to meet the educational needs of a society adapting itself to the conditions of our time and to some anticipated requirements of the future."

**State Ministries of Education.**—At the head of the government in each State is the Minister President (Ministerpräsident), called in West Berlin the Governing Mayor (Regierender Bürgermeister), and in the City-States of Hamburg and Bremen, the President of the Senate (Präsident des Senats). The Minister President in Baden-Wuerttemberg is assisted by a cabinet consisting of the heads of the nine ministries; namely: State, Justice, Interior, Education, Finance, Economics, Agriculture, Labor, and Displaced Persons and War Wounded.

**Administration.**—While the organization of school administration in the States varies in detail, there are three basic levels of administration: State or central level, middle or government district level, and local district or lower level.\*

**State Level.**—The highest education, administrative and supervisory authority in each State is its Ministry of Education known variously as *Ministerium für Volksbildung*, *Kult-* or *Kultusministerium*, and in Berlin as Senate Administration of Education (*Senatsverwaltung für Volksbildung*). The ministries vary somewhat in organization from State to State but ordinarily, they include divisions of general administration and legislation, school

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\* Franz Hilker. *Die Schulen in Deutschland (Bundesrepublik und West-Berlin)*. (Herausgegeben von der Hochschule für Internationale Pädagogische Forschung, Frankfurt/Main.) Bad Nauheim: Im Christian Verlag, 1954, p. 26-28.

organization, universities and other institutions of higher education, and general cultural policies. There are also other divisions for example, the ministry at West Berlin has a Division of Art covering applied and fine art, music, literature, films, and radio.

At the head of each Ministry is a Minister of Education (Kultusminister) called "Senator" in Hamburg, Bremen, and West Berlin. In West Berlin, Bavaria, and Hamburg the Minister of Education is assisted by an advisory council. The Advisory Council on Education (Erziehungsbeirat) in Berlin of which the Senator of Education is chairman, has 4 representatives each of parents' associations, organizations of teachers and educators, leading industrial organizations, and various other groups representing specific points of view such as religious organizations.

**Government District Level.**—To assist the State governments in the burden of administration of the larger States—Baden-Wuerttemberg, Bavaria, Hesse, Lower Saxony, North Rhine-Westphalia, and Rhineland-Palatinate—are divided into 3 to 6 government districts. There are 2 to 3 types of middle level administration.

(a) Elementary, middle, and vocational schools generally come under the authority of the School Division in the Office of the District President.

(b) Some secondary schools are under the direct administration of the State Ministry of Education. Some, like Duesseldorf and Muenster in North Rhine-Westphalia, are administered through an intermediate School Committee. When a large city like Frankfort on the Main is placed under the State government its school system receives middle level status.

(c) West Berlin has district school offices (Bezirksschulämter) as a middle level for all of its schools.

**Local District Level.**—The local districts (Kreise) form the smallest unit of self-administration in the German Federal Republic. They include rural districts (Landkreise) consisting of several small municipalities and city districts (Stadtkreise) for cities with a population of more than 50,000 which generally form a district of their own.

For their functions of local administration and supervision the government district and the local district levels receive their instructions from the Ministry of Education.

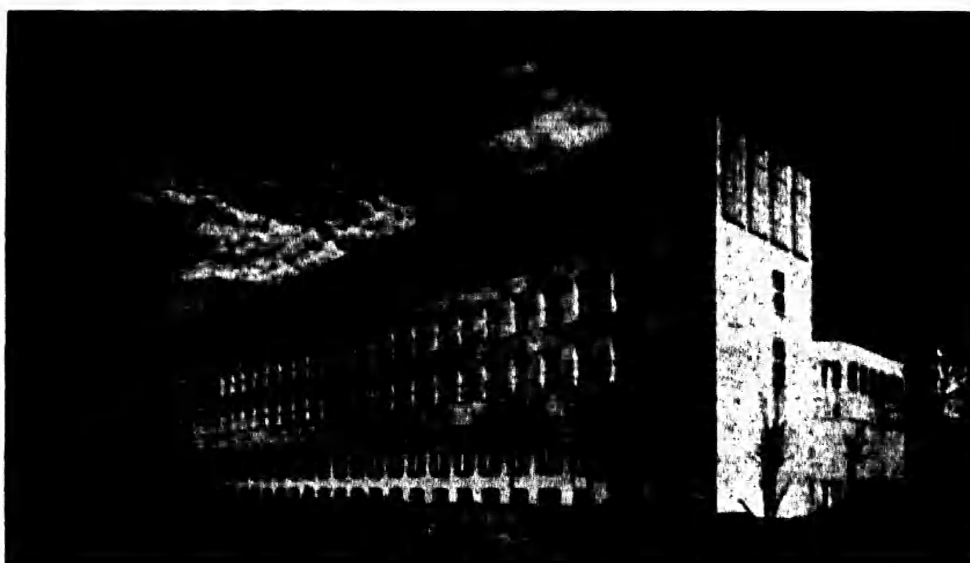
**Finance.**—The State usually is responsible for expenditures on administration and inspection of State institutions of higher education, teacher training, and vocational schools of more than local importance. Beyond this, the State makes conditional grants for school building, compensates the municipalities for the loss of



income from school fees resulting from the introduction of free education, and gives loans and scholarships to gifted, needy students.

Public schools offering general or vocational education are financed either by the State and the municipalities jointly or by the municipalities alone. In joint financing, the State pays the cost of staff (salaries, allowances, auxiliary staff, teachers paid by the hour, dismissal indemnities, traveling expenses, welfare, retirement, and pensions for widows and orphans) while the municipalities, through their school committees, meet expenditures on material and usually make a contribution to the State toward the cost of staff. If the schools are financed by the municipalities alone the school committees meet all expenses for both staff and materials.

During school year 1954-55 Lower Saxony, Rhineland-Palatinate, and Baden-Wuerttemberg reorganized their school administrations. In Lower Saxony the systems of administration in the 4 Government Districts were unified. The public schools are maintained jointly by the State and the school authorities with no distinction between State and municipal schools. Elementary, middle, and secondary schools are administered by the municipalities, and vocational schools by the local districts. The staff costs are paid by the State and the cost of materials by the school authorities. The latter also make a percentage contribution toward the cost of staff.



**Main Entrance—New Quarters of the University of Cologne**

In Rhineland-Palatinate an elementary school law was passed regulating approximately the same subjects as mentioned for Lower Saxony. The State and the municipalities participate jointly in the equipment and maintenance of primary schools; the State pays for the cost of staff, while the municipalities and the school authorities meet all the other expenses. To financially weak municipalities, however, the State makes grants toward the building of schools. For the local administration of primary schools, school committees are established which include municipal representatives, parents, teachers, representatives of religious communities, and school medical officers. School boards subordinate to the district authorities are responsible for school inspection in rural districts, while the Ministry at Mainz is the highest school inspection authority.

*Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education*—(Ständige Konferenz der Kultusminister). Postwar conditions curtailed travel and communications between the States. In addition to having autonomy in education, the States were occupied with their own problems of reconstruction. The result was considerable variety in educational regulations and practice. Some of these regulations were difficult to meet, such as entrance requirements and curriculum requirements in secondary schools, which brought hardship to children who transferred from the schools of one State to those of another.

In trying to solve resultant problems, the Ministers of Education in the various States began to meet periodically and, in 1948, formed the Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education with a general secretariat in Bonn. The Conference of Ministers meets at regular intervals to discuss educational problems of common interest to the States. Decisions and recommendations passed with unanimous agreement are referred to the State authorities. While these decisions and recommendations of the Conference of Ministers are in no way binding on the legislative or administrative authorities of the States, agreements have led to the establishment of uniform principles in many instances.

Attached to the Conference of Ministers and the General Secretariat in Bonn are 3 full-time committees which cooperate and work with both the Conference of Ministers and the Secretariat. The University Committee (Hochschulausschuss) deals with matters concerning the universities, institutes of technology, other institutions of higher education, and the research institutes. The School Committee (Schulausschuss) is concerned with elementary,

secondary, and vocational schools. The Cultural Committee (Kulturausschuss) deals with matters concerning fine arts, museums, libraries, and monuments.

**German Committee for Education and Instruction**—(Der Deutsche Ausschuss für das Erziehungs- und Bildungswesen). To assist the Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education as a research and advisory body the German Committee for Education and Instruction was established in 1953 by the Federal Ministry of Interior and the Permanent Conference of Ministers. It has 20 members appointed by the Ministry of Interior and by the President of the Conference of Ministers of Education to serve for a period of 5 years. The members include teachers, university professors, scientists, artists, and other persons familiar with education and school life. Among phases of education considered by the Committee are those concerning the ninth school year, the establishment of experimental schools, and unification in the field of education.

A comparison of the organization of the administration of education in Germany with that in the United States shows considerable similarity on the Federal and State levels. In both countries, education is the concern of each individual State. In the United States the chief State school officers are organized into a Council of Chief State School Officers for the discussion and consideration of matters of common interest. This corresponds approximately to the Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education who are the Chief State School Officers of the German Federal Republic. The Executive Secretary of the Council of Chief State School Officers with his Office in the National Education Association Building in Washington, D. C., is the counterpart in the United States to the General Secretariat of the Conference of Ministers located in Bonn. There are no counterparts in the United States to the 3 committees functioning with the Permanent Conference of Ministers and the Secretariat in Bonn, nor to the German Committee for Education and Culture.

Insofar as educational matters are a concern of the Federal Government in Germany they are handled by the Federal Department concerned. The program for the exchange of students, teachers, and other persons, for example, is in charge of the Division of Education and Culture in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, while the Federal Ministry of Interior coordinates all scientific research. To carry the comparison still further, the Committees on Education and Culture in the Federal Council and the Lower House of Parliament correspond to the Senate and House Committees on Education in the Congress of the United States.

**The Duesseldorf Agreement of February 17, 1955.**—In line with a decision made by the Minister Presidents of the West German States on February 5, 1954, for the unification of certain phases of education in the German Federal Republic, the Conference of Ministers of Education in July 1954, presented its proposals for unification to the Minister Presidents. On February 17, 1955, at Duesseldorf, the Minister Presidents approved these proposals in the form of an "Agreement between the States of the Federal Republic for unification in the field of education" (Abkommen zwischen den Ländern der Bundesrepublik zur Vereinheitlichung auf dem Gebiete des Schulwesens). The States may implement the agreement by legislative or organizational measures within a reasonable period of time.

**Compulsory Education (Schulpflicht).**—According to the unification agreement compulsory education begins with the school year starting on April 1, for all children who are 6 years of age by March 31. Children who reach the age of 6 between April 1 and June 30, may enter school on April 1, on the parents' application, provided they possess the degree of intellectual and physical maturity required for school attendance. For children who are 6 years of age, but who are not yet sufficiently developed physically or mentally to attend lessons with any prospect of success, compulsory schooling is postponed.

The minimum duration of full-time schooling is 8 years. Some States, for instance Lower Saxony, have 9 years of full-time compulsory schooling while others offer a 9th year on a voluntary basis. Baden-Wuerttemberg requires a 9th year of schooling for all children who on completion of 8 years are unable to find employment.



Photo by Kurt Schraudenbach—Courtesy, Inter Nations  
School Is Out, Munich

**School Year—(Schuljahr).**—The school year extends from the beginning of April through the end of March of the following calendar year, with 85 days of vacation. If Sundays and holidays fall within a consecutive holiday period they are included within the 85 days. The summer vacation comes within the period from June 25 to September 15 and is fixed by the school administration of the State concerned. It is understood, however, that the vacations for Bremen, West Berlin, Hamburg, Hesse, Lower Saxony, and Schleswig-Holstein will come approximately during the first half of the period and the vacations of the other States toward the end of the second half. The other main vacations are those for Christmas and Easter.

**Uniformity in Terminology.**—Schools beginning with the 5th to the 7th year of schooling and ending with the 10th year are to be known henceforth as middle schools (Mittelschulen). Until this time they have been known in some States as realschools (Realschulen) and technical secondary schools (Technische Oberschulen).

General education schools ending with a certificate of maturity (Reifezeugnis) qualifying for admission to a university are to be known as gymnasia (Gymnasien—p. 5).

Classes at all types of schools are to be designated by arabic number according to the year of schooling beginning with the lowest class of the elementary school and ending with class 13 as the highest class of the secondary school. \*

The system of marks at all types of schools will be: Very good, good, satisfactory, adequate, poor, and unsatisfactory (sehr gut, gut, befriedigend, ausreichend, mangelhaft, und ungenügend).

In examinations for qualification as a teacher (Lehramtsprüfungen) the system of marks for the individual subjects is the same as that for all other types of schools. The system for the average and final mark in the examination as a whole includes:

Passed with distinction (mit Auszeichnung bestanden)

Passed with good mark (gut bestanden)

Passed with satisfactory mark (befriedigend bestanden)

Passed (bestanden)

**Recognition of Examination Certificates.**—The agreement states that certificates of maturity issued by States according to the requirements agreed upon by the Conference of Ministers of Education will be recognized by the other States. Similarly, certificates for the first and second examination for elementary schoolteachers, issued by the educational administration of one State according to the requirements agreed upon by the Conference of Ministers

of Education, will be recognized by the other States. Other provisions refer to the types of schools and to uniformity in language instruction.

*Democracy in Educational Administration.*—A survey of the administration of education in the German Federal Republic reflects democracy, particularly with reference to the creation and functioning of the Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education, the German Committee of Education and Culture, and in the establishment in some States of State Advisory Councils on Education (Erziehungsbeiräte). The latter indicate a desire on the part of school administrations for the advice and cooperation of a body representing, as in the case of West Berlin, the perspective of parents, teachers, and other professional groups and individuals on the many and varied aspects of education.

## Chapter III

### The Goal of Equal Educational Opportunity

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**W**HEN FAR more than half the people of the world neither could read nor write, Germany was taking steps to provide some type of educational opportunity for the children and youth of that country. This chapter summarizes actions taken in the days of the Empire and the later Weimar Republic, under National Socialism, and since 1945.

#### UNDER THE EMPIRE AND THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC

*Parallel Systems.*—In Prussia and in most of the other 25 States in the German Empire, elementary, middle, and secondary schools existed side by side in 3 distinct, parallel school systems beginning with the primary classes and continuing upward for a varying number of years. Secondary schools generally received their pupils from a 3-year preparatory school (Vorschule) for socially and economically privileged children who entered at the age of 6 years to prepare for admission to a secondary school that would eventually lead to a university. Historically Bavaria had no preparatory schools. The pupils entering its secondary school had completed the first 4 years of a regular elementary school.

In 1911, more than 90 percent of the children of compulsory school age—6 to 14 years—in Prussia, were enrolled in elementary school. The opportunity for transfer to secondary school without considerable loss of time because of differences in programs of study came on completion of the first 3 classes. A few boys attended

its first 3 classes in preparation for admission to secondary school because their localities had no preparatory school. In general, pupils of the elementary school were children of day laborers, small farmers, and other workers.

**Continuation Schools (Fortbildungsschulen).**—On completion of the 8-year course most graduates of the elementary school found employment or entered apprenticeship in shoemaking, locksmithing, carpentry, printing, and the like. To help these young people prepare for their future work, free part-time continuation schools were established with later afternoon and evening classes for boys and girls from 14 to 17 years of age. In these schools apprentices could pursue theoretical and practical study along many lines in preparation for the journeyman examination which marked completion of the period of apprenticeship. In Prussia a law of July 1, 1911, provided for a minimum of 240 hours of continuation school a year for those from 14 to 17 years of age.

Completion of the 3-year course of a continuation school also qualified for admission to middle technical schools which offered a 2- to 3-year course in forestry, gardening, cabinetmaking, jewelry, bookbinding, and other trades. One who had passed the journeyman examination at these schools was eligible to become a master workman in his trade.

**Partial Break in the Parallel System.**—The chief moves toward making education more democratic and unified came as a result of the Weimar Constitution of August 11, 1919, and the Foundation School Law (Grundschulgesetz) of April 28, 1920. Article 145 of the Constitution provided for general compulsory education at an elementary school of at least 8 years followed by training at a continuation school through the 18th year of age. Instruction and instructional materials were declared free of cost.

In line with article 146 the 3-year preparatory school was abolished and the foundation school (Grundschule), consisting of the first 4 years of the regular elementary school, was established for all children. Regulations for the foundation school were the concern of the separate States within the common framework established by the Law of 1920, its later amendments, and general suggestions or study plan guides (Richtlinien) issued July 18, 1921, by the National Ministry of Interior to which education matters, as far as the central government had control, were entrusted. The task of the foundation school, according to the Prussian Minister of Science, Art and Education, was to give children a basic training on which not only the last 4 years of the elementary school could be built, but also the middle and secondary schools with their



extended instruction. The foundation school was to awaken and train the spiritual forces of the children and equip them with a groundwork of knowledge and skills essential for every type of further instruction.

The four upper years of the regular elementary school was the finishing school for children who entered practical life after completion of compulsory schooling. In his suggestions for the organization of study for these years, the Minister of Education urged that in planning the courses, consideration be given to the needs of life and to the educational age and development of the child, with particular reference to his emotion and will. As in the foundation school, instruction was to be based on the self-activity of the pupils, intellectual as well as physical. The pupils' cooperation was not to consist chiefly in the absorption of knowledge; instead the objectives of instruction were to be worked out under the guidance of the teacher through observation, experimentation, investigation, independent reading, and verification.

The subjects of instruction were religion, German, history and civics, geography, natural science; arithmetic, geometry, drawing, music, physical training, sewing for girls, and when possible—manual training for boys and home economics for girls.

**Middle Schools (Mittelschulen).**—The middle school grew out of the need felt by some parents for somewhat better education and future prospects for their children than were afforded by the elementary school. Middle schools charged tuition. Some offered a 6-year course following the first 3 classes of the elementary school. Others offered a 3-year course based on the first 6 classes. A law of February 3, 1910, established a 9-year middle school beginning with the first primary class. Study plans presented with the law in preparation for later vocations were separate for boys and girls. Included also were study plans leading to admission to the last 3 classes of the various types of secondary schools. Completion of the full middle school qualified for the 1-year voluntary military service.

Since the subjects of instruction of the first 5 years of the 9-year middle school were quite similar to those of the first 5 years of the regular elementary school, transfer to the middle school during these years was not difficult. After the 5th year transfer could not be made without loss of time. Most middle school children came from homes of the lower middle class.

Developments in handicrafts, industrial arts, commerce, industry, agriculture, and forestry required increased training of boys and girls for work in these fields. Connected with this was an increased need for suitably trained personnel to fill middle positions

in the State administration and in communities with large industrial and commercial enterprises.

To meet this need the Law concerning the Middle Schools of Prussia (Bestimmungen über die Mittelschulen in Preussen) of June 1, 1925, established the 6-year middle school based on the 4-year foundation school. Like the middle school of the Empire this was not a middle school in the sense of a level through which children had to pass from elementary to secondary instruction. It was rather a parallel type of school whose first 4 years overlapped the upper division of the elementary school and all of whose 6 years were parallel to the first 6 years of the secondary school.

Five plans of study for 7 types of curriculums leading to a certificate of middle maturity (Zeugnis der mittleren Reife) were provided by the Law of June 1, 1925. The first 4 were 2 each for boys and girls—one a general plan, the other a general plan with special regard to a later vocation. Plan V was for boys and girls who wished to continue their studies in a secondary school.<sup>1</sup> The

<sup>1</sup> For the five plans of study see Alina M. Lindegren, *Education in Germany*. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1939, p. 20-25. (Office of Education Bulletin 1938, No. 15.)



BPA—Courtesy, Inter Nationes

Beethoven High School, Bonn

middle schools charged tuition; free places were available for indigent deserving pupils.

In addition to the regular middle schools there was a group of 5-year schools which followed the program of the first 5 years of a regular secondary school and linked up with its sixth year (Untersekunda). The group included rectoral schools (Rektoratschulen), Latin Schools (Lateinschulen), and the like.

**Secondary Schools (Höhere Schulen).**—Imperial Germany had 3 types of secondary schools through which students passed to enter institutions of higher education. In the order of historical development they were the gymnasium (Gymnasium) which stressed Latin and Greek; realgymnasium (Realgymnasium) which omitted Greek and emphasized Latin and modern languages; and the upper realschool (Oberrealschule) with neither Greek nor Latin, which gave its main attention to mathematics, science and modern languages. Each was a 9-year school based on a 3-year preliminary course which the child entered at the age of 6 years. In most States, classes were designated by Roman numerals with the lowest having the highest number; namely, VI, V, IV, UIII or Lower III, OIII or Upper III, UII, OII, UI, and OI (Sexta, Quinta, Quarta, Untertertia, Obertertia, Untersekunda, Obersekunda, Unterprima und Oberprima). In Bavaria and Wuerttemberg in southern Germany they were designated from I as the lowest grade to IX as the highest.

On completion of the 6th year of the 9-year secondary school when class Lower II was completed there was a certain break. Some schools offered only these first 6 years, known as *Progymnasium*, *Prorealgymnasium*, or *Realschule*, depending on the type of complete secondary school program being followed. Completion of class Lower II was marked by a certificate of maturity for class Upper II and carried with it the right to the 1-year voluntary military service instead of the 2 years of compulsory service exacted of those with less academic training. It also opened the way to lower administrative positions in civil service and business.

Success in the maturity examination with which the 9-year course ended was marked by a certificate of maturity. This certificate was the regular requirement for admission to a university or other institution of higher education.

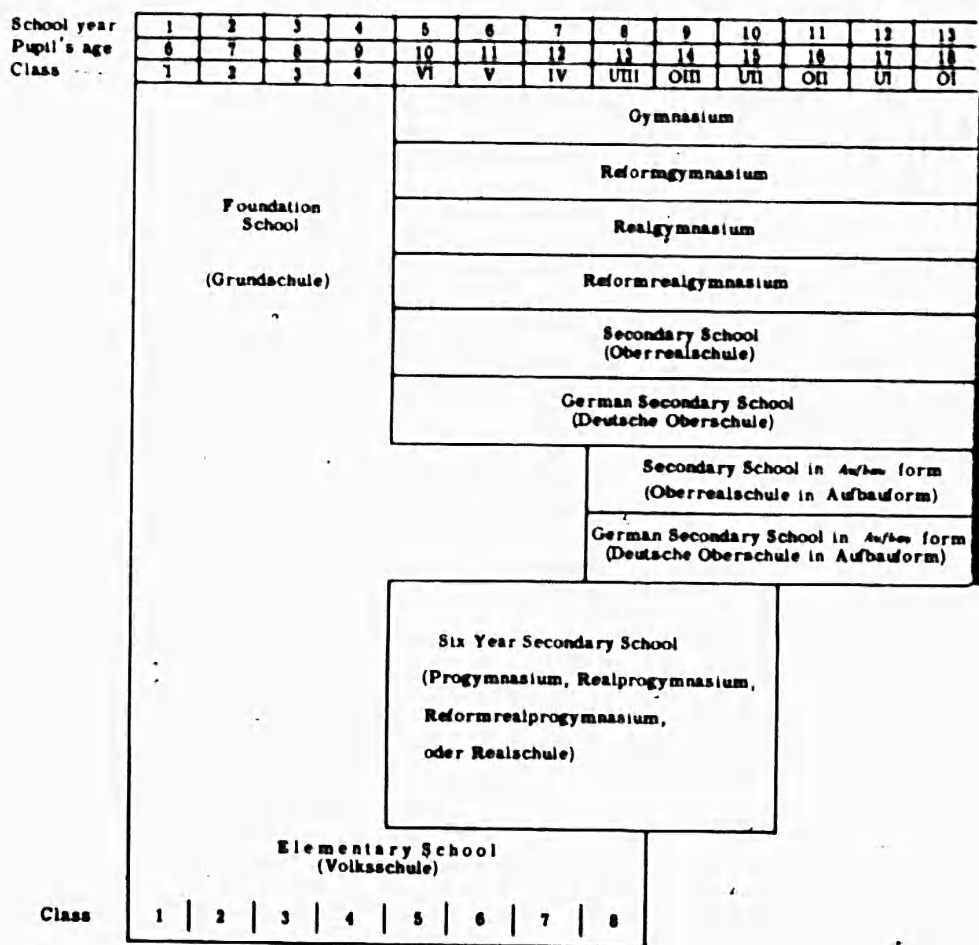
During the Republic 2 new types were added. They were the German secondary school (Deutsche Oberschule) which stressed German life and culture; and the *Aufbau*<sup>2</sup> school (Aufbauschule)

<sup>2</sup> "Aufbau" used in this connection has no meaningful equivalent in English.

which enabled capable children who had completed the 7th year of the elementary school to prepare for university admission by attending the 6-year *Aufbau* school. No change was made in the already existing forms except that a shift of the modern language in the Gymnasium to class VI and adding the classical languages in classes UIII and UII resulted in the Reform Gymnasium. A similar shift in the Realgymnasium which brought a modern language to class VI and added Latin either in class UIII or in class UII resulted in the Reform Realgymnasium.

In 1920 when the 4-year foundation school replaced the 3-year preliminary course as a preparatory school for the 9-year second-

Graph 2 Organisation of Education in Prussia during the Weimar Republic



■ Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung)

ary school, the duration of study in preparation for the maturity examination was extended from 12 to 13 years. A supplementary law of April 18, 1925, modified this somewhat by stating that in individual cases specially gifted children, after being heard by the teachers of the foundation school could, with the approval of the supervisory authorities, be admitted to the middle or to the secondary school after completion of 3 years of attendance at the foundation school.

**Secondary Schools for Girls (Höhere Mädchenschulen).—**Prior to 1908, secondary schools for girls in Prussia were provided either by local authorities or by private organizations and were operated as middle schools. In 1895, women were admitted to the universities as auditors but only with the consent of the instructors concerned.

According to a law of August 18, 1908, providing for a secondary school for girls and for their further education, the secondary school for girls consisted of 10 classes. The three lowest classes X, IX, and VIII constituted the preliminary school and classes VII through I the secondary school proper. On completion of this 10-year course the girl could enter the upper or lyceum division of the school which offered 2 lines of study. The women's school (Frauenschool) offered a 2-year course stressing homemaking and the care of children. The other was a Higher Seminary for Women Teachers (Höheres Lehrerinnenseminar) which offered 3 years of theoretical study followed by 1 year of practical work. Under a regulation of February 1, 1912, the 10-year secondary school became a Lyceum (Lyzeum) and the 3-year upper division an Upper Lyceum (Oberlyzeum).

To qualify girls for admission to the maturity examination and enable them to enter universities as regular students, the Law of August 18, 1910 also provided for an upper secondary school for girls (Studienanstalt—literally "institute of studies") which offered 3 courses corresponding to the 3 types of secondary schools for boys. The Gymnasial Course and the Realgymnasial Course were based on completion of the first 7 classes of the 10-year secondary school for girls; the Upper Realschool Course on completion of the first 8 classes.

After the establishment of the foundation school in the early years of the Weimar Republic, the lyceum, through a decree of March 1923, on the Reorganization of the Lyceum and Upper Lyceum, became a 6-year school based on the 4-year foundation school. The lyceum was followed by a 1- or 2-year women's school, by a 3-year upper lyceum of the upper realschool type leading to the maturity examination, and by a 3-year upper lyceum continu-

ing the studies of the lyceum not leading to the maturity examination. The upper secondary school began on completion of the first 3 years of the lyceum and offered 6-year courses corresponding to the gymnasium, realgymnasium, and German secondary school. There were also *Aufbau* schools for girls, based on the first 7 years of the elementary school, which led to the maturity examination.

Thus as of May 15, 1935, before the reform in the organization of secondary education under National Socialism, general education in the German Nation was being given in 5 types of secondary schools, 3 of which included several different kinds of schools. The 1,989 secondary schools of that date offering curriculums leading to the certificate of maturity, were distributed among the main types and with variations as follows:

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<sup>3</sup> *Wegweiser durch das höhere Schulwesen des Deutschen Reiches Schuljahr 1935.* (Im Auftrage des Reichs- und Preussischen Ministers für Wissenschaft, Erziehung und Volksbildung bearbeitet von der Reichsstelle für Schulwesen Berlin.) Berlin SW 68: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, 1936, p. 20.

**Secondary Schools with Curriculums Leading to the Certificate  
of Maturity**

**Gymnasium Type**

	<i>Number of Schools</i>
Gymnasia (Gymnasien) .....	418
Reform Gymnasia (Reformgymnasien) .....	25
Gymnasia for Girls (Mädchen-Gymnasien) .....	7
Reform Gymnasia for Girls (Mädchen-Reformgymnasien) .....	3
Gymnasial Secondary School for Girls (Gymnasiale Studienanstalten) .....	13
<b>total</b>	<b>466</b>

**Realgymnasium Type**

Realgymnasia (Realgymnasien) .....	182
Reform Realgymnasia (Reformrealgymnasien) .....	370
Realgymnasia for Girls (Mädchen-Realgymnasien) .....	15
Reform Realgymnasia for Girls (Mädchen-Reformrealgymna- sien) .....	18
Realgymnasial Secondary Schools for Girls (Realgymnasi- ale Studienanstalten) .....	72
Six-Class Secondary Schools for Girls (Sechsstufige Stu- dienanstalten) .....	4
Reform Realgymnasial Upper Lycea (Reformrealgymna- siale Oberlyzeen) .....	25
<b>total</b>	<b>686</b>

**Upper Realschool Type**

Upper Realschools (Oberrealschulen) .....	365
Upper Realschools for Girls (Mädchen-Oberrealschulen) .....	16
Three-Class Upper Secondary Schools for Girls (Dreistu- fige Studienanstalten) .....	10
Upper Lycea (Oberlyzeen) .....	216
<b>total</b>	<b>607</b>

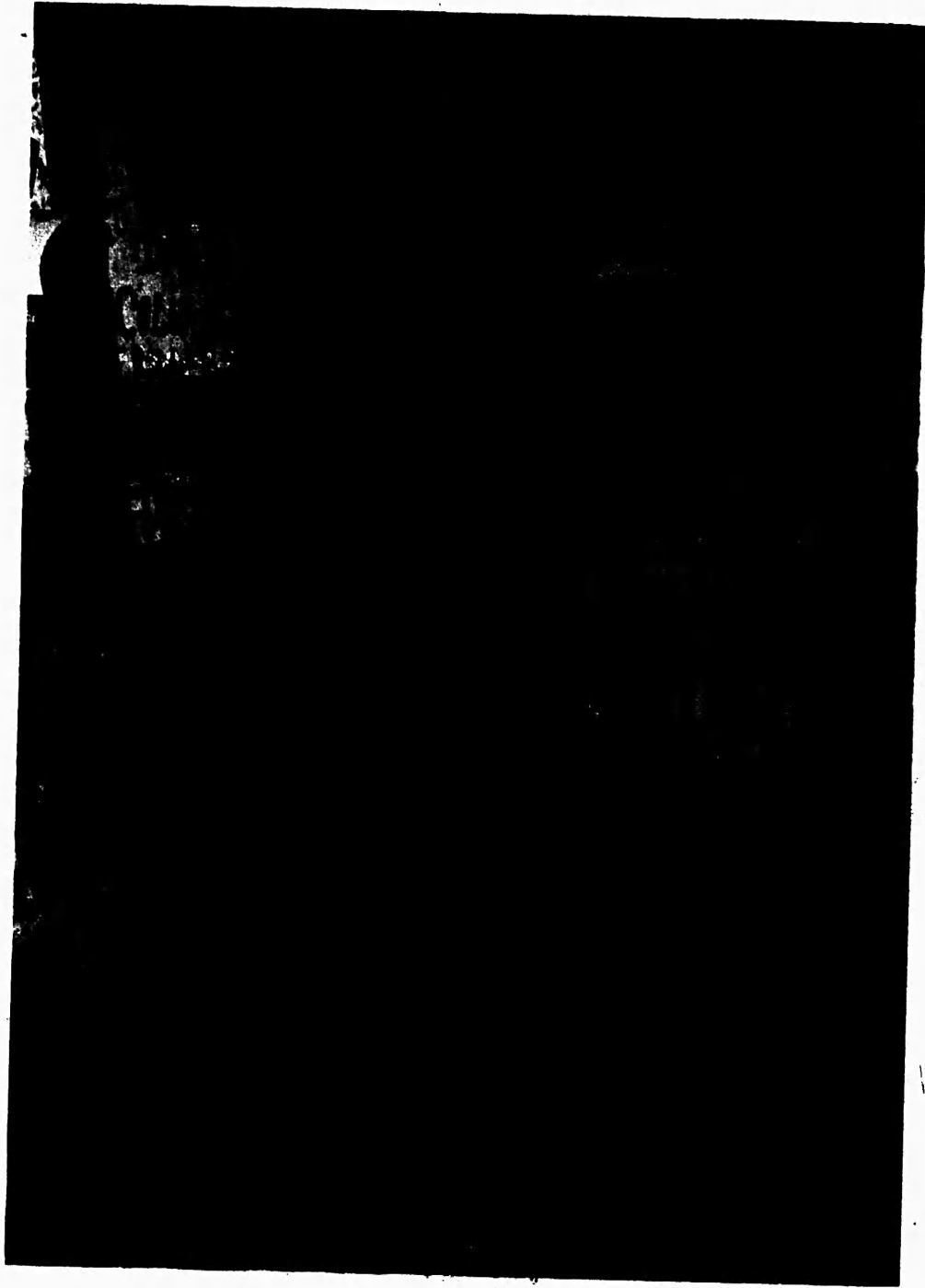
**German Upper School Type**

German Upper Schools (Deutsche Oberschulen) of which 25 were for girls .....	71
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**Aufbau School Type**

<i>Aufbau</i> Schools (Aufbauschulen) of which 30 were for girls .....	159
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<b>Grand total</b>	<b>1,989</b>
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*Photo by Lossen*

**Old Student Prison—Rupert Carl University of Heidelberg**

#### **UNDER NATIONAL SOCIALISM**

**Elementary School.**—No change was made in the organization of the 8-year elementary school from 1933-45 under National Socialism. The 4 lower years of the elementary school continued as a school of common education through which German children,



regardless of economic or social status, passed before admission to a middle or secondary school, or to the 4 upper classes of the elementary school.

The National Compulsory Education Law (Reichschulpflichtgesetz) of July 6, 1938, provided for 2 years of attendance at a part-time vocational school (Berufsschule), in agriculture and for 3 years of attendance at such a part-time school in other trades and until completion of apprenticeship. Part-time vocational schools in agriculture generally required 160 hours of attendance a year. Part-time vocational schools in other trades required from 4 to 10 hours a week.

**Middle School.**—The Middle School Law of July 1, 1938, provided for a 6-year middle school based on the first 4 years of the elementary school. It offered a terminal course which aimed to qualify its pupils for middle positions in commerce and administration without special vocational training. The already existing middle schools were to transform themselves into this new type within the immediately following years. The law also provided for a 4-year similar type of middle school called an *Aufbau* branch following completion of class 6 of the elementary school.

**Secondary School.**—In an April 20, 1936 decree to the education officers of the States, the National Minister of Education stated: "The main task of the educational administration during the first years of the National Socialist regime was to imbue education and the teaching body with the National Socialist spirit. Much yet remains to be done, but development has reached the point where the outer reorganization of the secondary school from the viewpoint of unification can now be undertaken."

In line with this concept, a March 20, 1937 decree limited the secondary schools for boys to 3 main types and those for girls to 2; made English the first modern foreign language; and shortened the time of preparation for the certificate of maturity from 13 to 12 years (see graph 3.). Detailed information and programs of study were given in a January 29, 1938 decree on "Education and Instruction in the Secondary School." This decree stated that the work of the secondary school was arranged to meet fully the goal of the maturity examination and that "at all secondary schools for boys and girls this maturity was of equal value." The schools were:

1. **Secondary School for Boys (Oberschule für Jungen).**—This was an 8-year school with English beginning in class I and Latin in class III. Classes VI to VIII were divided into a Natural Science-Mathematics Branch and a Language Branch. In the latter a third language was added.

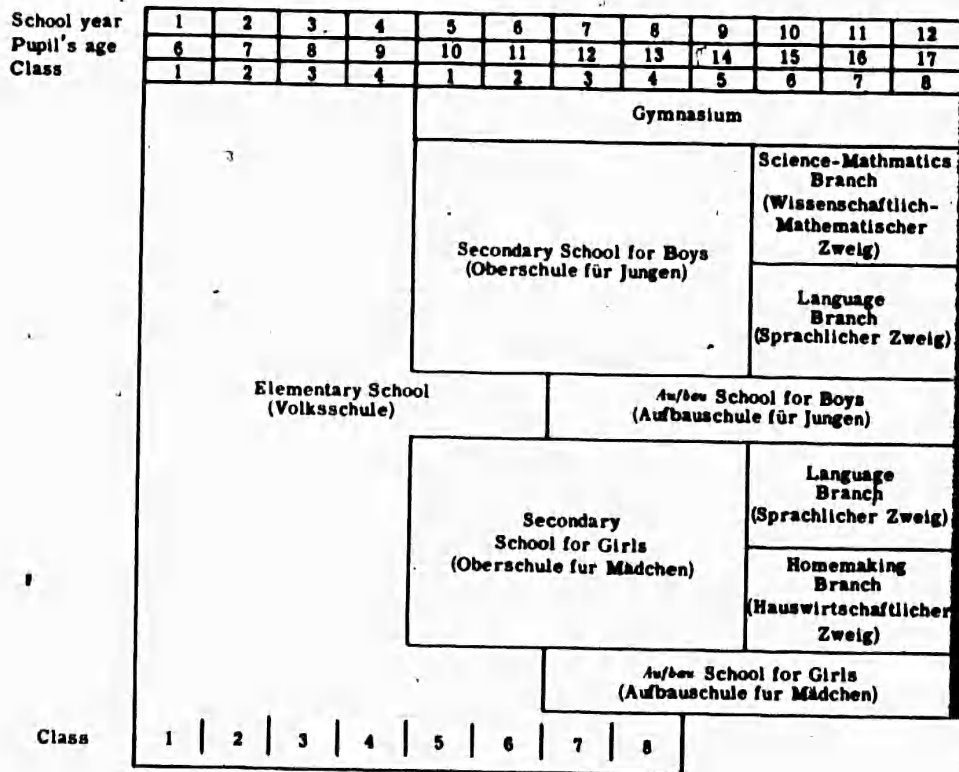
2. *Aufbau School for Boys* (Aufbauschule für Jungen).— This was a 6-year school based on the first 6 years of the elementary school with English beginning in class III and Latin in class IV.

3. *Gymnasium for Boys*.—The only gymnasia authorized to continue were those of historical significance. As before, they were based on the first 4 years of the elementary school but were changed from 9-year to 8-year schools. Latin began in class I, Greek in class III and English in class V.

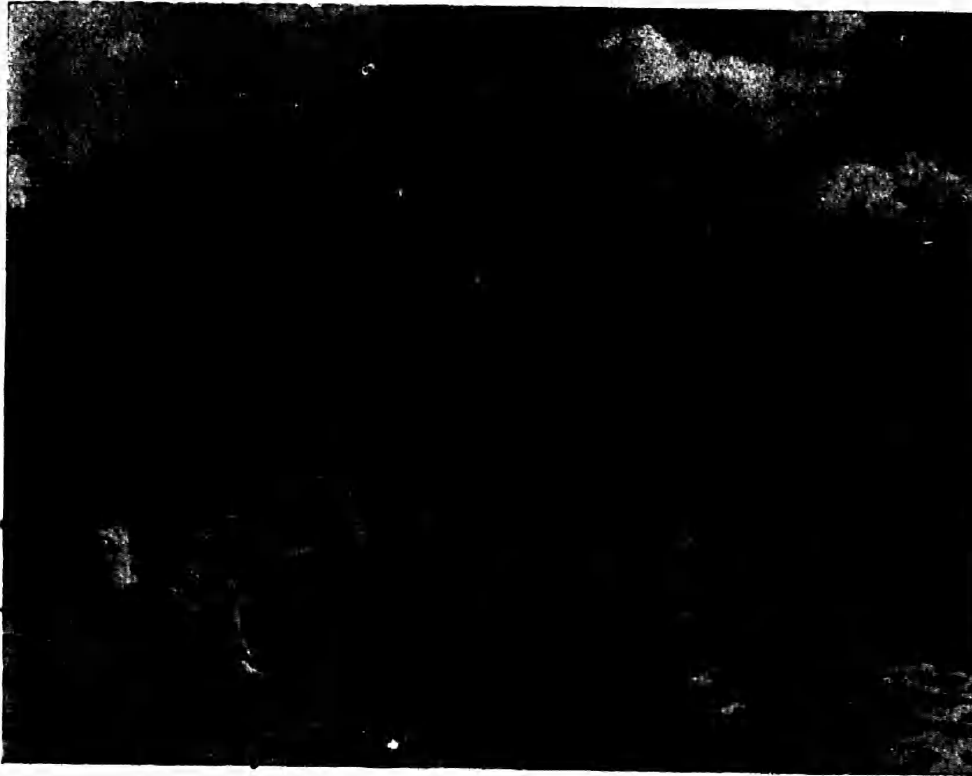
4. *Secondary School for Girls* (Oberschule für Mädchen).— This was an 8-year school beginning with English in class I. After a common program of studies through class V the pupils divided into 2 groups; one to follow a Language branch of study, the other a Homemaking branch. In the Language Form a modern language was added in class VI and for those who wished it, Latin.

5. *Aufbau School for Girls* (Aufbauschule für Mädchen).— This was a 6-year school based on completion of class VI of the elementary school and beginning with English in class I.

Graph 3. Organization of Secondary Schools, 1937-1945



■ Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung)



BPA—Courtesy, Inter Nations

Niendorf Elementary School, Hamburg

### SINCE 1945

**Elementary and Secondary Schools.**—After the reopening of the schools in 1945, the individual States gradually reestablished the 9-year secondary school following the 4-year foundation school. In so doing they again extended the period of preparation for the maturity examination to 13 years.

**Kindergartens (Kindergärten).**—The German Federal Republic has two types of kindergartens. One is for children from 3 to 6 years of age whose mothers work. These kindergartens are supported by communities, church or labor organizations, industrial concerns, and individuals. They are not connected with schools. In Hamburg they are under the supervision of the Division of Child Welfare of the Youth Authorities (Jugendbehörde). The other type is the school kindergarten established by many States for children who are not considered mature enough physically or mentally to begin school at 6 years of age. School kindergartens are found only in larger areas. Attendance is voluntary.

In West Berlin the school kindergarten is an integral part of the unified education system but is not included in the requirement

of compulsory school attendance. The aim of the school kindergarten, according to article 19 of the Berlin school law (Schulgesetz) of August 5, 1952, "is to bring the child into a larger community and give him school maturity through meaningful guidance and activity without the use of school subject matter ahead of time."

**West Berlin.**—The City-States of West Berlin, Bremen, and Hamburg adopted a unified school called the General Public School (Allgemeine Volksschule), consisting of a 6-year elementary school followed by a 6- or 7-year secondary school. The classes are named by arabic number according to the year of schooling beginning with 1 as the lowest class of the elementary school, to 12 or 13 as the highest class of the secondary school. In West Berlin the secondary school has 3 branches (see graph 4.).

1. Practical secondary school extending from class 7 through 9.
2. Technical secondary school extending from class 7 through 10.
3. Secondary school of general education extending from class 7 through 13.

With promotion from the 6th to the 7th class all pupils enter the secondary school. Through similarity of study plans in classes 7 and 8 of the practical and technical branches in the secondary school, pupils have the opportunity of transfer from one branch to the other. The choice of branch and course is determined by the wishes of the pupil and parents coupled with the judgment of the teacher and principal (Schulleiter).


Pupils planning for a career requiring university study enter the general education secondary school which offers 4 branches of instruction leading to the certificate of maturity: (1) Classical language, (2) modern language, (3) mathematics-natural science, and (4) arts.

On completion of class 8 in the practical and technical branches, pupils whose aptitudes and educational abilities have developed after they left the foundation school may attain a certificate of maturity by attending a general upper school in *Aufbau* form.

For pupils planning to enter practical work, the objective of finding the trade or line of work is stressed in class 9. Completion of class 9 is followed by 3 years of attendance at a part-time vocational school for 6 hours 2 days a week supplementary to an apprenticeship or work in commerce and related lines, or for 8 hours 1 day a week for those who have entered apprenticeship or work

Graph 4. Organization of Education in West Berlin

School year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Pupil's age	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Foundation School (Grundschule)									Classical Language Branch (Altsprachlicher Zweig)				
									Modern Language Branch (Neusprachlicher Zweig)				
									Mathematics-Natural Science Branch (Mathematisch-Naturwissenschaftlicher Zweig)				
									General Education Secondary School Arts Branch (Wissenschaftliche Oberschule Musischer Zweig)				
							Practical and Technical Praktisch und Technisch		General Education Secondary School In Aufbau form (Wissenschaftliche Oberschule in Aufbauform)				
									Technical Secondary School (Technische Oberschule)				
								Practical Secondary School (Praktische Oberschule)					

 Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung)

in industry and handicrafts. Attendance at a full-time vocational school (Berufsfachschule) which offers both theoretical and practical training may be substituted for apprenticeship and attendance at a part-time vocational school.

Completed attendance at a part-time vocational school may be followed by attendance at a full-time vocational secondary school (Fachschule) in engineering, building construction, commerce, (Ingenieurschule, Baugewerkschule, Wirtschaftsschule) or the like. Pupils who leave the general education secondary school on completion of class 10 or 11 may enter one of these schools after completion of 2 years of practical work following 10 years of schooling or after 1 year of practical work following 11 years of schooling.

Successful participation in the 2- or 3-year comprehensive course of the vocational upper secondary school qualifies for the practice of higher technical commercial or industrial work and also leads to maturity for admission to an institution of higher education in the line of study concerned. Young people are given opportunity

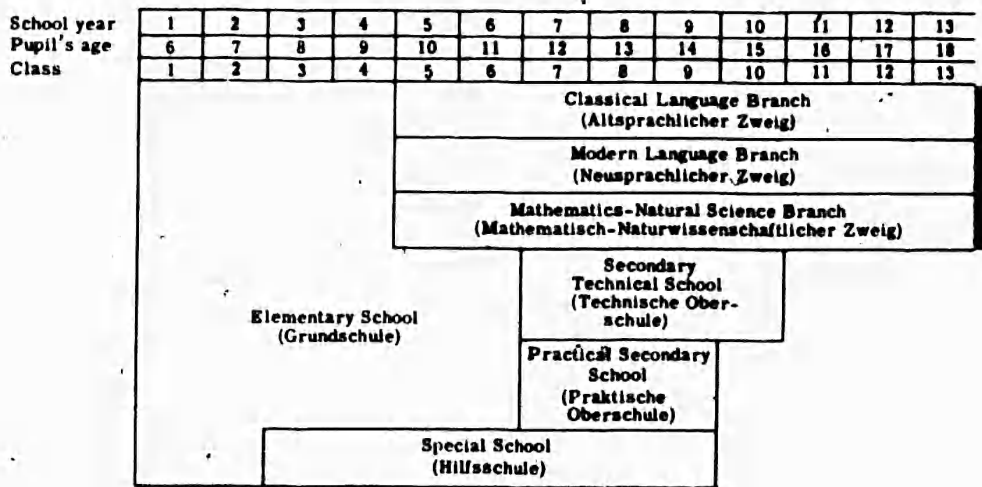
also through special courses, evening schools, and the like to attain maturity for admission to study at an institution of higher education.

**Hamburg.**—From 1949 to 1954 Hamburg had a 6-year elementary school. Since 1954 it has had both a 6-year elementary school and a 4-year foundation course (within the 6-year school). Admission to the lowest class of the practical or of the technical secondary school is permitted only after completion of the elementary school. Admission to the general education secondary school is permitted on completion of class 6 and after completion of class 4 of the elementary school.

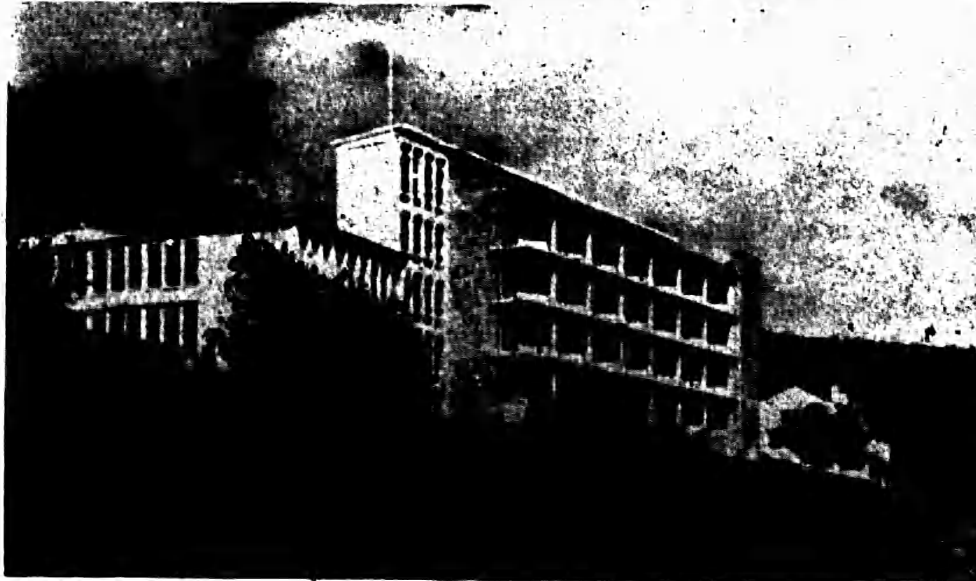
On transfer from the elementary school to the practical secondary school there is no examination. For admission to the general education secondary school or to the technical secondary school there are 2 weeks of probational schooling with 1 teacher each from the elementary school and the secondary school.

The first year of attendance in the secondary school is probational. If a pupil fails twice in the general education secondary school he must go either to the technical or to the practical secondary school. If he fails in the technical secondary school he must go to the practical secondary school.

Graph 5. Organization of Education in Hamburg



 Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung)



BFA—Courtesy, Inter Nations

Vocational School, Lohr on the Main

**Baden-Wuerttemberg.**<sup>4</sup>—Through a decree of October 16, 1953, a 9-year secondary school in Baden-Wuerttemberg is called a *Gymnasium*; a 6-year secondary school based on the 4-year foundation school a *Progymnasium*; and an *Aufbau* school, an *Aufbaugymnasium*. The 3 types of 9-year secondary schools based on the 4-year foundation school are:

1. Classical language gymnasium in which Latin, English, and Greek begin, respectively, in class 1, 3, and 5.
2. Modern language gymnasium in which English, Latin, and French begin, respectively, in class 1, 3, and 5. The latter two may be interchanged.
3. Mathematics-natural science gymnasium in which English begins with class 1 and French with class 3. Only 2 languages are required, but pupils who wish may attend an optional study group in Latin (*Freiwillige Latein Arbeitsgemeinschaft*) beginning with class 7.

There also are a number of *Aufbau* gymnasia with school homes (*Aufbaugymnasien mit Heimen*). These are boarding

<sup>4</sup> When the *Basic Law* was approved by the Military Governors of the three Western Zones of Occupation on May 12, 1949, they suspended Article 29 on the general question of territorial reorganization pending the peace treaty, and approved Article 118 which set up a special procedure for the reorganization of Southwest Germany. The State of Wuerttemberg-Baden under U. S. Occupation was a part of the area which became Baden-Wuerttemberg as a result of the reorganization under Article 118. See *7th Quarterly Report on Germany: April 1–June 30, 1951*. Frankfurt/Main: Office of the U. S. High Commissioner for Germany, 1951, p. 70–76.

schools offering a 5-year course based on completion of the 8-year elementary school. The 5-year course leads to the maturity examination and includes 2 languages with English or French as the first. The second language may be English, French, or Latin.

Transfer from the 4-year foundation school to the gymnasium is through entrance examination. The questions are made out by the Ministry of Education. The examination begins on the same day and at the same hour in the entire State. At each gymnasium it is given under the supervision of a committee consisting of the director of the school as chairman, and one teacher each from the gymnasium and the elementary school. Pupils who pass the examination are admitted to the gymnasium on probation for 3 months.

Pupils who fail in the examination or in the period of probation may come up for reexamination after 1 year of attendance in class 5 of the elementary school. After this additional year of schooling the examination is correspondingly harder, but pupils who take it generally pass and are admitted to 3 months of probational attendance at the gymnasium. On completion of these 3 months, achievement is the decisive factor.

The Director of the oldest mathematics-natural science gymnasium in Stuttgart—the Friedrich Eugens Gymnasium founded in 1796—stated, at the time of the entrance examinations in 1955, that from his observation about 15 percent of the pupils from the foundation school who apply for admission to the gymnasium fail in the examination and approximately another 10 percent fail during the period of probation. Of those who enter the gymnasium few—perhaps 1 percent—leave before class 6.

In the mathematics-natural science gymnasium about 60 percent drop out on completion of class 6 to enter preparation for middle technical positions as engineers, builders, architects, or for administrative positions. The remaining 40 percent are joined by pupils who have completed the *Progymnasium* and proceed for the next 3 years to the maturity examination. Success in the maturity examination qualifies them for admission to a university, institute of technology (Technische Hochschule), or other institution of higher education.

Among changes in the organization of education in the German Federal Republic that indicate progress toward the goal of equal educational opportunity since 1945 are:

***The Ninth School Year (Das Neunte Schuljahr).***—In the reorganization of their education since 1945 Schleswig-Holstein, West Berlin, Bremen, and Hamburg extended the 8-year course of the



Graph 6. Organization of Education in Baden-Wuerttemberg

School year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Pupil's age	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Class	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
	Elementary School (Volksschule)				Classical Language Gymnasium (Altsprachliches Gymnasium)								
					Modern Language Gymnasium (Neusprachliches Gymnasium)								
					Mathematics-Natural Science Gymnasium (Mathematisch-Naturwissenschaftliches Gymnasium)								
					Secondary School (Progymnasium)					Aufbau School (Aufbau Gymnasium)			
Class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					

■ Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung)

elementary school to 9 years. Later Schleswig-Holstein modified this provision; still later a new law on compulsory education re-established the requirement of 9 years of attendance at a full-time school. Lower Saxony and North Rhine-Westphalia also have 9 years of full-time compulsory school attendance. Baden-Wuerttemberg requires a 9th year of schooling for all children who on completion of the 8th year are unable to find employment. In a report on *Educational Developments in the Federal Republic of Germany in the Scholastic year 1955-56*, presented to the 19th International Conference on Public Education in Geneva, in July 1956, the Chairman of the School Committee of the Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education states, "On principle there is a tendency in the ministries of education . . . to enforce in general" 9 years "of compulsory schooling; lack of school accommodation and staffing difficulties are at present the greatest hindrances in this development although a number of Länder [states] have enforced 9 years' compulsory schooling in every case."<sup>4</sup>

**Six-Year Elementary School.**—Through legislation passed by Bremen and Hamburg in 1949, and by West Berlin in 1951, each of these 3 City-States has a 6-year elementary school for children from 6 to 12 years of age. This extends the period of schooling common for children in these States by 2 years. Hesse has provided for 6 years of common schooling for its children through a plan of studies for school years 5 and 6 that is common for all schools there.

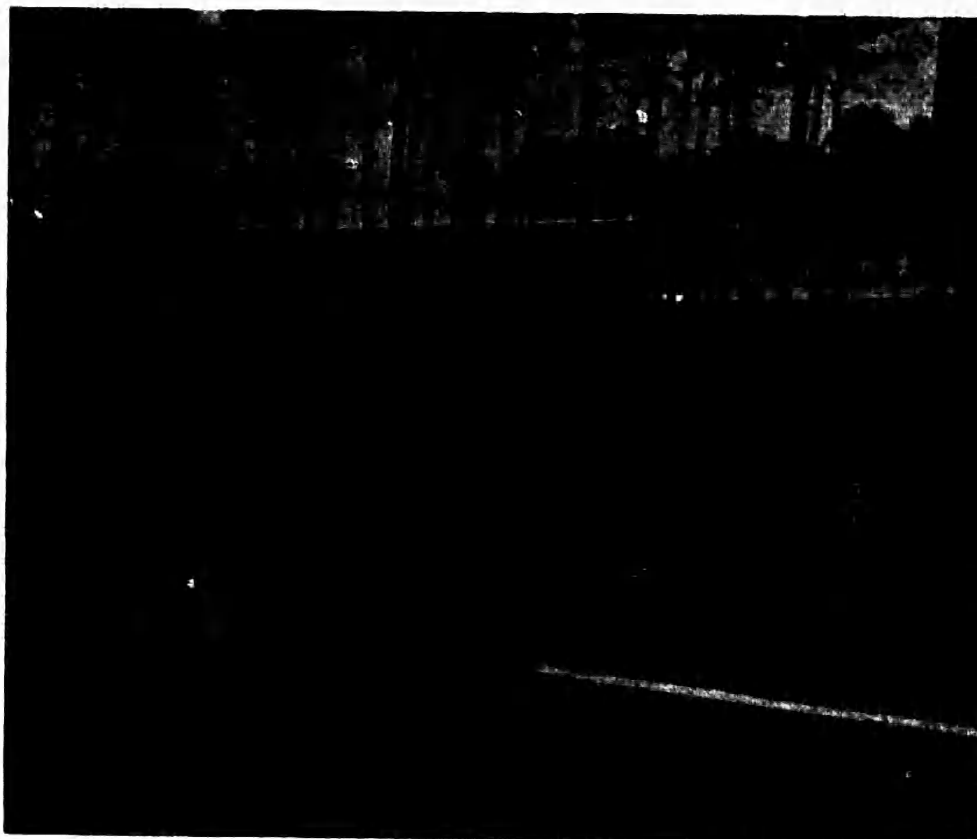
<sup>4</sup> (Mimeo.) p. 4.

**Differentiated Middle Level.**—The Ministry of Education in Lower Saxony is sponsoring an experiment for a differentiated middle level (differenzierter Mittelbau) in classes 5–8 or 7–9 that would enable top group elementary school graduates to continue study at a regular secondary school. The experiment was begun at the Pestalozzi School of Hannover in 1947–48, and extended to 13 elementary schools in Lower Saxony in 1953–54.

**Short Type Secondary School (Kurzform Hohereschule).**—By providing for a short type 7-year secondary school leading to the certificate of maturity in place of a 9-year secondary school, Bavaria, Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, Hesse, Lower Saxony, and North Rhine-Westphalia have lengthened by 2 years the period of schooling common for all children in the elementary school.

**Similarity of Programs of Study.**—Through similarity of programs in classes 7 and 8 of the practical and technical branches of the upper school in West Berlin, Bremen, and Hamburg, pupils have the opportunity of transfer from one branch to the other.

**Centralized Schools.**—Complete 8- and 9-year elementary schools are found in large communities and cities. Until recently



BPA—Photo by HICOG

American Type Consolidated School—Village School on the Bergstrasse,  
Jugenheim

2- and sometimes 1-room schools attended by children between 6 and 14 years of age were common in smaller villages. Now most rural communities have 2- and 3-room schools. In some parts of the Federal Republic, particularly in Lower Saxony and Hesse, a plan is underway to retain classes 1 through 6 in the smaller villages and to combine classes 7 through 9 of the elementary school at a central school in a larger village. The aim of the central school is to make available to the children of the area the various educational opportunities for children from 12 to 15 years of age.

*School Village on the Bergstrasse (Schuldorf Bergstrasse).*— In connection with centralized schools mention should be made of the Village School on the Bergstrasse at Jugenheim, Hesse, opened in April 1954, for some 1,200 children from the communities of Jugenheim, Seeheim, and Bickenbach. It comprises a kindergarten, an elementary school, a special school (Hilfsschule) a vocational school with a department each for agriculture and homemaking, and a realgymnasial *Aufbau* school. The School Village on the Bergstrasse was an innovation in Germany in that it included all branches and all levels of schooling for pupils from kindergarten to the maturity examination qualifying for admission to a university.

Located near the Pedagogical Institute of Jugenheim the School Village has the opportunity of providing the teachers and students of the Institute with practical experience and demonstration material.

*Unification.*—The unification of education according to the agreement of February 17, 1955 (p. 14), has extended educational opportunity by (1) reducing the number of types of middle and secondary schools; (2) providing for a common plan of studies from class 5 through class 8 of the modern language gymnasium and the mathematics-science gymnasium; (3) making English the first foreign language in each of these types of schools; (4) providing on completion of class 7 of the elementary school for a shortened form of the modern language and the mathematics-science gymnasiums which does not at the beginning require knowledge of a foreign language, and (5) providing opportunity for admission to the middle school extending from completion of class 4 to completion of class 7 of the elementary school.

The Unification Agreement provides for a total of 13 years of elementary and secondary schooling in preparation for the maturity examination. As previously indicated the classes are named by number in ascending order from 1 to 13 according to the year of schooling beginning with the first year of the ele-



BPA—Photo by USIS

**Chemistry Laboratory—Cusanus Gymnasium, Bad Godesberg**

mentary school. Following the first 4 years of the elementary school the regular middle school extends from class 5 through class 10. It may be abbreviated to a 5-, 4-, or 3-year middle school after completion of class 5, 6, or 7 of the elementary school respectively.

The normal secondary school is the 9-year gymnasium (classes 5-13) following completion of the 4 lower years of the elementary school. There is also a short type of secondary school beginning not later than after completion of class 7 of the elementary school which, at the beginning, does not require knowledge of a foreign language.

The three kinds of long type (9-year) secondary school are the:

1. Classical language gymnasium in which Latin, a modern language, and Greek begin, respectively, in class 5, 7, and 8.
2. Modern language gymnasium in which English and French or Latin according to the pupil's choice, begin, respectively, in class 5 and 7.
3. Mathematics-natural science gymnasium in which English and French or Latin according to the pupil's choice, begin, respectively, in class 5 and 8.

The modern language gymnasium and the mathematics-natural science gymnasium have a common plan of studies from class 5 through 8. With class 9 a third language begins in the modern language gymnasium, while stress on mathematics, physics, and chemistry begins in the mathematics-natural science gymnasium.

The short type gymnasium has only a modern language and a mathematics-natural science branch. In both branches English is the first foreign language; they also have a second foreign language. A third language is not required. In States where French or Latin has been the first foreign language in the modern language or mathematics-natural science secondary schools, this practice may be continued, provided that the districts concerned also have an adequate number of these types of schools with English as the first modern foreign language.

A graphic presentation of the unification of the various types of secondary schools is given in the graph on page 5.

**Lowering the Cost of Education.**—Progress toward the goal of equal educational opportunity also is encouraged by lowering the cost of education through exemption of fees and provision of free learning materials and educational subsidies.

Attendance at elementary schools and continuation schools has been free in Germany since the days of the Empire. Secondary schools have charged tuition. In Prussia a law of July 18, 1930 stated that the tuition fee at public secondary schools could not be more than one-third of the cost per year for each child. Tuition for the second child of the family was reduced by one-fourth and that for the third child by one-half. For the fourth and additional children no fees could be charged. The law provided further that at least one-fourth of the money collected in fees was to be used for the education of worthy, financially needy, gifted children.

In 1948 and 1949 Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, and Hesse extended the exemption of fees to all types of schools. One year later, in 1949, Bavaria did the same. In Baden-Wuerttemberg, which reduced its fees by 50 percent some years ago, fees are to be abolished completely in 1957-58 in elementary, middle, secondary, and technical vocational schools; and in North Rhine-Westphalia by 1960. Meanwhile the loss of income from school fees is being replaced by State subsidies.

In 1951 Schleswig-Holstein limited exemption from fees in middle and secondary schools to the duration of compulsory school attendance. In classes beyond that, fees are scheduled according to the income of the parents when the income per year exceeds the exemption limit of 4,200 German marks.

Formerly free educational materials were granted only in case of need. Textbooks are now supplied free of charge in all States, either to all schools or to elementary schools, depending on the funds available. Among States which also supply free instructional materials are Bavaria, West Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, and Hesse.

Section 3 of Article 146 of the Weimar Constitution urged that aid be made available for indigent middle and secondary school pupils to enable them to complete their education. Reconstruction needs since 1945 resulted in limited funds for educational aid and scholarships though provision was made for aiding needy, worthy students. In States now requiring school fees, part of the income has been used to provide relief from them according to need.

## Chapter IV

### The Social Studies in German Schools<sup>1</sup>

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**T**HE INTRODUCTION of the concept of "social studies" in German curriculums since 1947 has, in many respects, a parallel in the introduction of the same concept in school programs in the United States beginning in 1916. At that time, the term "social studies" was given official recognition in the report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association.<sup>2</sup>

After the turn of the century, demand began to develop for the introduction of more economic and social content, either through an enrichment of the older, established offerings or through the introduction of new courses. History, geography, and civics curriculums took on a new emphasis and additional content. Community civics and problems courses, variously named and with varying content, were developed for the 9th and 12th grades; and, in some schools, a social studies sequence was developed for the

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<sup>1</sup> Burr W. Phillips, Professor of Education and History at the University of Wisconsin, is the author of this chapter. He was a member of the United States Social Studies Committee which went to Germany in 1947. Since then he has returned 4 times on invitation for followup work. In 1950 Professor Phillips was appointed chairman of the American Committee for the Exchange and critical Examination of German History Textbooks (p. 94).

<sup>2</sup> Arthur William Dunn, comp. *The Social Studies in Secondary Education: A Six-Year Program adapted both to the 6-3-3 and the 8-4 Plans of Organization*. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1916, 63 p. (Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 28.)

first 8 or 9 years. Core programs began to appear, extending occasionally through the 12th grade, sometimes involving the correlation of the older disciplines, and sometimes disregarding the traditional subject matter boundaries. Extensive constructive curricular reorganization resulted, as well as much confusion.

Before the second decade of the 20th century, history, geography, and civics had their place in school programs in the United States; at that time, history was almost exclusively political and military in emphasis and content; geography was largely physical and political; and civics was descriptive, dealing with local, State, and National Government.

In Germany during the Second Empire and the Republic, there was much emphasis on history—history that was Germany-centered and covered the ancient, medieval, and early modern periods. There was little, if any, coverage of recent history; much attention was paid to political and military factors. Geography was descriptive and political. Political civics, as such, played a minor role in the program, with some time being devoted to citizenship education (Staatsbürgerkunde)—things the recipient of training should know about the State. During the Third Empire, the whole school program was reshaped for the purpose of indoctrinating the youth of Germany with the goals of National Socialism. The one area in the school program prior to 1945, which corresponded to many present-day objectives of one type of social studies program in the United States, was the study of the environment or community (Heimatkunde) in the first 4 years of the elementary school. Here the child learned to know his immediate community through classroom studies and through field trips under the teacher's direction. Here he learned fundamentals of geography, history, and folklore. As he learned to know his home community, he was expected to develop affection and loyalty for his homeland. There was some variation from the norm in a few experimental centers, notably in private schools; in general, the school program was rigidly fixed in content and method.

The concept of social studies made its appearance in German schools after the close of World War II, when it was emphasized in the reconstruction of school programs after the disintegration of the Third Empire (Reich). The close of World War II found German schools in a state of almost complete demoralization. School buildings which escaped destruction were temporarily closed. War casualties and denazification created a dearth of trained teachers. Textbooks written during the Third Empire could no longer be used; materials of instruction were almost non-



existent. New curriculums had to be developed and new textbooks prepared. An overall directive<sup>3</sup> of the occupation authorities required that the tremendous task of educational reconstruction be carried on within the framework of 10 principles laid down by Military Government in 1947, the broad purpose of which was to bring about the democratization of the German school system.

An account of the problems of German educational reconstruction, together with recommendations, is found in the *Report of the United States Education Mission to Germany* which made a survey during the late summer of 1946 and reported to Military Government in Germany and to the Department of State and the War Department in Washington. One of the first recommendations in the report proposed "the sending of American experts for direct personal contact and discussion with their German colleagues in similar fields."<sup>4</sup>

The first group of "experts" invited to Germany by Military Government, in pursuance of this recommendation, was a social studies group of 7 who were asked to provide advisory assistance in this area as one means of encouraging an understanding of the democratic way of life. After briefing in Washington in February 1947, the group flew to Berlin for more briefing and study. Then the members of the group were sent to the major parts of the United States Zone (except for the Bremen Enclave); 2 were assigned to Munich, 2 to Wiesbaden, 2 to Stuttgart, and 1 remained in Berlin. They reassembled in Munich to compare notes and make preliminary plans for the final report. At the end of 3 months, the group returned to Berlin where its report was written.<sup>5</sup> This report was prepared for reading by Military Government in Germany, German educators, and interested persons in the United States. A German translation was sent to the various Ministries of Education in Germany.

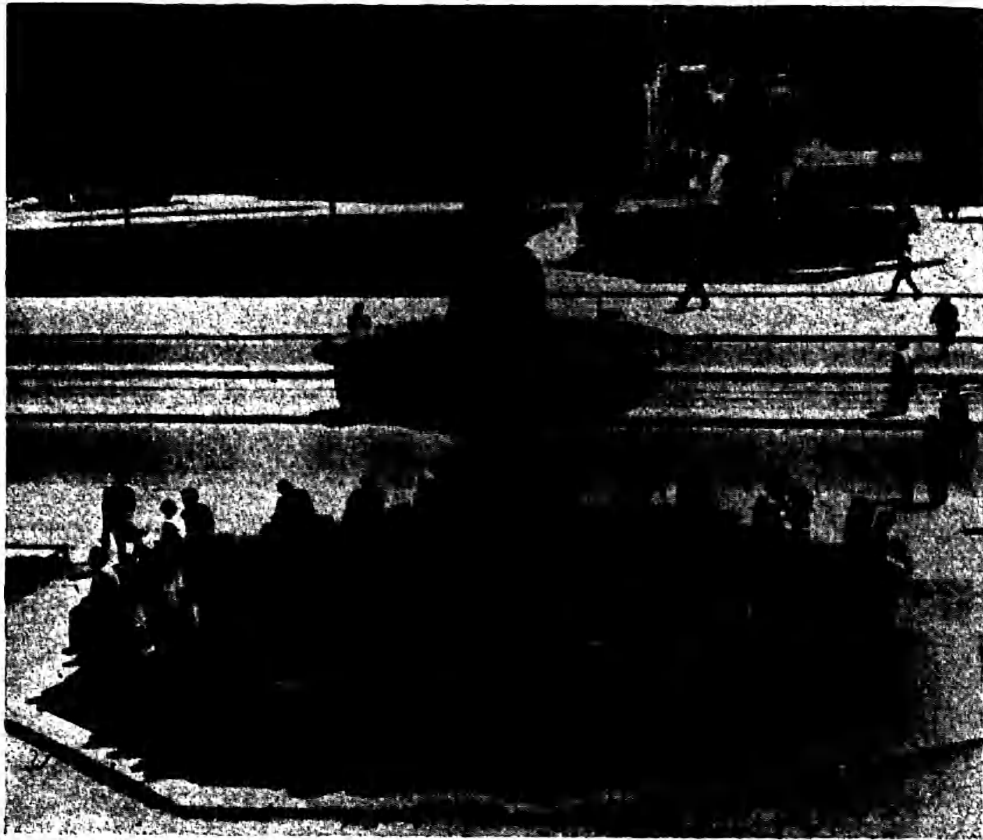
The report contained a Foreword and sections on Social Education in Germany, Goals and Principles, The Social Studies Program, The Social Education of Teachers, Materials and Equipment, and a Program for Action. It sought to acquaint German educators with the concept of Social Studies. Since 1947, many

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<sup>3</sup> Allied Control Authority. *Basic Principles for Democratization of Education in Germany. Directive No. 54.* Berlin: The Authority, June 25, 1947. 2 p.

<sup>4</sup> Department of State. Publication 2664, European Series 16. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946, p. 47.

<sup>5</sup> *Report of the United States Social Studies Committee to Germany.* April 1947. (Unpublished.)



*Photo by Peter Keetman, Breitbrunn*

**Between Classes—Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich**

teachers from the United States have gone to Germany under the auspices of the Department of the Army or the Department of State. And since 1948, many German students and teachers have crossed the Atlantic under various exchange programs to see programs in action in the United States.

Changes have been made in German textbooks and courses of study. One cannot say how much the changes are the result of contacts with educators in and from the United States and other countries; a revival of interest in the work of liberal German educators prior to the Third Empire; or both. An educational system, like other institutions, has its roots in the intellectual soil of a nation. At the same time, it may learn from the experience of other peoples. And sometimes it learns from the mistakes of others.

For example, in American educational systems there are various schools of thought when it comes to defining the term "social studies." To some, it means a subject with its own content, disregarding the organization and approach of traditional disciplines such as history or geography. To others, it is the core which all

other subjects have in common. The latter school of thought tends to use the term "social education" and contends that every subject or school activity should make its contribution to the social education of the child.

Wesley and others use the term "social studies" to designate that area which includes history, geography, political and economic civics, social problems, and the like. History is to the social studies as algebra is to mathematics. Wesley differentiates between "social studies" and the "social sciences." The social sciences, he writes, "are concerned with the detailed, systematic, and logical study of human relationships . . . The social studies are the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes."<sup>6</sup> This is the sense in which the National Council for the Social Studies defines the two terms. This is the sense in which the United States Social Studies Committee to Germany used the terms, adding "The social studies are those subjects which deal with the problems of men living together in society." Each subject has its contribution to make. For example, history furnishes the time and sequential relations, geography the place and environmental factors. "Social education" was reserved to designate a purpose, like training for citizenship, which is common to all areas in the school program; it is not taught in one course alone.

Confusion in use of the term "social sciences," "social studies," and "social education" carried over to German colleagues. There, the concept of social studies was new. Were social studies "subject" or "purpose?" Were not the social studies the same thing as sociology (Soziologie)? Should a new subject, variously named, be included in a crowded curriculum, or could the same results be gained by revising both content and method of teaching history, geography, or the old civics (Staatsbürgerkunde)? What word would accurately describe the new course or approach? Since the control of the school program was in the hands of ministries of education in the States, different names came into use in the different states. *Sozialkunde*, *Politischer Unterricht*, *Gegenwartskunde*, and *Gemeinschaftskunde* were some of the titles used. Some teachers said "social studies" because they felt there was no German equivalent.

A contribution to mutual understanding was made by the International Workshop on Social Studies held at Heidelberg from July

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<sup>6</sup> Edgar Bruce Wesley. *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools*. Third edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1950, p. 84.

17 to August 26, 1950.<sup>7</sup> About 75 German teachers from the various branches of the German educational system were in attendance. There were 9 leaders in the social studies field from the United States and 11 representatives from other countries. This sharing of experiences and varying points of view helped stabilize the social studies movement in German schools. The proceedings were published in both English and German.

After the Western Occupying Powers discontinued the use of the term "school reform" and began stressing "mutual cooperation and understanding," the German teachers were talking about a change in the spirit of the German school—the inner school reform (*die innere Schulreform*). This was observable in 1949 in the conferences held at Kempfenhausen, outside Munich on the Starnbergersee. Bavarian elementary schoolteachers were giving up vacations to attend conferences in various parts of the State in which matters concerning the spirit of the schools were being discussed. Pamphlets dealing with the importance of the social studies were being published in the series *Pädagogisches Wissen und Wirken* under the authorship of Ferdinand Kopp, head of the school in Tutzing. Three of these pamphlets were issued under the titles of: *Erziehung zum Mitmenschen*, *Der Unterricht in der Sozialkunde*, and *Die Krise der Heimaterziehung und die Aufgabe der Schule* (Education for Living Together, Instruction in the Social Studies, and The Crisis in Teaching about the Environment and the Duty of the School). By 1949 Bremen had a social studies supervisor and experiments were being carried on in both content and methods of instruction.

Certain occupation efforts did not result in the type of democratic reform which was sought. For example, principle 4 of *Directive 54*<sup>8</sup> aimed at the abolition of the two-track German educational structure, in which the elementary school paralleled the secondary school so that there were 2 types or qualities of instruction which overlapped. The directive did not result in the substitution of a one-track system in which the terms "elementary education" and "secondary education" meant 2 consecutive levels of instruction.

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<sup>7</sup> *Proceedings and Suggestions for the Formation of Social Studies in the Public Schools of Germany*. Frankfurt/Main: Office of the United States High Commissioner for Germany, June 1951, 154 p. (Internationale Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Sozialkunde in Heidelberg, 17. Juli bis 26. August 1950, *Verhandlungsbericht und Vorschläge für die Gestaltung des sozialkundlichen Unterrichts in der deutschen Schule*. Frankfurt/Main: Office of the United States High Commissioner for Germany, 1951, 186 p.)

<sup>8</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 1.



*Photo by Leonard—Courtesy, Inter Nations*  
**After-School Learning, Berlin**

In 1949 current courses of study did not reflect substantial changes in course offerings. The emphasis in the humanistic gymnasium continued to be on preparation for the university, and was largely academic. History usually was traditional history. In the realgymnasium, attention was being paid to the modern languages and to science and mathematics. In the vocational schools there was a minimum of what might be described as social education. The boy or girl was being taught about the laws that pertained to his or her craft, with little instruction in history or geography.

By 1954, progress in social studies instruction was apparent. Classrooms previously characterized by a formal and didactic approach were using a discussion procedure. Social studies instruction was included in history and geography classes, where the problems were related to the present. Audio-visual aids and dramatization were in evidence. Without radical changes in the structure of the course of study, the subjects studied were being enriched as to content and method. Several schools in Hesse had, for some time, been experimenting with a social curriculum with more flexibility. In some of these experimental schools, the girls were receiving instruction in sewing and cooking, formerly a function of the vocational schools only.

Conferences of apprentice secondary schoolteachers were centering discussion on problems involved in instruction in the social studies. The Hessian Ministry of Education had appointed a committee to set up an examination in the social studies to be given to the young teacher about to begin his 2 years of apprenticeship.

In the Pedagogical Institutes or teachers' colleges, the faculties were aware of the importance of broadening the social studies program, though some individuals were not especially friendly to the idea. In Hesse, the 4 Education Service Centers at Weilburg, Jugenheim, Kassel, and the Reinhardswaldschule, originally set up by the Education Branch of the Office of the High Commissioner for Germany and now taken over by Germans, were the scene of many conferences, with social studies claiming their share of attention. The same was true of the new International Education Conference Center at Sonnenberg in the Harz Mountains.

Examples could be multiplied several times over. A leaven is at work among German teachers who believe in inner school reform. A shift toward the democratization of German education is observable. Time will reveal the scope of the impact of the social studies concept on German education.

## Chapter V

### Bridging the Gap Between Elementary and Secondary School Teachers

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**P**RIOR TO 1918 elementary schoolteachers were trained in seminaries for the education of elementary schoolteachers (Lehrerseminare oder Volksschullehrerseminare) while secondary schoolteachers were trained at universities. The seminaries differed somewhat in the various States; in general they offered a 5- to 7-year course based on 7 to 8 years of elementary schooling. In completely developed form they were pedagogical training schools, each with a dormitory—literally “school home” (Schulheim) as living quarters for its students, and with an attached practice school (Übungsschule). The duration of study ranged from 3 to 5 years of general education followed by 2 to 3 years of professional training.

#### THE FIRST ATTEMPT

The first attempt to carry out the university education of elementary schoolteachers was made in 1848 by the Frankfort National Assembly in the *Basic Laws of the German People* (Grundrechten des deutschen Volkes). Article IV of these basic laws demanded a State school, a general law of education, a non-denominational elementary school, and university education for elementary schoolteachers.

These basic requirements were proposed by the German Teachers Association (Allgemeiner Deutscher Lehrerverein), an association composed of the various groups of teachers. In the political

and cultural reaction which followed the Revolution of 1848, the Teachers Association was dissolved and the demand for university education for elementary schoolteachers, under discussion for about 50 years by progressive groups of teachers, was temporarily silenced.

Only in individual instances did any connection develop between the body of elementary schoolteachers and the university during the period 1848 to 1918-19. In 1864 Saxony permitted seminary graduates who made the final and average mark "I" (Abschlussnote I) corresponding to "A" in education in the United States, to pursue from 4 to 5 semesters of pedagogical study at the university. Completion of this study qualified for a career as seminary teacher. The example set by Saxony was followed by Weimar, Hesse, Oldenburg, Bavaria, Wuerttemberg and Thuringia. Beginning in 1919 elementary schoolteachers, who had made the final mark "I" in their seminary work could study at a university in preparation for secondary schoolteaching.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE SECOND ATTEMPT

Article 143 of the Weimar Constitution of 1919 states with reference to the education of elementary and secondary schoolteachers that teacher education is to be regulated uniformly throughout the Nation according to the basic principles applicable to the general education of secondary schoolteachers.

When the National Minister of Interior stated in a Circular of January 20, 1923, that the provisions of Article 143 could not be carried out for the time being because of financial reasons, various States took the matter up individually. Bavaria and Wuerttemberg held fast to the *Lehrerseminar* for the training of their elementary schoolteachers. In the States that did make a change there was, in the main, no opposition to general secondary education for elementary schoolteachers. The controversy was concerned with the question of whether the succeeding professional training should be offered at a university or at some other type of institution of higher education (Hochschule).

University education of 6 semesters for elementary schoolteachers was provided in Thuringia (University of Jena) by a law of July 8, 1922; in Saxony (University of Leipzig and the Dresden Institute of Technology), April 4, 1923; in Hamburg

<sup>1</sup> Elisabeth Lippert. *Lehrer Bildung: Ein Programm*. Wiesbaden: Verlag der Hessischen Lesebuchstiftung, 1952, p. 63.



(University of Hamburg), December 20, 1926; in Braunschweig (Braunschweig Institute of Technology), 1927. In Mecklenburg-Strelitz a 4-semester course was provided at the University of Rostock.<sup>2</sup>

Prior to 1922 the preparation of male elementary schoolteachers in Prussia began with 8 years of elementary schooling. This was followed by 6 years of special study divided 3 years each between a preparatory school (Präparandenanstalt) offering general education and a teacher seminary (Lehrerseminar) for professional and practical preparation. Female elementary schoolteachers were taught at preparatory schools for women (Präparandinnenanstalten), and at seminaries for women teachers (Lehrerinnen-seminare) or at upper lycea (Oberlyzeen).

Shift to the new system in Prussia began with a Ministerial decree of February 10, 1922, which limited teacher education to 2 years and provided that it be given neither at nor in connection with a university. This was supplemented on October 7, 1924, by the requirement that the future elementary schoolteacher attend a secondary school and pass the maturity examination; and on June 30, 1925, by the provision that the professional study take place at a pedagogical academy (Pädagogische Akademie). The first 3 pedagogical academies were opened at Easter in 1926. By Easter 1930, 15 such academies had been established; of these, 8 were closed at Easter in 1932.

### PRACTICE UNDER NATIONAL SOCIALISM

On April 20, 1933, shortly after the National Socialist Party came into power a decree was issued for Prussia which converted the 7 remaining pedagogical academies into teacher-training colleges (Hochschulen für Lehrerbildung). Within the year a new one was opened at Lauenberg; that of Frankfort on the Main was transferred to Weilburg; that of Halle, to Hirschberg; and the former pedagogical academies at Frankfort on the Oder, Hannover, and Cottbus which had been closed at Easter in 1932, were reopened as teacher-training colleges.

The development begun in 1933 in Prussia continued and was followed by the establishment of similar institutions in other

<sup>2</sup> Kurt Zierold und Paul Rothkugel, *Redakteur. Die Pädagogischen Akademien*. Weidmannsche Taschenausgaben für die preussische Schulverwaltung, Heft 70. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, 1931, p. 11 and 202-205.

States. By the fall of 1936 Germany had 25 such institutions, 11 of which were outside of Prussia. With the opening of the *Bernhard Rust Hochschule* at Brunswick in the fall of 1937, and the reorganization of teacher education in Thuringia, teacher education in Germany in its outer organization was quite uniform. Thus for the time being, completion of secondary education was a prescribed requirement for admission to the professional education of elementary schoolteachers.

Many of the teacher-training colleges, particularly in Prussia, were located in small towns near rural areas. It was felt that familiarity with rural conditions and the more intimate contact with the people of the community, which this type of location afforded, would be of distinct advantage to the student, and independent development of the school would be furthered by freedom from overshadowing competition of other interests and institutions. Tuition at all of the colleges was free. The universities were to accept in full toward the doctorate, with pedagogics as a major subject, all semesters of study completed at a teacher-training college; with pedagogics as a minor, only 2 semesters.



*Photo by Peter Fischer*

**Women's Dormitory—Athletics School, Cologne**

In addition to the preparation of elementary schoolteachers, which was the real purpose of these colleges, certain other duties were assigned. All prospective secondary schoolteachers were required to complete 2 semesters of study before beginning work at a university or at a college of music or of art. Further, regulations issued January 29, 1936, made them responsible also for the pedagogical education of men as teachers of agriculture, and of women as teachers of agricultural home economics.

At first the colleges were separate for men and women, later they became coeducational. From 1937 on, after the number of men applicants decreased, more and more women were trained. With the outbreak of war in 1939, the training of men as teachers stopped almost entirely. In 1940 the 2-year course of the teacher-training college was reduced to 3 semesters, and in 1941 to a 1-year course for secondary school graduates.

With the establishment of the 1-year course for secondary school graduates the teacher-training college soon gave way to the National Socialist teacher-training institute (Lehrerbildungsanstalt oder LBA). The LBA was founded to meet the need for teachers no longer met satisfactorily during World War II by the colleges. It offered a 5-year course based on 8 years of elementary schooling. Pupils who had attained the certificate of middle maturity (Mittlere Reife), representing completion of a total of 10 years of elementary and secondary schooling, were admitted to the third year of the 5-year course. The first 4 years were devoted to general education, the fifth year to professional education. The schools usually were boarding schools located in smaller communities. The boys and girls were members of the uniform-wearing Hitler Youth Organizations (Hitler Jugend oder HJ und Bund Deutscher Mädel oder DM).

During the war, few men entered preparation for teaching. The number of women trained in the 1-year course at the teacher-training colleges did not meet the demand. Completion of an institute course would have taken place normally for the first time in 1945. Shortening of the period of training through special promotion did not bring enough teachers. Training of school assistants (Schulhelferausbildung) was introduced. After  $\frac{1}{4}$  year of theoretical study at a teacher-training college, followed by at least 1 year of actual teaching, the training ended with 9 months of additional theoretical study at a college. Completion of training was accepted as the first examination for elementary schoolteaching (die erste Lehrerprüfung).

## BRIDGING THE GAP

With the reopening of the schools after World War II, the teacher shortage forced all States to resort to some form of emergency training of teachers. With reference to the normal form of teacher training the States were inclined to reestablish one of the three basic forms of teacher training to which they were accustomed during the period 1918-33. Bavaria reintroduced the teacher-training seminaries, North Rhine-Westphalia reintroduced the teacher-training college in its original form. Hamburg returned to the university training of teachers which it began to develop in 1926.

In Bremen, prior to 1945, teachers usually received their training at institutions of higher education in Hamburg, Braunschweig, Dresden, and Jena. After the war, when these schools were too overcrowded to meet the needs of Bremen, the latter opened a Pedagogical Seminary (Pädagogisches Seminar) on December 3, 1945. To meet the immediate need for teachers a 1-year course was organized for each of the first 2 years. The duration of the regular course was 3 semesters.

On April 1, 1947, the Pedagogical Seminary became a teachers college, offering a 4-semester course. Three years later, on April 1, 1950, the course of the Teachers College of the Free Hansa City of Bremen (Pädagogische Hochschule der Freien Hansestadt Bremen), as it is now called, was extended to 6 semesters.

In 1948, when the immediate emergency to fill postwar vacancies had passed, the Ministry of Education (Kultministerium) in Wuerttemberg-Baden felt that it was time to plan for improvement in teacher education and for the in-service education of teachers who had received their preparation before the end of the War or during the emergency. On the recommendation of the Ministry and with the advisory assistance and aid of the United States Military Government for the State, an International Workshop on Teacher Education for Wuerttemberg-Baden was held from May 24 to August 12, 1949, at Esslingen.

The Workshop included as permanent participants 21 German teachers from elementary, secondary, vocational and technical schools, and teacher-education institutions and 16 experts from the United States, Switzerland, France, and the Netherlands. On occasion there also were special experts. In addition to the regular members of the Workshop the opening session held in the auditorium of the Teacher-Training Institute at Esslingen was attended by representatives of the Ministry, the United States Military



*DPA—Courtesy, Inter Naciones*

**Cusanus Gymnasium Art Instruction, Bad Godesberg**

Government, and the teacher-education institutions throughout Wuerttemberg-Baden. Present also were students and faculty members of the Teacher-Training Institute as well as citizens and officials of Esslingen.

In the main address of the opening session Minister Bäuerle indicated the need for certain basic reforms in all education in Germany, instructed the members of the Workshop to keep these needs in mind, and to bring forth the best possible recommendations for the improvement of teacher education in Wuerttemberg-Baden. In conclusion he said:

You, participants of the workshop for teacher education, have a beautiful and important task: To show the way which leads toward the new school and the new teacher. Don't lose your ultimate goals: free man in a free people; a free people in a free humanity. We need German men, fit for life, willing to accept responsibility, and able to judge. But what we need more: we need good men of stout conviction, who not only know how to live but, if necessary, to die for it. And we need teachers whose life is an example of what they teach.

Let your work bring you nearer to that aim, true to our Constitution where, in article 36, you find the words: "Youth should be educated in the respect of God, in a spirit of brotherliness for all men, and in the love of its people and country, to political responsibility, to professional and social understanding and to a free democratic attitude."

This is our aim in the new school with the new teacher.<sup>3</sup>

Below are 5 recommendations concerning the reform of teacher education out of 21 recommendations as summarized by the Workshop:<sup>4</sup>

2. The Paedagogische Hochschule should be an institution for the common professional preparation of all teachers.
8. The Abitur [certificate of maturity] or its equivalent should be required for admission to the Paedagogische Hochschule.
9. All applicants for admission to the Paedagogische Hochschule should be required to pass a careful appraisal of their personal qualifications for the profession of teaching. Observation of the future teacher with a view to evaluating his professional qualities should continue throughout the program.
10. The common preparation of teachers for all types of schools should take place at the Paedagogische Hochschule. This preparation includes basic education, pedagogy, psychology, social science and philosophy.
14. Two alternative programs of preparation are proposed for future secondary and vocational schoolteachers:
  - (a) One program under which the study of specialized fields or subjects precedes the professional preparation at the Paedagogische Hochschule.
  - (b) Another program under which specialized study of specific subject matter fields follows the program at Paedagogische Hochschule.

A decision of June 23, 1950, of the Cultural Political Committee of the legislature of Wuerttemberg-Baden was a first step toward meeting the requirements of these recommendations. This decision made the certificate of maturity from a secondary school the prescribed requirement in Wuerttemberg-Baden for admission to preparation at the Pedagogical Institute for qualification as elementary schoolteacher.

Interest in the improvement of teacher education shown in Bremen and Wuerttemberg was general throughout the States of the German Federal Republic. The general culmination of this interest into action was shown by the fact that at the XIVth International Conference on Public Education, held in Geneva, Switzer-

<sup>3</sup> *Teacher Education for Wuerttemberg-Baden: The Esslingen Plan.* (Report of the International Workshop held at Esslingen/Neckar.) Stuttgart: Verlag von Ernst Klett, 1949, p. 28. See also p. 7-27. (*Lehrerbildung für Württemberg-Baden: Esslingen Plan.* Bericht der Internationalen Arbeitsgemeinschaft in Esslingen/Neckar 1949. Stuttgart: Verlag von Ernst Klett, 1949, p. 28. Sehe auch p. 7-27.)

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid*, p. 132-33.

land, in July 1951, by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education, Dr. Eugen Löffler, delegate of the German Federal Republic, was able to report with reference to the education of elementary schoolteachers that:

In all states, persons wishing to become primary teachers are required to have passed matriculation or to possess equivalent qualification. Theoretical training varies according to state. Academic studies last 2 or 3 years, are made in special establishments (education institutes and academies, etc.) or at the university, and lead up to the first teacher examination. The second examination, marking the end of training, takes place after 2 years of practical activities.<sup>5</sup>

With this announcement the social gap between elementary and secondary schoolteachers in the German Federal Republic may be regarded as bridged; particularly with reference to the requirement that preparation for elementary schoolteaching be pursued at an institution of higher education, and that the prescribed requirement for admission to this training be a certificate of maturity from a secondary school.

The theme of the opening session of the International Conference on "The Education and Training of Teachers for Primary Schools" held at the UNESCO Institute for Education in Hamburg, January 4-9, 1954, was the question "University or Training College?" with 3 speakers, presenting the case for the university, the training college, and a dual system respectively.

In his presentation of the case for the university, Professor Georg Geissler of the Pedagogical Institute of the University of Hamburg, said with regard to the work in teacher training at his university:

... we offer training at the University for teachers at primary schools, grammar schools, commercial and professional schools and at special schools (i.e. for the blind, the backward, the deaf and dumb, and for children who have speech difficulties). This is laid down in the education statute of the Hansestadt Hamburg which lays down that teachers in all types of schools should be trained at the University. Students who wish to become teachers must, like all other students at the University, secure the Abitur certificate of a grammar school, and they are fully matriculated like law or medical students, etc., either in the philosophical faculty or the faculty of mathematics and science or in the faculty of law and political science.

Regardless of the type of school for which they later wish to acquire the capacity to teach, they all take the following education lectures together: the history of education or systematic education; comparative education; professional education; educational anthropology; the theory

<sup>5</sup> United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [and] International Bureau of Education. *International Yearbook of Education: 1951*. Publication No. 137. Paris/Geneva: UNESCO/IBE, 1951, p. 127.



*Photo from Südd. Verlag—Courtesy, Inter Nationes*  
**Girls' Class, Munich**

of schooling; educational psychology; and educational sociology. At the same time, in accordance with the principle of academic freedom, plenty of time is left for free individual interests. Independently of the particular career which they have in view, they take part in seminars and pro-seminars.<sup>6</sup> The organizing framework for these is the normal university Education Seminar. But there exists at the same time, since teachers also require practical training adjusted to the needs of the different types of schools, the Institute of Education of the University, which has the particular function of introducing the students to practical teaching and of making them familiar with the particular questions of didactic and method raised by the individual subjects taught in their type of school. At this point the various groups of teachers segregate, and as a result the Institute of Education is divided into 4 departments corresponding to the 4 main types of schools which we have in Germany. . . .<sup>7</sup>

To meet the needs of teachers at the various types of schools the Pedagogical Institute of the University of Hamburg has the following 4 divisions: Elementary school and practical and technical secondary school, part-time vocational school and commercial school (Berufsschule und Handelsschule), general education secondary school, and special schools (Sonderschulen).

<sup>6</sup> Courses of lectures with exercises and papers read by the students themselves. They are divided into 8 grades of which proseminar is the first.

<sup>7</sup> UNESCO Institute for Education, *The Education and Training of Teachers for Primary Schools*. Hamburg: The Institute, 1954, p. 19.



Students who wish to prepare for the State examination for teachers register in the Faculty of Philosophy to study the science of education (Erziehungswissenschaft). Future commercial schoolteachers register in the Faculty of Economics and Social Science. Future secondary schoolteachers register in the Faculty of Philosophy or in that of Mathematics-Natural Science, depending on the subjects they wish to teach.

**Elementary Schoolteachers (Volksschullehrer).**—The education of elementary schoolteachers, which in Hamburg includes teachers of the elementary school and of the practical and technical secondary school, requires at least 6 semesters of study at the University of Hamburg. In addition to the courses in education and in the related fields of psychology mentioned by Professor Geissler, the student attends courses in his special subject selected from among German language and literature, history, religion, English, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geography, music, drawing, handcraft, needlework, homemaking, gymnastics. Side by side with this theoretical work, the student pursues his practical professional study (Schulpraktische Ausbildung) at the Pedagogical Institute of the University. Theory and practice are combined so as to give him training in didactics and methods.

The practical training includes 3 school practical exercises and 2 periods of so-called school assistant service. In the school practical exercises students in groups of 8 in summer and 10 in winter observe and participate in teaching at a school, under the direction of a faculty member. The school practical exercises, with the duration of each, are:

- I. Introductory practice (Einführungspraktikum)—2 days a week for 1 semester
- II. German practice (Deutsches Praktikum)—1 day a week for 1 semester
- III. Practice in the special subject (Wahlpraktikum)

The first school assistant service may be either social assistant service (Sozialhelferdienst) or rural school assistant service (Landschulhelferdienst). It is from 4 to 6 weeks in duration, depending upon the place of work.

The social assistant service aims to introduce the future teacher to social pedagogical work at youth offices, schools, and other places. It generally is done during vacation in a children's day or convalescent home, in the vocational guidance section of an employment or other youth office, or at an orphanage. During the period of his assistant service, the student is assigned to a member of the Pedagogical Institute, who serves as his adviser. On com-

pletion of the service, a report on the student's work is sent to the Pedagogical Institute. The student also writes a detailed report on his assistant service in which he aims to show that he has acquired an understanding of the problems of the social pedagogical work of the place where he served.

The city school assistant service (Stadtschulhelferdienst) can be entered the earliest after the 4th or 5th semester of study. The student must have participated with success in the required didactic lecture courses and be familiar with the basic literature on methods of elementary schoolwork. He must have performed the prescribed practice teaching so well that he can be expected to be capable of conducting a class.

The city school assistant service is at least 6 weeks in duration. It can be carried out only in the City of Hamburg and there only in the classes of the elementary and of the practical secondary school. It is entrusted to teachers willing to undertake the work voluntarily because of interest in the future generation of teachers.

In preparation for the service, the student selects from a list the teacher under whom he wishes to do his assistant service. This teacher becomes his assistant's teacher (Helferlehrer). A member of the staff of the Pedagogical Institute serves as the student's adviser.

Before the beginning of the service the student consults the School Assistant Office as to his themes of instruction and presents his adviser with a plan showing the field and method of work planned. This preliminary conference with the adviser is held early enough so that changes can be made. If integrated instruction (Gesamtunterricht) is given in the elementary or in the practical secondary school the student takes, if possible, a single theme for the entire period of assistant service. In case of school instruction by individual subjects (gefächerten Unterricht) he has German, arithmetic, and social studies in the classes of the elementary school. In the upper classes he has German and arithmetic as required subjects and a third subject according to choice. His working load is 18 to a maximum of 20 hours a week. The student is required to prepare each unit of instruction in detail and in writing. After the student has become familiar with the class and with the teacher's method of work, he takes over instruction from time to time and during the last 4 weeks he teaches independently to the extent agreed upon. The student cannot be used to take the place of an absent teacher. The assistant's teacher is asked to be in complete charge of the daily work of the student. To the extent that it is possible, the student participates in the teachers' meetings when invited to do so.

On completion of the service the assistant's teacher sends in a report to the Pedagogical Institute. If the student's achievements are not sufficient, the Institute decides on whether the student may repeat the service or be advised to drop his studies.

Within 6 weeks after completion of the assistant service, the student presents a written report to his adviser giving a brief account of the essential experiences in his practice teaching, or a basic problem in practice teaching.

After completion of at least 6 semesters of University study and successful achievement in theoretical and practical professional studies, the student may apply for admission to the State examination for qualification as teacher in elementary schools, and in practical and technical secondary schools. Success in the examination qualifies for temporary appointment as teacher in elementary school service (*Lehrer in Volksschuldienst*). Permanent appointment (*endgültige Anstellung*) requires success in the second teachers' examination (*zweite Lehrerprüfung*). This is taken at the earliest after 3 years of service as a teacher.

**Teachers for Special Schools.**—For admission to study at the University of Hamburg, in preparation for the examination for qualification as teacher of handicapped children, the applicant must (1) be qualified for permanent appointment as an elementary



*Photo from Staatl. Landesbildstelle*

**Wedderstrasse Special School, Hamburg**

schoolteacher, (2) have proved, through 1 year of service as assistant at a school for the handicapped, that he has the inclination and adaptability for teaching the particular type of handicapped children, and (3) is not more than 30 years of age if he wishes to teach children who are deaf, hard-of-hearing, or have a speech difficulty; not over 35 years of age if he wishes to prepare for teaching the blind and partially seeing; or the mentally retarded.

In each instance the Director of the Hamburg School Administration (Senator der Schulbehörde) decides on admission. In each instance also, the adviser for theoretical education (Leiter der wissenschaftlichen Ausbildung) is the Director of the Pedagogical Institute of the University. The adviser for the practical training (Leiter der praktischen Ausbildung) is the specialist of the Hamburg School Administration concerned with schools for the deaf and for children with defective speech, for schools for the blind and partially seeing, or for schools for the mentally retarded.

Attainment of qualification as teacher of handicapped children requires at least 2 years of theoretical study at the University of Hamburg. The subjects of instruction for teachers of children who are deaf, hard-of-hearing, and who have speech difficulty are:

1. Psychology; survey of the structure, function, and disturbances of the central nervous system.
2. Structure, function, and disturbances of the organs of speech and sense.
3. Normal and pathological phonetics (physiology, pathology, and hygiene of the voice and speech).
4. Psychology of the hard-of-hearing and speech-handicapped child.
5. Education and care of the hard-of-hearing and speech-handicapped. History, organization, and writing on the education of the hard-of-hearing and the speech-handicapped.

The practical work is pursued under the direction of teachers at all 3 types of schools including 1 year at a school for the deaf, and half a year each at a school for the hard-of-hearing and at a school for children with defective speech. The candidate also is required to complete 18 hours a week (Wochenstunden) of independent teaching. Further, he must observe the teaching of experienced teachers during 4 hours a week. These instruction visits are to be so arranged that the applicant will learn to know the instruction and the individual work at the various levels and in the various forms. Observation of teaching and practice teaching are followed by conferences under the direction of the class teacher.

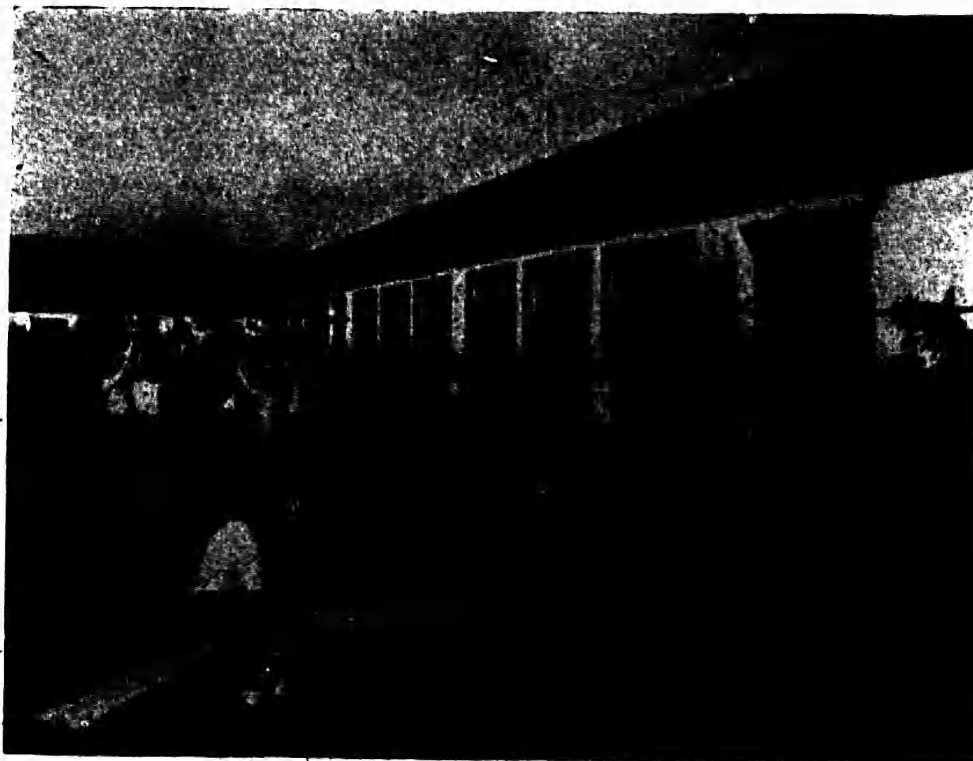
The 2-year course closes with a written, an oral, and a practical examination. The committee appointed by the School Administration of Hamburg includes:

1. The Supervisor for Special Schools of the School Administration of Hamburg as chairman.
2. Teachers of the University of Hamburg who have participated in the applicant's instruction.
3. Teachers who have participated in the applicant's training at the schools for the hard-of-hearing and speech-handicapped children in Hamburg.
4. The school physician for schools for the hard-of-hearing and speech-handicapped.

Success in the examination is marked by a certificate of qualification for regular appointment as teacher at schools for the deaf, hard-of-hearing, and speech-defective.

The theoretical and practical education of teachers for the blind and for the mentally retarded follow a similar pattern. The certificate attained is a certificate of qualification for regular appointment as teacher at schools for the blind and partially seeing or for the mentally retarded.

**Secondary Schoolteachers.**—Study in preparation for qualification as secondary schoolteacher of German, classical languages, modern languages, history, and geography is offered in the Faculty of Philosophy; and in mathematics, chemistry, biology, and in geography in relation to geology and mineralogy, in the Faculty



*Photo from Staatl. Landesbildstelle*

**Inner Courtyard—Steinadlerweg School, Hamburg-Billstedt**

of Mathematics-Natural Science at all universities. In natural sciences it is offered also at the *Justus Liebig Hochschule* of Gießen and at all Institutes of Technology.

Depending upon the requirements of the university concerned, the student selects 2 or 3 subjects from 1 of the 2 faculties. One of the subjects, regardless of faculty, may be religion or physical education. In addition, all candidates for teaching are required to study philosophy and education. Students may choose further subjects, but these additional subjects do not form a part of the required curriculum.

Admission to study requires presentation of a certificate of maturity from a secondary school or evidence of equivalent schooling. The study is 8 semesters in duration and closes with a State examination taken before an examination committee appointed by the Ministry of Education of the State concerned.

For the study of education at the University of Hamburg, it is recommended that future secondary schoolteachers select lecture courses and exercises from the following fields:

1. Lectures:

- (a) General pedagogics, history of pedagogics, theory of the school, and general theory of instruction.
- (b) General characterology and psychology of development.

2. Exercises:

- (a) In the Science of Education Seminar on a historical or systematic theme.
- (b) At the Pedagogical Institute on basic pedagogical questions in the subjects he is planning to teach.

In addition during semester 2, 3 or 4, pedagogical observation includes a period of 4 weeks of practical work at an elementary school 1 day a week from 8 to 10 a. m. and 1 day a week from 8 a. m. to noon, while practical work at a secondary school occurs daily from the end of the fall vacation after the fourth semester to the beginning of the winter semester.

The professional training of the secondary schoolteacher, following the first State examination which marks completion of the 4-year period of general education, is described by Dr. Eugen Löffler as follows:

On obtaining the diploma awarded by the public education boards . . . candidates are attached to a secondary school in the capacity of *Studienreferendar* [apprentice teacher] for their practical training and instruction in methods. The period so spent is considered to be one of preparatory service . . . and in addition to the work it involves, candidates are expected to take the courses and practical activities of seminars organized by the education authorities. The professional training given during the period of preparatory service covers all fields of school activity: the

theory and practice of discipline, secondary education regulations, equipment, social services, school organization and legislation, the literature of education. Such training also includes the principles of education, the method of each subject, and, for students on the science side, an introduction to teaching in the school laboratories. In the majority of the *Länder* [states] the period of preparatory service lasts two years, except in the south of the country, where it is a matter of one year or one year and a half, but where an extension to two years is already contemplated.

The study of psychology is also included in the secondary teachers' professional training. The particular aspects which are given emphasis . . . and the way in which they are presented, depend on the instructors concerned and in part on circumstances. This part of the professional training programme is neither fixed nor compulsory, and follows the lines on which the subject is approached in the university concerned.

The practical work done during the period of preparatory service . . . consists of attending lessons given by the teachers of their school, giving lessons themselves under the supervision of the teachers, attending lessons given by their fellow-students, and participating in the critical discussion of the practice lessons.\*

Completion of the 2-year period of preparatory service is marked by the professional or second State examination. It generally includes a written paper; an oral examination in pedagogy, methods, psychology, and school organization and legislation; and trial lessons in secondary school classes at different levels. A successful candidate receives a certificate of qualification as secondary schoolteacher which qualifies for temporary appointment as a teacher. When after several years of successful service in a secondary school the teacher attains permanent appointment, he becomes a *Studienrat*.

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\* United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [and] International Bureau of Education. *Secondary Teacher Training*. Publication No. 155. Paris/Geneva: UNESCO/IBE, 1954, p. 87.

## Chapter VI

### Higher Education

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**T**HE GERMAN Federal Republic has over 100 institutions of higher learning including, in addition to a few miscellaneous schools:

- 2 Academies: 1 Medical and 1 Mining
- 81 Specialized institutions (Hochschulen): Administration (State), 1; Agriculture, 1; Art, 10; Economics and politics, 1; Music, 10; Pedagogics, 42; Theology — Catholic, 10; Theology — Protestant (Evangelical), 4; and Veterinary medicine, 2
- 8 Institutes of technology
- 7 Other scientific institutions
- 1 School of gymnastics
- 17 Universities

Each of these institutions is playing a role in the broad field of education. The main focus of this chapter, however, is not on the larger number of technical and specialized institutions of higher learning but on the 17 classical universities of the Federal Republic of Germany.

These 17 institutions of higher learning provide the main link with the educational traditions of old. Like the specialized institutions for teacher training discussed in chapter V, they help mold the future. What happens to academic freedom and to the balance between knowledge for its own sake and knowledge for the benefit of each individual and of society influences the form and substance of government, community organization and development, and the vitality of the nation and its relationship to the world community.



### ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Prior to 1933 the German university usually was a practically autonomous institution founded and supported by the State. In Prussia it was under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Education which prescribed its statutes, defined its functions, and granted its privileges. In Prussia—not in the other States—the State was represented at each university by a curator (Kurator) whose function it was to act as intermediary between the university and the Ministry.

The chancellor (Rektor) was at the head of the self-administration of the university. Elected annually from among the full professors, he was assisted by the Senate (of which he was chairman). The Senate, in turn, was composed of the vice-chancellor, the deans of the various faculties, and members elected from the corps of professors. At the head of each faculty was the dean (Dekan), elected annually from among the professors of the faculty. Each faculty was responsible for the instruction in its field. It held examinations for and conferred academic degrees. On qualified scholars it also conferred the *venia legendi* which gave them the privilege of teaching in the faculty as a private teacher (Privatdozent).<sup>1</sup>

Academic freedom allowed the professor independence in his duties, except for certain limitations imposed by requirements of the State examinations. With the exception of keeping in mind the examinations for his chosen profession, the student was free to select a university, to move from one university to another, and to choose his subjects of study.

### LOSS OF ACADEMIC FREEDOM

With the establishment of National Socialism, universities in Germany became national institutions under the direction of the National Ministry of Education. The States furnished the funds for the universities within their respective borders, but the faculty members were officers of the Nation. Through a decree of April 1, 1935, for unification of administration in institutions of higher education, a university consisted of an instructional staff (Dozenten-schaft), including all actively engaged instructors and as-

<sup>1</sup> A *Privatdozent* teaches at the university at the discretion of a full professor who acts as his sponsor.

sistants, and a student body (Studentenschaft), made up of fully matriculated students of German descent and mother-tongue regardless of citizenship.<sup>2</sup>

The chief administrative officer of the university—the chancellor—became its *Führer*. He was appointed by the National Minister of Education and was responsible to him alone. Important also were the leader (Leiter) of the instructional staff and the leader of the student body. Both were appointed by the National Minister of Education, the former on the nomination of the chancellor and the District Leader of the National Socialist University Teachers Association; the latter on the nomination of the chancellor and the District Leader of the National Socialist Student Association. Both were responsible to the chancellor.

The vice-chancellor and the deans of the faculties also were appointed by the National Minister of Education on the recommendation of the chancellor. A Senate composed of the leader of the instructional staff, the leader of the student body, the vice-chancellor, the deans, and 2 other members appointed by the chancellor, of whom one was from the National Socialist University Teachers Association, assisted the chancellor in an advisory capacity.

Each faculty was responsible for the instruction in its field. The dean was the leader of his faculty and could appoint his own alternate. His advisory body was a faculty committee which included the regular and extraordinary professors, and two instructors with temporary appointments, named by the leader of the instructional staff.

Questions concerning learning or studies were referred in the first instance to the dean; concerning the teaching staff, to the leader of the teaching staff; concerning the student body, to the leader of the student body. If further consideration was necessary it was referred to the chancellor.

The continuing National Government control of institutions of higher education was assured by procedures established for adding new members to the teaching staff. Showing that one was qualified to teach in an institution of higher education and obtaining the license to do so were practically identical prior to the National Habilitation Regulation of December 13, 1934. Under the new regulation, habilitation, or proving one's fitness, became a prerequisite for the license to teach.

<sup>2</sup> *Deutsche Wissenschaft, Erziehung und Volksbildung* [Official newspaper of the National and Prussian Ministries of Science, Education and Public Instruction and of Education Administrations of other States] Heft 8: 142; 20. April 1935.

The degree of doctor or of licentiate was required of the applicant, with habilitation being attained at the earliest in the third year after the close of university study. After approval of the candidate's habilitation thesis by the faculty concerned, the candidate was asked to present himself for a scientific discussion. If the chancellor and the faculty were favorably impressed, the degree of habilitation was conferred on receipt of authority from the National education office. Depending on the field for which it was issued, the degree, for example, might be habilitated doctor of philosophy (Dr. phil. habil.), habilitated doctor of medicine (Dr. med. habil.), or habilitated licentiate in theology (Lic. theol. habil.).

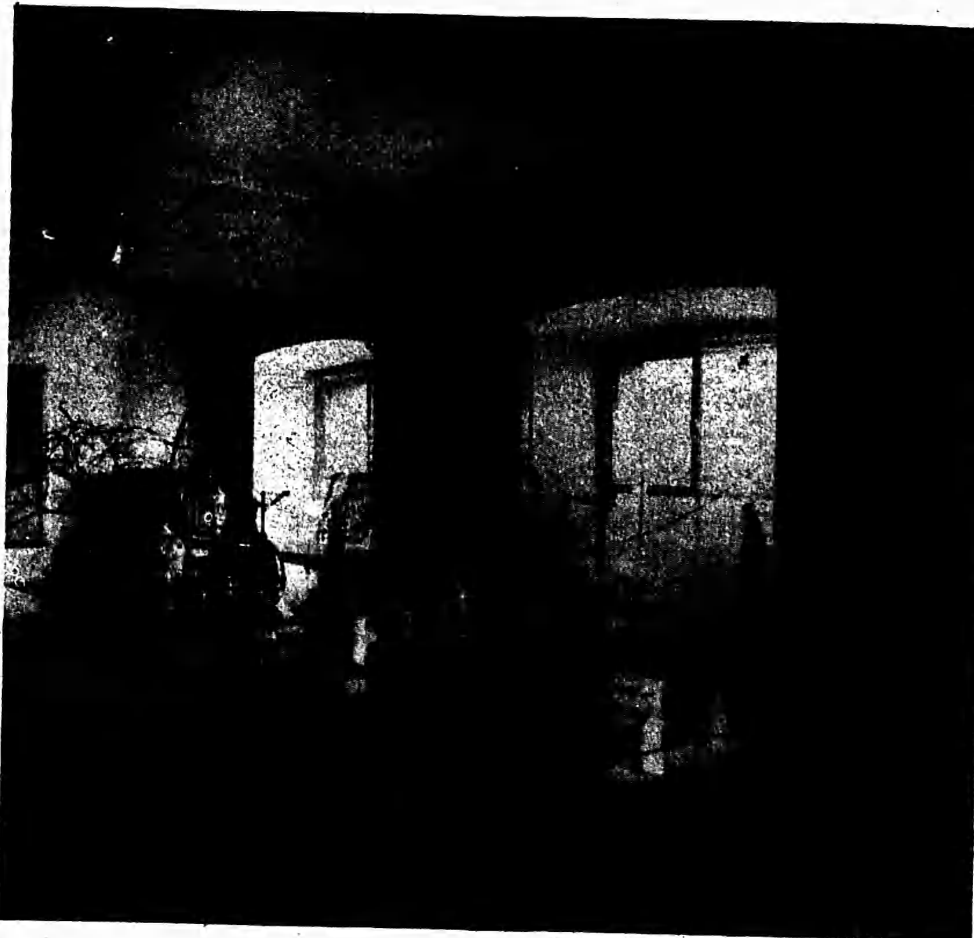
The applicant then applied to the National Ministry for license to teach. He was assigned, through the State education office, to an appropriate faculty for a public examination in teaching (öffentliche Lehrprobe) consisting, in a period of a week, of 3 1-hour lectures in the candidate's field of study. If, through previous lectures, the faculty already had formed an opinion, the requirement could be limited to 1 hour. After success in the public examination, the candidate applied to the State education office for admission to the 4-week training course for university teachers. This course was intended to familiarize him with the main questions of science and research in relation to National Socialism, and to develop his community spirit beyond that of faculty boundaries.

On the basis of the assembled reports, the State education office, with the approval of the National Minister of Education, granted or refused the license. Once attained, the license was good at all institutions of higher education in Germany, with transfer from one institution to another requiring the consent of the National Minister of Education. The Minister could arrange a transfer and also could revoke or limit a license.<sup>3</sup>

### POSTWAR REORGANIZATION OF UNIVERSITIES

In the reopening of schools in 1945, elementary and secondary schools had first priority. Initially it was estimated that it would take at least 2 years to prepare for the liquidation of Nazi influences in higher education, and to care properly for other matters connected with the reconstruction, rehabilitation, and reform of German university life. Actually the implementation of plans was speeded up considerably to meet the need for continuity in educa-

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., Heft 1: 12-14; 5 Januar 1935.



*Photo by Foitsick*

**Art Institute Exhibit, Munich**

tion, particularly in medicine, theology, and the preparation of secondary school teachers. Military Government looked upon the universities, with their pre-1933 faculty tradition of self-government extending back to the Middle Ages, as potential "higher schools of democracy." It hoped that each university would be able to put forward a citizens' committee capable of taking charge and doing the job, and not merely working under Military Government directives.<sup>4</sup>

The citizens' committees envisioned by Military Government were generally known as "planning committees" and consisted of ranking faculty members who had opposed National Socialism. (Many of them had been removed from their positions during the Nazi regime.)

<sup>4</sup> E. Y. Hartshorne, Reopening German Universities. *Military Government Weekly Information Bulletin* 43: 5-9; May 27, 1946.

In rebuilding teaching staffs the "procedure on denazification was to allow the committees to start from scratch and propose new teaching staffs. Candidates for teaching posts were examined by the committees. The new faculties then were proposed to Military Government for approval. This procedure gave the universities the initiative by allowing them to omit Nazi names from their lists of proposals. Except for a minimum custodial staff, no staff member could begin work before he received specific approval from Military Government.

"The principal problem on students was selection of the most gifted and the most deserving. There were on an average 4 applicants for every vacancy . . . the universities thus found themselves in an emergency situation where selective tests and interviews—a novelty in the German practice—became absolutely essential."<sup>5</sup> Again the way was left open for faculty initiative, with Military Government exercising a supervisory function.

A problem for scholars was to adjust subject studies to contemporary needs. For example, they needed to restore the balance between study of the humanities for the sake of the humanities and for the sake of humanity.

Addresses at the reopening of the University of Frankfurt on February 1, and at the University of Wuerzburg on February 5, 1946, reflected the opportunity to regain academic freedom. They stressed the responsibility for recognizing changes during the 12-year period between winter semester 1932-33 and 1945. The speakers pointed out the dangers of too narrow specialization. To meet the challenge of change, they urged that students broaden their studies by including subjects in fields outside of their specialization.<sup>6</sup>

Such were the hopes for education at the threshold of a new era in 1946. By the spring of 1949 countless reports had been prepared by Occupation authorities and German educators and administrators on education in general and on education at the various levels, including higher education. Untold numbers of interviews had been held relating to German education. British, French, and United States officials of Military Government and Germans concerned directly or indirectly with German higher education had

<sup>5</sup> Ibid., p. 8-9.

<sup>6</sup> Kurt Blaum, Karl Geiler, und Georg Hohmann. *Die Bildungs- und Erziehungsaufgabe der heutigen Universität*. Frankfurter Universitätsreden, Heft 1. Frankfurt-Main: Verlag G. Schulte-Bulmke, 1946, 24 p. und Georg Wunderle, *Das Ideal der neuen deutschen Universität*. Würzburger Universitätsreden Heft 1. Würzburg: Verlag Ferdinand Schöningh, 1946, 14 p.

spoken for the record. The latter included university administrators, professors, teachers, assistants, library directors, university students and educationally-minded public officials and business people. Picked at random and listed below are a few comments from such sources which reflect some of the realities with which German universities were faced:

1. German intellectuals realize that their universities have "fallen behind the times."
2. Two unsuccessful wars in 30 years and the nullification of creative thought under National Socialism crippled German intellectual life.
3. The role of university education in society as found in England and the United States has no counterpart in German universities.
4. After 12 years of National Socialism and the resulting debacle we do not trust our opinions.
5. We were too exhausted at the end of the war and too concerned with survival during the years of cold and hunger to concern ourselves with higher education.
6. Only since the European Recovery Program began to take effect have we begun to feel solid earth under our feet.
7. Since we do not know who will win—the East or the West—we say nothing.
8. We grew so accustomed to silence and distrust under National Socialism that we have not learned to discuss anything in an atmosphere of intellectual freedom.
9. We are so overloaded with teaching and administrative duties and with trying to earn a living that we have no time or energy left to think about the future.
10. At least since 1933 we have been so isolated from the rest of the world that we do not know the achievements elsewhere and have no criteria based on the experience of others for considering what we might accomplish.
11. The Nazis talked so much about the next 1,000 years that we prefer to focus on present tasks; we and our students tend to look upon efforts to plan for the future or to express our ideals and idealistic hopes as pretentious and demagogic.
12. Great Britain and the United States have stable societies in which universities can adjust and flourish; we have a society held together by bureaucracy and a division of functions which has little relationship to tradition. Universities cannot adjust to such a temporary social order.
13. Occasionally one meets an old professor and often a young teacher who recognize the necessity for reform.
14. Many students—especially from middle-class families are thoroughly disgusted with university education.



Photo by Schubert

### Dining Hall—Free University of Berlin

In spite of the hardships—physical, intellectual, and spiritual—all 14 traditional universities and 3 new ones in the Federal Republic (including the Saar, which has been reunited with the Republic) and Berlin were reopened within approximately 3 years after the end of the War.

### CLASSICAL UNIVERSITIES

One university born in the post-World War II era is the Free University of Berlin. Founded in 1948 for students in the Western Sectors of that city, it stands as a democratic protest against the limitations on academic freedom at the communist-dominated Humbolt University in the Eastern Sector of Berlin. A large proportion of the faculty and student body of Humbolt University deserted the Soviet Zone and helped to build the Free University. Grants from the Ford Foundation and from U. S. Military Government provided the financial basis for the university.

Another, which might be classed as a new institution since World War II, is the University of Mainz. Originally founded in 1476, it reached its height in the period of Enlightenment, was closed for more than a century, and had its rebirth as the Johannes Gutenberg University during zonal occupation by the French.

The third new university to be opened in Western Germany was the University of the Saar at Saarbruecken, founded and supported

jointly by the Saarlanders and the French Occupation Forces. The beginnings of a medical faculty were established at the hospital in Homburg in 1946. Faculties of science, arts, and law were developed in 1948 when all the faculties were combined into a university—the first such institution in the history of the Saar. From its beginning the university strove to emphasize international understanding and a European rather than a national point of view. As a bilingual institution with Saar and French support, it is making a contribution toward German-French understanding and is reaching out into other countries to promote the "European" idea.

The other 14 classical universities in the Federal Republic of Germany were founded prior to the emergence of Adolf Hitler and the brand of revolutionary ideology which denied the objective ground of truth and resulted in nihilism. Several had periods when their doors were closed but all were in operation when Hitler assumed power, were closed in 1945, and reopened after World War II. All 17 universities are listed below in the alphabetical order of the cities in which they are located.

<i>City</i>	<i>University</i>
1. Berlin (West) --	Free University of (Freie Universität Berlin)
2. Bonn -----	Rhenisch Frederick William University of (Rheinische Friedrich Wilhelms Universität Bonn)
3. Cologne -----	University of (Universität zu Köln)
4. Erlangen -----	Frederich Alexander University of (Friedrich Alexander Universität Erlangen)
5. Frankfort on the Main -----	Johann Wolfgang Goethe University of (Johann Wolfgang Goethe Universität Frankfurt am Main)
6. Freiburg in Breisgau -----	Albert Ludwig University of (Albert Ludwigs Universität Freiburg im Breisgau)
7. Goettingen -----	George August University of (Georg August Universität Göttingen)
8. Hamburg -----	University of (Universität Hamburg)
9. Heidelberg -----	Rupert Carl University of (Ruprecht Karl Universität Heidelberg)
10. Kiel -----	Christian Albert University of (Christian Albrechts Universität Kiel)
11. Mainz -----	John Gutenberg University of (Johannes Gutenberg Universität Mainz)
12. Marburg -----	Philipps University of (Philipps Universität Marburg)
13. Munich -----	Ludwig Maximilian University of (Ludwig Maximilians Universität München)
14. Muenster -----	Westphalian William University of (Westfälische Wilhelms Universität Münster)





*BPA—Courtesy, Inter Nationes*

**Organic Chemistry—Frederick William University of Bonn**

15. Saarbrücken -- University of the Saar (Universität des Saarlandes)
16. Tuebingen ----- Eberhard Karl University of (Eberhard Karls Universität Tübingen)
17. Wuerzburg ----- Bavarian Julius Maximilian University of (Bayerische Julius Maximilians Universität Würzburg)

## FACULTIES

Instruction is divided basically into the 4 faculties of law, medicine, philosophy, and theology, with variations at the different universities. At some institutions the faculties of philosophy and law are more comprehensive than at others. At most institutions general science and in 9, mathematics, are outside the faculty of philosophy; in some, economics, political science, and social science are separate from law. In addition, 3 institutions have agriculture; 2 have veterinary medicine; and 1 a faculty of forestry. Below are listed the 17 types of faculties in alphabetical order with universities being listed by city:

<i>University faculty</i>	<i>Location by city<sup>1</sup></i>
1. Agriculture (Landwirtschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Bonn, Goettingen, Kiel
2. Catholic theology (Katholisch-Theologische Fakultät) -----	Bonn, Freiburg, Mainz, Munich, Muenster, Tuebingen, Wuerzburg
3. Economics (Staatswirtschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Munich
4. Economics and social science (Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Berlin, Cologne, Frankfurt, Hamburg
5. Evangelical theology (Evangelisch-Theologische Fakultät) -----	Bonn, Erlangen, Goettingen, Hamburg, Heidelberg, Kiel, Mainz, Marburg, Muenster, Tuebingen
6. Forestry (Forstliche Fakultät) -----	Goettingen
7. Law (Juristische Fakultät) -----	Berlin, Erlangen, Heidelberg, Munich
8. Law and economics (Rechts- und Wirtschaftswissenschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Mainz, Saarbruecken, Tuebingen
9. Law and political science (Rechts- und Staatswissenschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Bonn, Freiburg, Goettingen, Kiel, Marburg, Muenster, Wuerzburg
10. Legal science (Rechtswissenschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Cologne, Frankfurt, Hamburg.

<sup>1</sup>Berlin refers to West Berlin only.

<i>University faculty</i>	<i>Location by city</i>
11. Mathematics and natural science (Mathematisch - Naturwissenschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Berlin, Bonn, Cologne, Goettingen, Hamburg, Muenster, Tuebingen
12. Medicine (Medizinische Fakultät) ---	All
13. Natural science (Naturwissenschaftliche Fakultät) -----	Erlangen, Frankfort, Mainz, Munich, Saarbruecken, Wuerzburg
14. Natural science and mathematics (Naturwissenschaftliche - Mathematische Fakultät) -----	Freiburg, Heidelberg
15. Philosophy (Philosophische Fakultät) -	All
16. Veterinary medicine (Tierärztliche Fakultät) -----	Munich
17. Veterinary medicine (Veterinärmedizinische Fakultät) -----	Berlin

### EXAMINATIONS

Prerequisite to the study of some subjects are special language examinations. For example, Latin is a requirement for promotion to the doctorate in the faculties of theology, philosophy, medicine, and law. In the faculties of mathematics-natural science and of agriculture, it is not.

Examinations in subjects studied in the various faculties are of 3 major types: State examinations, examinations for awarding the doctorate, and diploma examinations. In addition, there is the final examination in theology which is preparatory to examinations for church service conducted by church authorities.

The State examinations are conducted by the State to serve specific needs in health, education, and law. Responsibility rests in the hands of ministerial officers. For instance, in the faculties of philosophy and of mathematics-natural science, examinations in technical education—especially for the position of secondary schoolteacher are State examinations. Study of law at a university closes with a State examination as do medical, dental, and pharmaceutical study, and study in several other fields.

Promotion to the doctorate, resulting in the conferring of the doctor's degree, requires a dissertation prepared under the direction of a professor or under a teacher qualified to advise a doctoral candidate. The doctoral candidate's adviser is known as a "doctor father."

As a formal ending to university study for those not striving for scientific achievement in terms of promotion to the doctorate or for a State examination, diploma examinations have been established in individual subjects.

The diploma has been used for many years in specialized fields such as engineering and economics. It is being used increasingly in university faculties. In the faculty of philosophy, a diploma examination has been established in psychology. In the faculty of mathematics-natural science, diploma examinations are given in biology, chemistry, geology, physical chemistry, and physics. Contrary to the practice of universities in the United States, German universities give no semester or annual examinations!

### STUDIUM GENERALE

In the past decade German universities have eliminated the vestiges of National Socialism and have returned almost entirely to the system of higher education prevalent before 1933. Some university educators have expressed disappointment at the fact that so little has been changed. Many had hopes that the total destruction of Nazi Germany would provide opportunity for a new approach to the problems of higher education and for elimination of some of the weaknesses that had been present in the pre-Hitler university system. In spite of the fact that no drastic changes in German higher education took place, some serious efforts have been made to correct some obvious faults. One of these faults is the tendency toward overspecialization.

The German university is based on a 13-year elementary and secondary school program designed to complete a student's general education prior to his enrollment at the university. Consequently, the German university student registers in the faculty of his choice immediately upon his matriculation. In contrast to the student at a university in the United States, who is required to take a varying number of general education courses to fulfill the requirement of the first academic degree, the German student has no such obligation and can select all his courses within a single field, so long as he meets the requirements for the degree he is seeking. Furthermore, the emphasis on research, that is a marked characteristic of German higher education, tends to draw the student into a narrow field much earlier than his counterpart in the United States, whose narrow specialization begins after he enrolls in the graduate school. That this tendency toward narrow specialization helped to develop a political and social aloofness or naivete among university



Photo by D. Foitrick

#### Art Institute Visitors, Munich

faculties and students has been recognized by many German educators. To overcome this weakness, a number of plans to extend general education into the university have been developed under the general title of *Studium Generale*.

One approach toward this goal, which requires no reorganization in university procedures, places directly on the professor the responsibility for integrating particular subjects with the broader aspects of university training. The professor presents his technical lectures to emphasize relationships among the various fields of knowledge. In some subjects, these relationships are quite obvious; in others, they may be much more obscure. This procedure, therefore, is relatively difficult to carry out, since lectures generally emphasize what is of particular importance to the development of the subject at hand. The demands of limited time and rigid examination requirements may crowd out the more general aspects of the interdisciplinary relationships which have specific general education value.

A second approach that has been tried by a number of universities is the university day (*dies Universitatis*). At the University of Tuebingen, for example, one day per week was set aside as the university day, on which special lectures by outstanding pro-

fessors were scheduled to provide a broad, general education background for the students. None of the regular lectures or seminars of the various faculties could be scheduled on this day so that all students would have opportunity to participate. This plan encountered immediate difficulties. In the first place, the shortage of university staff and the great increase in enrollments made it almost impossible to take one day out of the regular university work for general education purposes. Secondly, a large number of students, having lost much valuable time during the War, recognized the general value of the university day, but were unwilling to sacrifice time that otherwise might be devoted toward a degree. The strong desire to complete a degree with all possible haste crowded other considerations into the background. At the present time, when the age of university students again has approached normalcy, the university day might enjoy a greater measure of success than was the case in the immediate postwar period.

An attempt to develop a general education program was made by the Leibniz College of Tuebingen University. In this college, students whose secondary school proficiency did not reach accepted university admission standards were placed in special courses to eliminate these deficiencies. They lived together in a dormitory and developed closer relationships with their teachers than was the general rule in German higher education. A similar program was developed at the University of Heidelberg through the establishment of the *Collegium Academicum*, a resident dormitory that provided not only food and lodging at reasonable rates, but conducted an evening program of lectures and discussions of general education value.

The problem of achieving an adequate balance between general education and narrow specialization is by no means solved. The efforts described above, however, have focused the thinking of many university leaders on the need for improvement. A scholarly magazine entitled *Studium Generale* is now in its tenth year.<sup>8</sup> Progress toward a solution of the problem is being made.

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<sup>8</sup> Berlin, Göttingen, Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.

### STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

The prewar German university considered itself responsible for the intellectual development of the student. It did not, in general, attempt to provide guidance outside the classroom or concern itself with student housing, health, employment, and other services found on almost every campus in the United States. The student himself enjoyed a high degree of freedom. He could select whatever courses he wished. Attendance at lectures was not compulsory. There was scarcely a limit on the number of hours a student could select. Student books showing as high as 40 hours per week were not unusual. In general, a student could set his own pace and could present himself for an examination whenever he felt he was ready for it.

This basic academic freedom has been retained in the German university. Postwar conditions, however, have influenced the universities to extend their services to students beyond the purely intellectual requirements. Immediately after the war, when housing, food, and other necessities were extremely scarce, a number of universities operated low-cost mess halls for students and began to develop dormitory facilities. These preliminary steps have led to a general recognition of a wider sphere of responsibility toward the student than was the case in the past. At the request of German universities, a number of specialists in student guidance have gone to Germany from the United States in recent years to act as advisers to German institutions in this field. A number of German educators also visited the United States to study the services and procedures at institutions in the United States.

A basic change in the economic status of German students has contributed toward these developments. The students of today come from all walks of life with a considerable percentage representing low-income groups. Consequently, a high percentage earn part or all of their university expenses. Considerable initiative has been shown by the students through their own associations to develop employment opportunities, low-cost food and lodging services, and other resources to enable the student with limited means to complete his education. There is evidence that university administrators, faculty committees, and many individual faculty members have developed an interest in the student which is much broader than the traditional preoccupation with his purely intellectual development. Student personnel services appear to be gaining a

broad acceptance as a university responsibility, shared by the administration, the faculties, and the student organizations.

### AMERICAN STUDIES AT GERMAN UNIVERSITIES

A development in the postwar curriculum of German universities has been the wide introduction of American studies. This development has been caused by two factors primarily: The presence of United States Forces in Germany as an occupation army, and a recognition on the part of German educators of the role that the United States has assumed in world affairs. A large number of German university professors have visited the United States in recent years to examine Area Study programs and American Studies programs at institutions. The number of courses dealing with American subjects, as well as the enrollment of students in these courses, has grown by leaps and bounds. The majority of German universities today recognize American Studies as a major field of study for a doctor's degree. An American Studies association, encompassing all States of the Federal Republic has been organized. A scholarly journal is being published and library and research facilities are being expanded.

The United States Government, through the International Educational Exchange Service and the United States Information Agency, has provided assistance to this movement. Thousands of American books and periodicals have been made available to German universities. A large number of professors and graduate students have received grants to study in the United States; professors from the United States have gone to German universities as lecturers. Information centers in Germany augment and supplement the materials available to German institutions.

This development aims to be beneficial to both American and German higher education by broadening the outlook of students, helping to overcome narrow nationalism, and strengthening ties between Germany and the United States..



## Chapter VII

### Interest in Foreign Educational Research and Development

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**F**OLLOWING a decade of isolation and limited relations with other countries, Germany soon after World War II began the renewal of contacts with the outside world. In the field of education this renewal may be seen particularly through German interest in the activities of the following institutions:

INSTITUTE FOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AT FRANKFORT ON THE MAIN (DIE HOCHSCHULE FÜR INTERNATIONALE PÄDAGOGISCHE FORSCHUNG IN FRANKFURT AM MAIN).

Among institutions in the Federal Republic of Germany interested in educational research and in educational developments in other countries, the Institute for International Educational Research at Frankfort on the Main ranks high. It was founded on November 16, 1950, by a group of schoolmen in Hesse who in the spring of that year, had formed an Association for Empirical Educational Research and the Furtherance of Educational Studies (Gesellschaft für Pädagogische Tatsacheforschung und weiterführende pädagogische Studien) in Wiesbaden. The State of Hesse declared itself prepared to support the Institute as a permanent institution, the City of Frankfort placed at its disposal a large war-ruined school together with a liberal fund for remodeling, while the Office of the United States High Commissioner for Germany furthered the project with additional funds.

In March 1951, the Institute was established in temporary quarters. By July 1, 1952, the permanent quarters were sufficiently

ready for use. In addition to the necessary lecture rooms, library, work and administration rooms, there were 26 rooms for students and a few apartments for professors. The former gymnastics hall was changed to an auditorium with a seating capacity of 225.

According to its Statute of October 25, 1951, the Institute is an independent registered foundation under public law. It is under the supervision of the Minister of Education of Hesse. Freedom of research and instruction are secured insofar as they are not contrary to the *Basic Law of the Federal Republic of Germany*. Section IV of the Statute places international educational research in the foreground as the aim of the Institute. Specifically the Institute is charged with the following tasks:

1. To conduct educational research and to disseminate the results for the improvement of culture and education.
2. To promote further education of specialists in educational research and to prepare persons for special educational tasks such as school administration and supervision.
3. To advise and support teachers and educational organizations in the carrying out of research projects and in the evaluation of such research, and to cooperate with other German, foreign, and international offices in comparative education studies.
4. To further the theoretical and practical introduction of teachers of all types of schools in the methods of educational research.

The qualifications for staff membership at the Institute, either in research or teaching, are the same as at a State institution of higher education. The research and teaching bodies include regular professors, extraordinary professors, lecturers and assistants, German and foreign guest professors and lecturers, and other scientific coworkers. The Senate is composed of the regular and extraordinary professors and of 2 representatives each from among the lecturers and the assistants.

The Director of the Institute is elected by the Senate and appointed for an indefinite period by the Minister of Education. He is the chairman of the Board of Directors which also includes the secretary and the treasurer.

Admission as a student requires a certificate of maturity. Further it requires: (1) Completed professional training, (2) at least 1 year of practical experience at a school after such training, (3) aptitude and qualification for study, and (4) in the case of students from other countries, sufficient mastery of the German language.

To enable young teachers to take a year's leave of absence for attendance at the Institute, the Minister of Education in Hesse

arranged that beginning with school year 1953 8 school persons a year would be granted leave from teaching in Hesse to attend the Institute with funds placed at their disposal insofar as needed for their stay of 2 semesters in Frankfort. He expressed the hope that the educational authorities in other States of the Federal Republic would make similar arrangements for their teachers. The Institute also is open to applicants from other German States and from abroad who have means to support themselves while in Frankfort.

The Institute has no entrance or study fees. There are no final examinations or diplomas. Publications resulting from research at the Institute are published under the name of the author.

The fields of study and research during academic year 1955-56 were: (1) Educational psychology; (2) school law, school administration, and school support; (3) teaching plan, teaching methods, and teaching materials.

In the first issue of its news publication dated November 1953 and called *Mitteilungen und Nachrichten*, the Institute points out that an important part of the development of the Institute was the beginning of work with students on April 20, 1953 when the summer semester started. For research work at the Institute the Ministry of Education of Hesse granted leave of absence for 1 year to 6 elementary school teachers and 2 middle school teachers, who had completed their formal professional training. The City of Frankfort granted leave to a secondary school teacher who had a temporary appointment. The Ministry of Education of North Rhine-Westphalia granted leave to the principal of an elementary school and the Senate of the City of Berlin granted leave to 2 elementary school teachers. All leaves were given with subsistence. In addition, the State of Hesse provided a stipend of 150 German marks to each of its trainees. Through funds granted to the Institute in 1953-54 for use in special instances, the Institute invited a teacher, with a temporary appointment, and a woman educator, with the doctor of philosophy degree in education to attend.

**Study Tours.**—Part of the annual study program is a tour abroad with members of the teaching and research staff. Through such tours, the Institute aims to have students learn about school systems and education in other countries, and the factors affecting them, in order to help the students to become aware of the similarity of educational problems elsewhere.

The study tours are planned in such a way as to help to broaden the mental horizon of students through the experience of new living conditions. Study tours establish educational relations with coworkers in other countries, and with their institutions, and



*Photo by Renner*

**Student Union—Johann Wolfgang University of Frankfurt on the Main**

strengthen existing connections. It is felt that only through mutual visits is a lasting, fruitful exchange experience possible. In his report on the 1955 study tour Dr. Schultze states, "It is pleasant to be able to tell how many guests have come to the Institute at Frankfurt on the basis of our tours abroad, and how the exchange

of information, research reports, and other publications of the Institute are constantly increasing."<sup>1</sup>

The first tour was to England and France. Its aim was to study the effect of the Education Act of 1944 on the English school system. At the same time the contrast in rhythm between the 2 capitals of Paris and London was planned to enable the students to recognize 2 different ways of life.

Yugoslavia, Greece and Turkey were the countries of the second tour which lasted 30 days because of the extent of the area covered. Its purpose was to gain acquaintance with the educational systems of countries which differ historically and politically, and where the intellectual influence of the ruling political power on education was plainly visible.

The third tour lasting from September 7 to 14, 1955, was to Holland and Belgium; the fourth, that from May 22 to June 6, 1956, included Denmark and Sweden. Accounts of the 1955 and 1956 tours are given in the special issues for November 1955 and September 1956 respectively of the Institute's publication *Mitteilungen und Nachrichten*.

Supplementary to the work in research the Institute offers lectures and exercises at which attendance is required. Below is the required program for the summer semester of 1956.<sup>2</sup>

MONDAY:	8:30- 9:30	Introduction and exercises in educational and psychological statistics
TUESDAY:	8:30-10:00	Introduction to school law
WEDNESDAY:	8:30-10:00	Problems of maturity and guidance
	10:30-12:00	Assembly
THURSDAY:	8:30-10:00	Until Whitsuntide: Danish and Swedish education (preparatory to the study tour) After Whitsuntide: The middle school in the German system of education
FRIDAY:	8:30-10:00	Until Whitsuntide: Introduction to the Institute's projects in educational psychology After Whitsuntide: Research in the psychology of adolescents from 13 to 15 years of age

<sup>1</sup> Walter Schultze, Bericht über die Studienreise der Hochschule nach Holland und Belgien vom 7.—21. September 1955. *Mitteilungen und Nachrichten* Sonderheft: 3; November 1955.

<sup>2</sup> *Mitteilungen und Nachrichten*, 11: 6-7; April 1956.

**Publications.**—Among the early publications of the Institute was one on schools in Western Europe (*Die Schulen in Westeuropa*)<sup>3</sup> giving an account of elementary, secondary, and vocational education, and of school reform in each of 10 countries: Belgium, Denmark, England, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland.

Examples of other publications contributing to the literature in education are 3 books based on research carried on in 1953–54 when the authors were student coworkers at the Institute: *Schulversuche in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland: Neue Wege und Inhalte in der Volksschule*;<sup>4</sup> *Das Sitzenbleiberproblem: Untersuchung über das Versagen von Kindern in der Volksschule*;<sup>5</sup> and *Plan und Wirklichkeit im sozialkundlichen Unterricht: Untersuchungen, Erfahrungen und Vorschläge*<sup>6</sup> (School Experiments in the Federal Republic of Germany: New Methods and Content in the Elementary School; The Problem of the Non-promoted Child: Investigation of Failure by Elementary School Children; and Plan and Reality in Social Science Instruction: Research, Findings and Recommendations).

According to *Mitteilungen und Nachrichten* of July 1956, each of the 3 student authors mentioned above has received promotion. One has been appointed principal of an elementary school, another has been made principal of a middle school, and the third has been promoted to a higher rank as a secondary school teacher. The Institute's influence on teacher education is reflected, for example, in the summoning of one of its 1954–55 students to be a lecturer at the Pedagogical Academy in Wuppertal and of another to the Teachers College in Braunschweig.

**Frankfort Tests.**—The Institute also has prepared a series of tests called "Frankfort Tests" including among others: (1) A test in reading with understanding to test the understanding of silent reading by children from 10 to 12 years of age; (2) a vocabulary test for children from 10 to 14 years of age; and (3) a talent test in problems for thought to aid in decisions concerning school transfers.

<sup>3</sup> Erich Hylla und W. L. Wrinkle, Bad Nauheim: Im Christian-Verlag, 1953. 663 p.

<sup>4</sup> Herbert Chiout. Dortmund: W. Crüwell Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1955. 234 p.

<sup>5</sup> Herbert Frommberger. Dortmund: W. Crüwell Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1955. 247 p.

<sup>6</sup> Wolfgang Hilligen. Frankfurt am Main: Bollwerk-Verlags-Gesellschaft, Jähig & Co., 1954. 241 p.

**Library.**—The library of the Institute has a collection of about 31,000 volumes and 320 current periodicals. It includes a study library, a high school library, a collection of teaching and learning materials, and a tests library. The study library began in 1952, as the Institute library. Its collection of publications on educational psychology, psychology of development, educational research, comparative education (vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft), sociology, school law, school finance, and school statistics represents the Institute's areas of work. In each of these areas the library strives to maintain a complete collection of publications issued since 1945. The foreign publications include primarily the Anglo-Saxon and Swiss, and beyond these, literature from other countries. Other branches of psychology and education as well as other subjects are considered according to significance for the objectives of the Institute.

The High School Library of the City of Frankfort traces its origin to the School Museum founded by the Frankfort Teachers Association in 1912. Destroyed by war in 1943, it was reopened in 1948, and attached to the Institute for International Educational Research in 1952. This library is considered supplemental to the teachers' libraries in the schools of Frankfort. Its collection includes publications in such fields as concern the general and professional education of teachers with particular stress on those for use in theoretical and practical training.

The collection on teaching and learning materials includes German and foreign schoolbooks, maps, pictures, other visual aids, and school equipment. The tests library endeavors to gather as complete a collection as possible of tests developed in Germany and in other countries.

#### **EDUCATIONAL CENTER IN WIESBADEN (PÄDAGOGISCHE ARBEITSSTELLE, WIESBADEN)**

The Educational Center in Wiesbaden was established in 1947 as a center for educational documentation and information. Specifically it:

1. Gathers material on education in Germany and abroad and disseminates educational information to officials, educational organizations, teachers, students, and other interested persons.
2. Serves as a clearinghouse and center for educational research.
3. Renders assistance in practical schoolwork at the request of the Ministry of Education or, under arrangement with the Ministry, prepares school construction plans and provides educational material.

4. Serves as an exchange center for the furtherance of international educational relations and renders assistance in the exchange of teachers, students, and pupils.
5. Serves as a publication center for:
  - (a) Bibliographical material including all German educational publications.
  - (b) A monthly periodical called *Bildung und Erziehung* (Training and Education), which stresses comparative education, educational psychology, and general didactics.
  - (c) A series of publications on comparative education edited by Franz Hilker, Director of the Institute.

**CENTRAL OFFICE FOR EDUCATION IN OTHER COUNTRIES  
(ZENTRALSTELLE FÜR AUSLÄNDISCHE BILDUNGSWESEN).**

The main function of the Central Office for Education in Other Countries is similar to the informational and advisory service which the International Educational Relations Branch of the United States Office of Education renders to universities, colleges, and State certification offices in making advisory interpretations in terms of education in the United States, of credentials for studies completed in other countries.

When the German universities reopened in 1945, 2 types of foreign students applied for admission: Regular foreign students and students who were taken to Germany during the War as workers or as prisoners and who later became displaced persons unable to return to their homelands. The admission question facing the universities was how to evaluate the previous education of these foreign students. The universities were quite well agreed that for admission, the previous education of foreign students should be equivalent to that of German students and that knowledge and achievement should be the equal to that for German secondary school graduates.

The basis for these requirements is German necessity, according to the Director of the Central Office. To uphold a definite intellectual standard at German universities necessitates no small minimum requirement of knowledge, capacity, and adjustability. Secondly, according to the Director, German universities are convinced that a lowering of requirements would lessen the value of German education in other countries. In addition, foreign countries are interested in having the sons and daughters they send to institutions of higher education in Germany subject to the same requirements and to the same achievement standards as the German students.



The decision on admissions is based on an evaluation of their education according to level of knowledge and achievement, as compared with the German maturity examination and qualification for admission to university study in the student's homeland. This interpretation requires penetrating study of the educational systems of other countries, observation of changing educational goals, and observation of cultural conditions.<sup>7</sup>

Experience at the beginning of the century had shown that independent procedure by the institutions of higher education brought lack of uniformity in interpretation. To remedy the situation the Conference of German Institutions of Higher Education (Konferenz der deutschen Hochschulen) in Frankfurt, authorized the Educational Administration of Prussia to prepare a uniform standard. The result was the establishment in 1904 of the Office of Matriculation Affairs of Foreign Students (Auskunftstelle in Immatrikulationsangelegenheiten von Ausländern), located in the Prussian Ministry of Education until 1945. From its beginning, it had served for all of Germany.

With the reopening of the universities after the War and the arrival of students from other countries, the need for a central office for the interpretation of schooling completed abroad became urgent. In August 1946, the German Northwest University Association (Nordwestdeutsche Hochschultag) established the Central Office for the Interpretation of Foreign Student Transcripts (Zentralstelle für die Begutachtung ausländischer Vorbildungsnachweise) called, since July 1949, the Central Office for Education in Other Countries with its Secretariat in Goettingen.

Contrary to practice prior to 1945, the Central Office for Education in Other Countries does not render decisions with reference to studies completed in other countries; it indicates its opinion. The decision is made by the Ministry of Education, the institution of higher education, or the examination office requesting the opinion.

Other functions of the Central Office are: (1) Gathering material on educational systems and types of schools in other countries including official data such as school legislation, study plans, and examination regulations and other publications on education; and (2) analysis of this material for use in comparative education.

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<sup>7</sup> Walter Wienert. *Ausländer an deutschen Hochschulen und die Bewertung ausländischer Zeugnisse.* (Foreigners at German Institutions of Higher Education and the Evaluation of the Credentials.) *Die Sammlung*, Heft 3: 177-79; März 1949.

## EXCHANGE PROGRAMS

*German Academic Exchange Service (Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst)*. In 1923 the Institute for Social and Political Science at the University of Heidelberg, founded the first organization for an exchange of scholarships with the United States.<sup>8</sup> In the following year, 1924, The Institute of International Education in New York established the American-German Student Exchange as a special department within the Institute and offered 13 scholarships to German students. The offer developed into an exchange, leading in the early part of 1925 to the official founding of the Academic Exchange Service. In the fall of 1925 it was moved to Berlin and extended to include undergraduate and graduate students in fields other than political science.

A branch office was established in 1927 in London (Anglo-German Academic Bureau), and in 1930 in Paris (Office Universitaire Franco-Allemand). During the National Socialist period branch offices or other liaison organizations were established in places such as Madrid, Barcelona, Rome, Budapest, Copenhagen, and Stockholm. In 1945 the headquarters of the German Academic Exchange Service in Berlin were destroyed.

At a meeting in Munich in 1949, the Ministers of Education of the West German States and the Vice-Chancellors of the West German universities passed a resolution that the German Academic Exchange Service be revived at Bonn and the service was reestablished officially at a meeting there on August 5, 1950.

The German Academic Exchange Service is governed by its Governing Board and the General Meeting of its members. The costs are covered by membership subscription and contributions from the Foundation Association for German Science (Stiftverband für die Deutsche Wissenschaft), from the Ministries of Education of the States of the Federal Republic of Germany, from the Foreign Office, and from the National Ministry of Interior.

*Educational Exchange Service (Pädagogischer Austauschdienst)*.

—The Educational Exchange Service was established in January 1952 as the Teachers' and High School Students' Exchange (Lehrer und Schüler Austausch). On April 1, 1952, it became a special department within the German Academic Exchange Service. Since October 1, 1955, it has been functioning as an independent establishment of the Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education.

<sup>8</sup> *German Academic Exchange Service: A Survey*. Bonn: Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst, [1954], p. 2.

**GERMAN-AMERICAN CONFERENCES OF HISTORIANS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY  
(AMERIKANISCH-DEUTSCHE HISTORIKER- UND GESCHICHTSLEHRER-TAGUNGEN)**

The first German-American Conference of Historians and Teachers of History was held at the International Schoolbook Institute of the Kant Teachers College at Braunschweig from May 12 to 23, 1952.<sup>9</sup> The conference was the result of a work agreement made in August 1950, at the UNESCO Seminar in Brussels, Belgium between the Committee for History Instruction of the Study Group of the German Teachers Association (Ausschuss für Geschichtsunterricht der Arbeitsgemeinschaft deutscher Lehrerverbands) and the National Council for the Social Studies, a Department of Social Studies of the National Education Association of the United States of America. The agreement provided for the exchange of history schoolbooks and their critical examination as to whether the history of each country and the mutual relations between the 2 countries were presented without prejudice. In each country a committee was appointed to judge some 30 of the most significant and widely used histories for all types of schools and age levels. At this first conference the 2 committees met to discuss their findings with historians, teachers of history, and representatives of teachers' associations.

The participants included American and German historians and representatives from Austria, Belgium, Denmark, England, France, Greece, Holland, Italy, Norway, and Switzerland. Many of the participants were members of associations which had been working closely with the History Committee of the German Teachers' Association for some time in order to free German history books from false judgments and nationalistic prejudices.

To obtain concrete results from the conference, the meeting was divided into several committees to organize the material presented into epochs briefly giving the historical events and problems presented falsely, insufficiently, or with prejudice in American and German school histories. The participants from Germany and from the United States had the task of presenting historical facts about their respective countries and the relations of the 2 countries to each other as they wished them to appear in the school books of the country.

<sup>9</sup> Die 1. amerikanisch-deutsche Historiker- und Geschichtslehrer-Tagung, 12. bis 23. Mai 1952. *Internationales Jahrbuch für Geschichtsunterricht*. Band II. (The 1st German-American Conference of Historians and Teachers of History, May 12 to 23, 1952, *International Yearbook for History Instruction*. Volume II.) Braunschweig: Verlag Albert Limbach, 1953, p. 121-348.

The American resolution mentioned 11 points in the events in American history whose adequate handling is omitted in German school histories. One point stresses the continuous interaction between the United States and Europe and the rest of the world, and urges greater attention to social and industrial history. Another urges more intensive presentation of the late 19th and the 20th century world history and applies, not only to Europe and the United States, but to the Far East, since civilization should not be divided into an East and a West.

On the basis of their findings in American school histories the 8 German committees worked out definite resolutions corresponding to main epochs: the Middle Ages, the beginning of the modern period from 1500 to 1800, the intellectual life of Germany about 1800, the Empire of Bismarck, the First Republic from 1918 to 1933, and the Third Empire. When these formulations were presented to the conference they "underwent a very open critique" and it was felt that "they should serve as recommendations to schoolbook authors and to history teachers, to arrange schoolbooks and instruction in the most objective and unbiased form possible."

A number of American book publishers had previously declared themselves ready to take the German critique into consideration in new editions. In Germany, large schoolbook publishers are working more and more with the History Committee of the Teachers Association.

The second conference called the German-American Conference of Historians (Amerikanisch-Deutsche Historikertagung) was held at Braunschweig during the period of August 23-31, 1955. At this conference discussion was limited to German-American relations in the social, cultural, diplomatic, and economic fields. In its recommendations the Conference stated:<sup>10</sup>

We confirm and emphasize anew the proposals which were adopted by the first German-American historians' conference held in Braunschweig, May 12-23, 1952. We recommend that these discussions, which have served to clarify our thinking on the history of both Germany and the United States, be continued in future conferences. Especially we recommend that a future German-American conference should concern itself with a discussion of significant books and articles and the preparation of a critical bibliography of German-American relations and on more recent periods of American-German relations. We recommend further that the points of view stated in the attached paper be given consideration in textbooks for the teaching of history.

<sup>10</sup> *Relations between Germany and the United States of America in the 18th and 19th Centuries. Braunschweig: German-American Conference of Historians held at Braunschweig, August 23-31, 1955, (Processed). 2 p.*

Among the points principally emphasized are:

1. The rôle of Germans in the settlement and expansion of the American colonies.
2. The influence of German immigrants on American social, intellectual, and economic life.
3. The influence of American democratic ideas in Germany.
4. The maintenance of friendly diplomatic and commercial relations between the German Empire and the United States to the close of the 19th century.

The second part of the paper is concerned with German-American relations during the 20th century: 1900-1914, 1914-1918, The United States and the Weimar Republic 1918-1933, and America and the Third Empire 1933-1941.

### INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

An International Workshop on Guidance at Weilburg,<sup>11</sup> like those on Social Studies at Heidelberg (p. 45) and on Teacher Education for Wuerttemberg-Baden (p. 54) gave German educators opportunity to renew contacts and exchange ideas with their colleagues in other countries. Other international conferences provided similar opportunities.

For example, two were held on Vocational Education. The first, in Stuttgart from July 25 to August 4, 1950, was arranged by the Wuerttemberg-Baden Ministry of Education in cooperation with Education Sections of the U. S. Land Commission for Wuerttemberg-Baden and the U. S. High Commissioner for Germany. Devoted to vocational education in general, this conference was attended by 35 teachers and officials from France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States. Its report, published in an English and in a German edition, also provides an international survey of vocational education in Germany and a dozen other countries.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>11</sup> *Proceedings: Findings and Recommendations for the German Schools.* Frankfurt/Main: Office of the United States High Commissioner for Germany, December 1951, 171 p. (Internationale Arbeitstagung über "Guidance" Weilburg, 15. Juli bis 17 August 1951, *Verhandlungsbericht: Ergebnisse und Vorschläge für die deutsche Schule.* Frankfurt/Main: Office of the United States High Commissioner for Germany, December 1951, 214 p.)

<sup>12</sup> Harold Robinson, and others, editors. *Problems of Vocational Education: An International Survey.* (First English edition translated from the second German edition.) Stuttgart: Verlag Reinhold, January 1952, 150 p. (Harold Robinson, und Andere. *Probleme des beruflichen Bildungswesens: Eine Internationale Stellungnahme.* Stuttgart: Verlag Reinhold A. Müller, 1951, 144 p.)

The Second International Conference on Vocational Education was held in Maulbronn, Germany from July 17 to 21, 1951.<sup>13</sup> It was promoted by the Vocational Education Section of the U. S. Land Commission for Wuerttemberg-Baden and arranged in cooperation with the Wuerttemberg-Baden, Ministry of Education and the German Vocational Teachers Associations. The countries represented were France, England, Western Germany, Norway, Switzerland, and the United States.

Following an introduction on the concept of "citizenship," the report is devoted to: Demands of citizenship in a democracy, specific problems in curriculum and methods, specialized citizenship needs among different types of institutions and students, educating teachers to develop citizenship qualities in vocational school students, and out-of-school citizenship activities sponsored by schools and other agencies.

Comments on the delegates to the 2 conferences on vocational education such as "They gathered . . . not as delegates of their home organizations or governments but as colleagues" express what the reader senses in the accounts of other international conferences.

#### UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

The Federal Republic of Germany became a member of UNESCO on July 11, 1951, when its representatives signed the Constitution of UNESCO at London. The Cultural Branch of the German Foreign Office has a special section for dealing with questions connected with UNESCO. The head of the Foreign Office is a member of the German National Commission for UNESCO.

The German National Commission began as a foundation committee in January 1950 at a conference convened through private initiative at Bad Sodan. The conference represented circles interested in intellectual cooperation on a world-wide basis. In November 1950 the Committee was established at Frankfort as the German Committee for UNESCO Work. After becoming a member of UNESCO, the Federal Republic recognized the German Committee as the National Commission for UNESCO and changed its name accordingly.

<sup>13</sup> *Education for Citizenship in Vocational Schools*. Stuttgart: Verlag Reinhold A. Mueller, 1952, 64 p.

Early in 1951, when admission of West Germany was well under way, UNESCO began preparation for the establishment of 3 international UNESCO institutes; namely, the UNESCO Institutes for Social Sciences in Cologne, for Youth in Munich, and for Education in Hamburg.

The Institute in Hamburg is international. Housing was provided by the City of Hamburg which also bears the current expenses for housing. The Institute is also supported by the Federal Republic and the German National Commission for UNESCO.

The Institute in Munich is supported by the Federal Republic, the State of Bavaria, and the German National Commission for UNESCO.

The Institute in Cologne, founded in 1951 by UNESCO in collaboration with the German National Commission, is supported by the Federal Republic, the State of North Rhine-Westphalia, the City of Cologne, and the German National Commission.

#### INTER NATIONES

Founded in 1952 as a nonprofit organization, *Inter Nationes* located in Bonn, Marienstrasse 6, is supported by Government funds and private donations. Aiming to promote goodwill and mutual understanding between the German people and those of other lands, it seeks to assist in developing an awareness abroad of Germany's cultural heritage, and the facets of its life today; and to encourage, within the Federal Republic, a wider appreciation of the culture and life of other countries and people.

Functioning as a clearinghouse of information, it reports it answered some 50,000 inquiries from the free world during its first 4 years of existence, and supplied information and materials to students, teachers, professors, research scholars, study groups, journalists, publishers, libraries, and universities. It cooperates in numerous publication programs by making information available to writers, publishers, and foreign journalists; and supplying editorial projects in Germany and abroad with textual and pictorial material.

On request it renders informational and advisory service to foreign individuals or groups, who plan to study or make lecture tours in Germany, and to Germans with similar plans for abroad. Its reference library of approximately 5,000 volumes includes handbooks on other countries, documentation on Germany, and foreign language publications dealing with Germany.

In a separate building in Bonn, Baumschulallee 21, *Inter Nationes* offers a forum and study center where guests from abroad can meet German colleagues for interchange of ideas. Here research scholars and publicists from abroad find working facilities and help with technical arrangements.

The wide range of services offered by *Inter Nationes* to broaden and deepen international contacts and exchange, requires close cooperation with numerous foreign and German governmental and private agencies, international organizations, academic societies, and, in general, with institutions dedicated to international understanding and world peace.



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