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MAJOR TRENDS OF EDUCATION IN OTHER COUNTRIES

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ASSOCIATE SPECIALIST IN FOREIGN EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

The period under review, approximately the years 1924, 1925, and 1926, are of significance in education in that they are a part of the reconstruction, postwar time that was marked in its earlier months by strong enthusiasm and a general freedom of conception, when fine plans for educational systems—by no means impossible of eventual realization—were laid and even enacted into law, only to be held disappointingly in abeyance by the severe reactions and economic distress that followed shortly after. These were the first years of cooler judgments and of better directed activities in giving expression through education to the principles of self-determinism, the rights of minorities, and the maintenance of republican forms of government by people trained in the arts of self-government that were so strongly emphasized in the peace settlements. Obviously it is not possible to separate them entirely from the other years of the postwar decade, because the main events of 1924 to 1926 are for the most part simply continuations of activities either begun or strengthened in the six previous years. Moreover, only a few of the larger movements can be treated in a brief bulletin.

The major changes in world education in these years center largely in the Eurasian countries and grow out of the war and the new political situations set up by the treaties of peace. One of the most marked movements was the establishment of certain official international relationships in education made obligatory by treaties, constitutions, and laws; and these were accompanied by a general widening and strengthening of activity, official and unofficial, in international education affairs. Another important aspect is manifest in the establishment of ministries of education and the development of administrative school organizations in the newly created nations, together with various changes in the national educational offices of other countries. Closely connected with both is the evident willingness of the different countries to make substantial monetary provision for education at a time when many of them were forced into drastic retrenchments in their national expenditures or were even in a state of national bankruptcy.

The almost universal adoption of republican forms of government which followed the war naturally led to inquiries into the educational status of the people and their ability to understand and assume the obligations they were incurring, with the consequent discovery of enormous numbers of illiterates and near-illiterates and subsequent attempts of many kinds to give them at least the rudiments of an elementary education.

In the realm of human training below the levels of secondary instruction the lowered birth rate during the war began to show in greatly decreased school enrollments in several European countries, and coincident with this realization of the loss of human wealth the national governments took many new measures in behalf of women and children, lengthened the term of compulsory school attendance, and generally gave to elementary education a better adaptation to the needs of child life.

Secondary schools were still increasing in numbers and enrollment. The more pronounced tendencies in this field included emphasis on training during the early years of adolescence, about 12 to 15, and modifications that would make all of secondary education more practical and more available to the children of all classes of people.

The general trends in higher education were in the direction of greatly increased enrollments in the number of resident students and those taking degree courses, especially in scientific fields; a broadening of the functions of universities and colleges especially in giving extension courses in both special subjects and cultural training; and a better grasp of the proper relation of the university to the nation.

• CHANGES IN NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS

The Continent of Eurasia east of a line drawn from the North Sea to the Adriatic Sea was in 1914 for the most part controlled by three empires—Germany, Russia, and Turkey. The British Empire held close control over India and was a strongly directive force in the affairs of Egypt. Imperial policies dictated the amount, kind, and color of education in those areas. By 1924 Germany had been restricted to a comparatively small continental area, and had become a Republic, a federation of 20 States, each with a republican constitution. Russia had become the antithesis of an empire—a loosely bound union of six soviet Republics, each working under communistic principles. Turkey had been greatly reduced in area, had gone far toward separating church and state, and was on the verge of the constitutional reforms of April 20, 1924, by which it was declared a Republic. The British Empire had given to India, through the India act of 1919, an experimental government, "with a view to the progressive realization of responsible government in British India as

an integral part of the British Empire"; had terminated its protectorate over Egypt; had recognized the Saorstat Eireann as a coequal member of the community of nations forming the British Commonwealth; and the status of Australia, Canada, Newfoundland, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa as self-governing dominions "in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations," was tacitly accepted, though it was not officially expressed until the imperial conference of November, 1927.

Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, the Free City of Danzig, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Albania, and the Saorstat Eireann in Europe had established their own governments, generally republican in form, and had assumed the responsibilities, national and international, of independent entities. Austria and Hungary had been reduced from large groups of heterogeneous peoples to much smaller comparatively homogeneous populations. In Asia, Afghanistan had been recognized by Great Britain as entirely independent; Arabia was free of Turkish domination; Persia was nearing a change of dynasty; a new republican constitution had just been promulgated in China; and Palestine, under a British protectorate, was open to settlement and development by Jewish peoples from all parts of the world.

INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

Official obligatory relationships.—The great and far-reaching changes in the number and kind of national governments in Eurasia had necessitated general international readjustments; and international educational relationships, official and otherwise, had sprung into sudden prominence. On the actual official side of treaties, international agreements, and constitutional enactments made obligatory by treaties, international direction of certain educational policies had been deliberately undertaken and in 1924 to 1926, the practicability of such direction was plainly proved.

Realizing that the mistreatment of minorities of race, religion, and language had been the chief cause of the World War, the framers of the peace treaties had attempted to work out national boundaries that would correspond to the territorial lines of division between ethnic and linguistic groups. That was impossible, and though the situation was greatly improved the ethnic minorities in Europe affected by the peace treaties amounted to about 16,800,000 people; so it was essential for European peace that those minorities be protected by the treaties. Among the first of such treaties was that entered into between Poland and the Allied and Associated Powers on June 28, 1919, and the provisions in it for the protection of minorities are deemed so important to the educational world that they are

quoted. Besides being the legal basis for international control of some phases of education, they may and probably will in time come to be considered as among the *magna cartæ* of human liberty.

Article 2.—Poland undertakes to assure full and complete protection of life and liberty to all inhabitants of Poland without distinction of birth, nationality, language, race, or religion.

All inhabitants of Poland shall be entitled to the free exercise, whether public or private, of any creed, religion, or belief, whose practices are not inconsistent with public order or public morals.

Article 7.—All Polish nationals shall be equal before the law and shall enjoy the same civil and political rights without distinction as to race, language, or religion.

Differences of religion, creed, or confession shall not prejudice any Polish national in matters relating to the enjoyment of civil or political rights, as for instance admission to public employments, functions, and honors, or the exercise of professions and industries.

No restriction shall be imposed on the free use by any Polish national of any language in private intercourse, in commerce, in religion, in the press, or in publications of any kind, or at public meetings.

Notwithstanding any establishment by the Polish Government of an official language, adequate facilities shall be given to Polish nationals of non-Polish speech for the use of their language, either orally or in writing, before the courts.

Article 8.—Polish nationals who belong to racial, religious, or linguistic minorities shall enjoy the same treatment and security in law and in fact as the other Polish nationals. In particular they shall have an equal right to establish, manage, and control at their own expense charitable, religious, and social institutions, schools, and other educational establishments, with the right to use their own language and to exercise their religion freely therein.

Article 9.—Poland will provide in the public educational system in towns and districts in which a considerable proportion of Polish nationals of other than Polish speech are residents adequate facilities for ensuring that in the primary schools the instruction shall be given to the children of such Polish nationals through the medium of their own language. This provision shall not prevent the Polish Government from making the teaching of the Polish language obligatory in the said schools.

In towns and districts where there is a considerable proportion of Polish nationals belonging to racial, religious, or linguistic minorities, these minorities shall be assured an equitable share in the enjoyment and application of the sums which may be provided out of public funds under the State, municipal, or other budget, for educational, religious, or charitable purposes.

The provisions of this article shall apply to Polish citizens of German speech only in that part of Poland which was German territory on August 1, 1914.

Article 10.—Educational committees appointed locally by the Jewish communities of Poland will, subject to the general control of the State, provide for the distribution of the proportional share of public funds allocated to Jewish schools in accordance with article 9, and for the organization and management of these schools.

The provisions of article 9 concerning the use of languages in schools shall apply to these schools.

Article 12.—Poland agrees that the stipulations in the foregoing articles, so far as they affect persons belonging to racial, religious, or linguistic minorities, constitute obligations of international concern and shall be placed under the guarantee of the League of Nations. They shall not be modified without the assent

of a majority of the Council of the League of Nations. The United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan hereby agree not to withhold their assent from any modification in these articles which is in due form assented to by a majority of the Council of the League of Nations.

Poland agrees that any member of the Council of the League of Nations shall have the right to bring to the attention of the council any infraction, or any danger of infraction, of any of these obligations, and that the council may thereupon take such action and give such direction as it may deem proper and effective in the circumstances.

Poland further agrees that any difference of opinion as to questions of law or fact arising out of these articles between the Polish Government and any one of the principal Allied and Associated Powers or any other power, a member of the Council of the League of Nations, shall be held to be a dispute of an international character under article 14 of the Covenant of the League of Nations. The Polish Government hereby consents that any such dispute shall, if the other party thereto demands, be referred to the Permanent Court of International Justice. The decision of the Permanent Court shall be final and shall have the same force and effect as an award under article 13 of the covenant.

In all, 10 treaties with similar provisions between the five principal Allied and Associated Powers had been drawn up in 1919-20. They were between these powers on the one hand and Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Greece, Armenia, Austria, Hungary, and Turkey on the other. Each State had recognized the obligations in these minority treaties as fundamental laws that cannot be overturned by legislation or administration within the State itself. Their enforcement was guaranteed by semijudicial procedure before the League of Nations. In May of 1922 Lithuania had signed before the council of the league a declaration almost identical to the provisions in the Polish treaty; and in July and September of 1923, Latvia and Estonia signed declarations much more vague and less decisive than those made by Lithuania.

Provisions for the mutual protection of minorities had been incorporated in several binational treaties: Germany and Poland in May, 1922, with regard to Upper Silesia; Austria and Czechoslovakia in 1920; Finland and Soviet Russia in the treaty of Dorpat of October, 1920; Turkey and France in the Angora agreement of the same date; and Iraq and England in the treaty of alliance in October, 1922. In 1922, four Baltic States, including Poland, signed a treaty to the same effect.

It devolved then upon the governments concerned to work out and put into effect through their ministries of education administrative school policies that would meet and satisfy the international obligations which they had assumed. Necessarily it was somewhat difficult to do that in Germany and Russia, where there are no *national* ministries of education, and the Central Government must look to the constituent States to comply with the treaties.

The authorities of Czechoslovakia entered upon the new program most wholeheartedly. That country was maintaining in 1924-25 a

total of 20,740 schools of all grades from kindergarten to university, inclusive, with 46,138 classes and an enrollment of 2,315,752 pupils. By language of instruction the pupils were distributed as follows: Czechoslovak, 68.5 per cent; Ruthenian, 3.2 per cent; German, 21.7 per cent; Magyar, 4.6 per cent; Polish, 0.6 per cent; Rumanian, 0.01 per cent; Jewish, 0.03 per cent; and other and combined schools, 1.4 per cent. While the establishment and maintenance expense of primary and superior primary schools is a charge against the commune, and the personnel salaries are borne ordinarily by the Province, the National Government undertakes to provide minority primary and superior primary schools where necessary, and the expense is borne by the national treasury. The language situation extends throughout all levels of the school system, secondary, professional, teacher-training institutions, and schools of university rank. Two of the 4 universities are Czech, 1 is German, and 1 is Slovak. The 4 technical high schools are 2 Czech and 2 German.

Space does not here permit giving in detail the way in which the educational authorities in the countries that were parties to the treaties were meeting their minority language obligations in 1924 to 1926. It is sufficient to say that all but one or two were observing both the spirit and the letter of the compacts, and that the few cases of violations that were brought before the league council were rather quickly corrected. Within the league council the machinery for and the method of handling complaints were developed into an effective system.

It is necessary to point out, however, that this international control of some phases of education as applied to a considerable number of countries in Eurasia and demonstrated as successful in the years of which we write has a very vital bearing on future educational administration, support, and direction; that the principles accepted by these countries will probably come into effect among countries on other continents where there are similar puzzling minority situations; that they may be controlling factors in colonial educational policies, and that multilingual and bilingual school systems are now commonplaces in the educational world.

The best and most hopeful trend of these movements is that minority language questions are being taken out of the fields of politics and religion and placed in the hands of the professional educators where they rightly belong, and that the latter are approaching them first from the immediate and pressing angle of providing proper school facilities under good administration; and second from the more important angle of making scientific investigations into the psychology of bilingualism and multilingualism so that better methods of teaching modern languages may be evolved.

In the treaty nations the principles applied to languages of instruction were also made applicable to religious teaching in the schools,

the general plan being that the pupil or his parents may select the creed, if any, in which he wishes to be instructed and that the individual teacher is free to decide whether he will give such instruction. Intensified and special control in the direction of a single faith was adopted by Bavaria and Poland, each of which entered into a concordat with the Vatican, the former in November, 1924, and the latter in August, 1925, by which both countries gave to the church the right to direct instruction in the Roman Catholic religion in their schools. Such an arrangement has been in effect in Spain since 1851.

Official and semiofficial nonobligatory relationships.—The international relationships described above are strictly official and for the most part obligatory. If not carried out they involve the breaking of mutual and solemn obligations between nations. Other international relationships in education, while still official or semiofficial but not at all legally obligatory, were fully as important, and went on actively during the period under review. Representatives from the various ministries of education made extensive trips to other countries and studied the school systems intensively with a view to carrying back to their own countries those features that they could adapt and use to advantage. In continuation of a policy solemnly sworn to in 1868 by the Emperor of Japan that "*knowledge shall be sought for throughout the world, so that the welfare of the Empire may be promoted,*" the Japanese Department of Education at the close of 1928 had 455 men and 5 women, all carefully selected students, studying abroad. The exchange of teachers, started in the last decade of the nineteenth century between Germany, France, and England because of a simultaneous movement in those countries for better teaching of foreign languages, was carried on by the office of special inquiries and reports of the board of education in England. In 1923-24 it made 55 appointments to positions in secondary schools and training colleges in France, and 49 such appointments in 1924-25. In return 44 French assistants were appointed to various schools in England and Wales in 1923-24 and 49 in 1924-25.

The visit to the United States in 1925 of a delegate from the Austrian Ministry of Education resulted in the establishment a year later of the Austro-American Institute of Education at Vienna. A representative of the Ministry of Public Instruction and Agriculture of Bolivia visited Mexico, European capitals, and the United States to study educational developments and report a plan of reform for the schools of Bolivia. The director of public instruction of the State of Bahia, Brazil, spent several months abroad in 1925 studying various school systems. These are but a few examples of the large number of semiofficial exchanges of educational thought that were going on between countries.

Lesser official units, such as universities and colleges, city school systems, etc., and private individuals, corporations, and foundations, carried on organized international educational and cultural exchanges in great amount and a wide variety of ways. Among the most important of these activities were the maintenance of societies formed for the purpose of promoting good feeling between the nations and aliens, either visiting or resident, in the various countries; exchanges of students and teachers; the support of large numbers of scholarships and fellowships for study abroad; the conducting of summer schools designed especially to give foreigners an insight into the language, culture, and national ideals of the countries visited; and meetings of international educational associations.

Unofficial relationships.—A study made by the American Council of Education in 1925 listed 114 organizations concerned with international educational relations and having either headquarters or representatives in the United States. Thirty-nine of them were regularly bringing or sending professors and students to and from 15 different European countries, China, and Japan. The scholarships and fellowships open to American students for study in foreign countries numbered well over 500 and involved an annual expenditure of about half a million dollars. Many of these scholarships were entirely unrestricted as to subject and place of study and allowed great freedom in the selection of the student and the best place for him to continue his training. Others were restricted as to subject, while some 200 were designed to promote cultural relations between the United States and some specific country or countries and were restricted as to place.

The interchange of students and teachers that had been carried on for a long time between Argentina and Uruguay was widened in 1926 to include all Latin-American countries. A year later the University of Breslau expressed a desire to interchange students with similar institutions in Argentina. Seventy-five students from Argentina visited La Paz in August of 1925 to assist in the celebration of the first centenary of Bolivian independence. The professor of economics and finance in Princeton University in the United States in 1927, when urging the president of the Historical and Geographical Institute of Brazil to establish a short summer school at Rio de Janeiro for American teachers of secondary schools, stated that 361,000 teachers and students in 1926 used the summer-school method to realize their desire to study in Europe and that there were 27 European schools with an average enrollment of 700 American students in each, as follows: University of Dublin, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Zurich, Cambridge, Oxford, London, Sorbonne, Lille, Genoa, Lucerne, Basle, Heidelberg, Mains, Berlin, Hamburg, Vienna, Florence, Rome,

Naples, Athens, Cairo, Jerusalem, Beirut, two in Constantinople, and a branch of William and Mary College (United States) at Madrid.

International educational congresses.—Among the more important of the international meetings of strictly educational character was that of the World Federation of Education Associations held at Edinburgh, Scotland, July 20 to 27, 1925. The association had been founded at San Francisco in 1923 and at that time outlined in 20 resolutions a program of procedure intended to cultivate international good will and to promote the interests of peace throughout the world. Among the most important recommendations of the first meeting were the provision of an educational attaché at each embassy or legation; scholarships for students of education to study abroad; the establishment of a permanent international bureau of research and publicity and a universal library bureau; adapting textbooks and teaching methods to the expression of fairness and good will between nations; promoting the observance of May 18 as an international "Good-will day"; appointing an international commission to further the work of reducing illiteracy in all countries as rapidly as possible; favoring national aid for education in communities lacking financial resources; urging the extension of educational opportunities for women; and indorsing the development of international school correspondence.

At the Edinburgh meeting the president of the federation reported that the outstanding achievements of the biennium had been an awakening in the relief of illiteracy; an added impetus to international correspondence among school children, a beneficial study of world contacts; and that some nations, Mexico being the first, had appointed educational attachés in connection with their embassies. International good-will day had been celebrated to some extent in practically all countries; and a beginning had been made of a collection of textbook materials and the dissemination of educational information by different methods. Six nation-wide education associations had joined the federation, and three more had made formal applications for membership.

The Second Imperial Education Conference of the British Empire convened in London June 25 to July 6, 1923, to continue the policy, begun in 1911, and interrupted by the war, of assembling official delegates, appointed by the respective governments of the different divisions of the Empire, to consider ways of effecting as close relations as possible in the varied attempts made in the parts of the British Commonwealth to solve the problems of education that are present in all, and in essence remain the same for all. The agenda of the conference included teacher qualifications and interchange of teachers; courses of instruction and secondary school-leaving certificates; the provision for and organization of schools in

rural and sparsely populated districts; stages in a system of general education; the bilingual school problem; the history and geography of the Empire; the cinematograph as a factor in education; special means of educating the different European races within the Empire; special requirements in the education of Europeans in constant and immediate contact with non-European races, and other equally important topics. The reporting committees set up principles for the interchange of teachers and for bilingual teaching; recommended close and continuous supervision for the physical well-being of children and resolved that in the interests of the future solidarity of the Empire it was imperative that efficient teaching of the geography and history of the Empire be provided by all educational authorities.

The Third Imperial Conference held its meetings in June and July of 1927, beginning them with the question of "education in relation to the pupil's after-career, with special reference to problems of primary and vocational education," and during its sessions discussed a wide range of topics, including problems of special interest to tropical countries, the use of broadcasting in an educational system, examination and inspection of schools, rural education, and school medical service. The conference closed with a unanimous resolution to be forwarded to the King that:

Our deliberations have strengthened our belief that education should be one of the greatest factors in promoting mutual knowledge and understanding and thereby fostering sentiments of active friendship and of good will between the different parts of Your Majesty's dominions.

MINISTRIES OF EDUCATION

For the world at large trends toward centralizing education in a responsible national ministry were conflicting, and no definite general movement in the direction of either centralization or decentralization is evident. Pronounced decentralization took place in India following the adoption of the India act of 1919; central control was strengthened considerably in Brazil, Ecuador, and Austria. The administrative reforms in Italy provided for greater local freedom in education. The Federal Government in Germany was for the most part unable to take advantage of the wide powers over education given it in the constitution, and the proposal for an Imperial Bureau of Education for the British Empire was not put into effect. Each of the nations newly created or recreated at the close of the war set up a national ministry of education to administer the school system through which it hoped to develop its national ideals and at the same time fulfill the treaty obligations it had assumed in regard to education. The work of the Ministry of Religious Creeds and Public Instruction in Poland is fairly representative of that being carried on in each of the new national entities.

The ministry of education in Poland.—The ministry entered upon what was essentially a program of unification and reconstruction. Poland took over, with the territory that was formerly the Austrian annexate, schools that were distinctly Polish in character and conducted by an autonomic educational authority. In the Prussian annexate the schools were adequate but completely Germanized; in the Russian section, they were very inadequate and Russianized. The population of Poland is one of fixed heterogeneity: 69.2 per cent Polish; 14.3 per cent Ruthenian; 3.9 per cent White Ruthenian; 3.9 per cent German; 7.8 per cent Jewish; and 0.9 per cent other nationalities. In addition to bringing three distinct educational systems into some sort of cooperation, if not unity, in the furtherance of Polish national life, the ministry had to meet the minority language situations consequent upon the varied racial composition of the population.

By a statute of June 4, 1920, the Republic is to be divided into educational districts somewhat similar to the academies in France, each presided over by a curator who has general superintendence, guardianship, and inspection of education within his district. His powers do not extend to higher education and his authority is distinctly limited by the many laws and ministerial regulations that fix the details of education. The division into educational districts has proceeded slowly and is not yet complete.

In 1924 Germany and Soviet Russia both protested against the treatment of their respective national minorities in Poland and a further protest from the Allied powers seemed imminent. The answer was three statutes passed July 10, 1924, one of which permitted the opening of private schools in which instruction was to be given in the language desired, and that at the request of the parents of 40 children in regions where the non-Polish minority amounted to 25 per cent of the population, instruction might be given through Lithuanian, White Russian, or Ukrainian, although Polish, Polish history, and Polish geography should be taught—the last two in the Polish language. Following this, the Jewish elements in the population secured an agreement (the declaration of Warsaw) on July 4 and 12, 1925, two sections of which read:

The council of ministers takes note of the declaration according to which the Minister of Public Instruction and Worship announces that he will introduce in a certain number of public primary schools, in regions where the percentage of the Jewish population is high, the keeping of Saturday as a holy day and the teaching of Hebrew sciences up to 10 hours a week.

The council of ministers takes note of the declaration according to which the Minister of Public Instruction and Worship announces that he will promulgate ordinances according to the terms of which students attending "cheders" which have conformed to the provisions in force in State establishments will be considered as satisfying the law on compulsory education.

By the close of 1924, approximately 72 per cent of the children of compulsory school age (7 to 14) were in attendance at primary schools; 116 State and 66 private teacher-training colleges were in operation and enrolled 29,872 students; 265 State and 498 private secondary schools, most of them of the gymnasium type, had an attendance of 221,800 students; and a large number of the professional and supplementary schools of secondary grade were in operation. Eleven State institutions and 10 private ones of university rank were maintaining faculties of liberal arts, law, medicine, music, and agriculture, and in general covering the entire field of higher instruction.

Educational decentralization in India.—The India act of 1919 set up a diarchic form of government in which the central government is still bureaucratic and responsible through the Secretary of State for India to the British Parliament. Administration in the provinces is divided between the governor on the one hand, who is responsible ultimately to Parliament for certain reserved subjects, and the provincial legislature and ministry made up of Indians and responsible for certain transferred subjects, among which is education. These reforms went into effect in January, 1921, and necessarily meant a long step toward taking away from a central government the power that it had over education in India and distributing it among the Provinces. Formerly, the Government of India, in addition to other forms of educational control, could encourage educational advance in any line it favored by making grants from surplus revenues. Financial control is now in the Provinces.

A general report on education in India is issued quinquennially and the latest period reported is 1917 to 1922. A complete review is not yet available for 1922 to 1927. The transfer of education to popular control came at a difficult time, for there was widespread financial stringency and much political agitation, the latter taking the form of a non-cooperation campaign and an attempt to establish "national schools" parallel to the Government schools but entirely free from any kind of Government control. Both the financial stress and the political agitation seriously hampered the progress of education, but they were not entirely without valuable aspects. The financial stress led to careful consideration of school costs and a more advantageous use of the money available. The political agitation brought careful inquiry into the kind of instruction given in the Government schools, and why it was unsatisfactory, and focused the attention of large groups of people, not previously interested, on the schools.

Between 1922-23 and 1923-24 the total number of pupils under instruction rose from 8.79 millions to 9.32 millions. A general attack was made upon illiteracy and for the education of the rural communities, the Departments of Agriculture, Public Health, and Cooperative Credit began the organization of lectures on matters

directly affecting the welfare of the people. Furthermore, and most of all, some headway was made against the Indian belief that women should not be educated, and the number of girls under instruction steadily increased.

Centralizing educational administration in Brazil.—While this decentralization of education was going on in India, a movement toward the strengthening of national control of some phases of education was taking place in Brazil, and several of the States in that country were reforming the departments of education in order to take over powers that had been invested in purely local authorities. Following a clause in the general appropriation act of 1925, which authorized the creation of a national department of public instruction, the President issued on January 13, 1925, Decree No. 16782-A, creating the "Departamento Nacional do Ensino."

The department, which is in reality a bureau in the Ministry of Justice and the Interior, is planned to function as the agency having very general control over the higher, secondary, professional, and artistic schools maintained wholly or in part by the Federal Government, to supervise the Federal subventions to rural primary schools in the States, and to carry on research in educational subjects. The former superior council of instruction was abolished and a National Council of Education of three sections established as a professional advisory body to assist the department.

The most important section of the decree provides for the Federal subventioning of rural schools in the States. By written agreement between the Federal and any State government, the former will pay the salaries of the instructors, and the latter will furnish them habitations and school buildings and equipment. The States agree not to reduce the number of schools already existing in their territory at the time of the making of the agreement.

In August, 1926, new minute regulations for the department of education of the State of Pernambuco were approved by the governor and published, and the following year Law No. 1342 authorized the placing of all schools formerly operated by the State or municipalities under one supervisory authority. Law No. 1018 of 1924 was passed in the State of Alagoas, to reorganize its entire educational system.

Creation of a central bureau in Bolivia.—In Bolivia, by decree of March 25, 1926, President Siles created a Central Bureau of Public Instruction, with an appropriation of 40,000 bolivianos to organize the teaching force; compile statistics of education; map out programs of curricular reforms; make out codes of rules and regulations of instruction; report on buildings, sites, and the general matériel of education; propose laws, budgets, etc., and encourage in general anything that will advance the educational state of the country.

Expansion of the ministry in Austria.—In Austria the Ministry of Education in 1925 took over from the Ministry for Social Welfare the kindergarten, physical training of juveniles, and school physician activities, and from the Ministry of Traffic and Commerce, those pertaining to the mining academy and the commercial academy, as well as those for the Austrian Museum for Art and Industry.

Administrative reforms in Italy.—The Ministry of Public Instruction in Italy was created by royal patent of November 30, 1847, and continued by the Casati law of November 13, 1859. It functioned under that law until 1923, when Minister Giovanni Gentile was given unconditional powers by the Chamber of Deputies and, through a series of royal decrees emanating from his office, reconstructed the entire educational system, both in structure and in aims and purposes. The ministry in its State administration was considered decentralized and simplified and its personnel reduced in number. Local administration by Provinces was replaced by administration by regions that correspond to essential differences in nature, population, dialects, and cultural needs. The inspection service was decreased in personnel and so changed as to place greater responsibility on school principals and educational directors. The financial organization was arranged to conform to the new structure of the school system. The strictly vocational secondary schools—agricultural, industrial, commercial, higher technical, etc.—were not affected by the reform of 1923, for they were under the Ministry of National Economy. The Fascist Council of November, 1927, indicated that these schools would soon be transferred to the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Lack of central control in Germany.—The constitution of the German Reich, promulgated in August, 1919, was an innovation in that it gave the Reichstag authority to fix, by way of legislation, a number of matters relating to education throughout the Republic. Thus far the Federal Government has been unable to take any great advantage of that constitutional authority. A law of 1920 provided for the four-year *grundschule* and abolished the former preparatory schools. By Easter of 1924 the public preparatory classes and schools had closed; the private preparatory schools had an extension to 1929. Later the law was modified to permit exceptional students to complete the four-year *grundschule* in three years.

A law for the protection of youth against indecent literature was passed by the Federal Diet in 1926. This is about all that the Federal Government had accomplished in the way of control of education.

British proposal for an Imperial Bureau of Education.—The Imperial Education Conference of 1923, held in London, considered the possibility of establishing an Imperial Bureau of Education, and, in connection therewith, the possibility of introducing greater uniformity in the compilation of educational statistics, but the conference expressed itself as feeling that—

for the present, an Imperial Bureau could only be looked upon as an ultimate ideal, and that it would be a considerable step in advance if Dominion bureaux could, in the first instance, be established by national groups or units of the Empire, such as Canada, Australia, and South Africa.

Summary.—The net result in 1926 is that 55 (not including Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, Monaco, and San Marino) of the 72 national entities into which the 1,820,000,000 of people are grouped for purposes of government have each a national ministry of education as a part of the executive branch of the government and coequal in status and authority with the ministries of state, commerce, war, internal affairs, or other divisions of the responsible administration.

PROVISION FOR EDUCATION

Appropriations for education made from national funds by the several central governments, as shown in the budgets proposed, estimated and actual, were in comparison with other years on a fairly high level, both in absolute amounts and in their relation to the total expenditures for all governmental purposes. In Europe this was especially remarkable since the financial stability hoped for after the signing of the treaties in 1919 was retarded by interest charges on the great public debts, by the cost of reclaiming devastated areas, by the expense of treatment and pensions for the disabled, and by the fact that there was general national poverty from which to collect the revenues necessary for these purposes. Budget practices generally went through three phases corresponding to a period of inflation of currency, its deflation, and the eventual restoration of normal fiscal methods. Those countries that put their finances on a sound basis, balanced their budgets, and stabilized their currencies or brought them again to par, were forced either by their own governments or by outside agencies to pursue policies of the strictest economy. In some countries the different departments of government were conducted on strict monthly allowances. The newly formed States were, of course, faced with the necessity of establishing an entire financial system. Even in these circumstances, education and other human welfare activities were supported generously.

Great Britain.—Shortly after the war closed Great Britain began a conservative policy of currency stabilization and reduction in taxation and in the national debt. The budget was reduced from one billion pounds in 1921-22 to eight hundred million in 1924-25, but high levels of expenditure for social service were maintained. A total of £338,319,000 was used for health insurance, unemployment insurance, war pensions, old-age pensions, education, public health, etc., in 1923; and in 1925 heavy additional obligations in the way of pensions for widows and orphans and old-age pensions were assumed. Comparisons between the 1913-14 and 1924-25 budgets are, respectively:

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Education, science, and art, 19 millions and 49 millions of pounds; old-age pensions, 12 millions and 26 millions; health, 6 millions and 19 millions; and for the Ministry of Labor, 8 hundred thousand pounds as compared with 14 millions.

The estimates of the board of education for England and Wales for the year 1924-25 amounted to £41,900,000, as compared with £41,934,047 for 1923-24. The estimate of 1924-25 assumed that local authorities would provide and expend £58,250,000 on elementary education and £12,060,000 on higher education. The estimate for 1925-26 amounted to £40,832,754, based on assumed local expenditures of £58,250,000 and £12,000,000. The decreases in the estimates are due to the gradual termination of the training of ex-service men and a continued fall in the number of children in attendance at elementary schools owing to the decline in the birth rate.

Early in 1925 the board of education asked the local authorities to arrange comprehensive programs for educational development that would follow well-considered plans and cover a definite period of at least three years, beginning on April 1, 1927. At the outset of the year 1926 a severe burden was thrown on national finances in connection with the coal strike and the later stoppage in industry. An interim program of expenditure was taken up which would insure the continuance of the proposed programs but at a somewhat slower rate.

Belgium.—The Ministry of Science and Arts of Belgium reports that the communes, Provinces, and the National Government expended for primary education in 1922 a total of 318,831,431 francs, and in 1923 the increased amount of 348,654,990 francs. The expenditures for normal training for the years 1923, 1924, and 1925 were respectively 26,212,100, 25,471,510, and 24,439,100 francs. The reductions in this branch of education were due to the lesser amounts that were necessary to replace buildings, equipment, etc. Teachers' salaries, current expenses, and sums given for scholarships increased annually. The subsidies given to schools of secondary education were as follows: 33,541,525 francs for 1923; 36,146,145 for 1924; and 39,498,708 for 1925.¹

The part which the appropriations for education played in the national budgets is shown in the following tables, in which are given the five items: The year; the appropriation for the ministry of education; the percentage which that appropriation was of the entire budget; the rate of exchange of the foreign coin in terms of exchange in the coinage of the United States; and the value of the foreign coin when at par. The countries are grouped in three divisions—European, far eastern, and Latin American.

¹The Belgian franc is at par at \$0.193. The average exchange rate for 1924 was \$0.0464; for 1925 it was \$0.0475.

The reader must understand that the amount set apart for the ministry of education does not by any means represent the total which any of the countries listed expends for educational purposes. In nearly all countries, other ministries, especially those concerned with national defense, agriculture, and commerce, have control of many schools of special types and expend large sums of money on them, but those amounts are not ordinarily segregated in the budgets and even approximate data for them are not available. Moreover, the moneys raised and used by the subsidiary governmental units such as States, Provinces, communes, etc., as well as those spent by purely private agencies, are not here considered. In Sweden the nation pays roughly three-fifths of the cost of elementary and three-fourths of the cost of public secondary education. Private schools maintaining state standards receive from one-third to three-fifths of their income from the nation. National aid in Norway is about one-third the total school expenditure; in Denmark it is somewhat less than one-half. The proportion which the National Government bears of the expense of education varies greatly in the different countries, and the relationship of national aid to local effort is so complicated and irregular that few writers attempt anything more than a very superficial discussion of it.

The older European countries.—Nevertheless the figures quoted² are very significant of the attitudes of the various peoples toward public education. In actual amount of money appropriated, those countries that use national funds for education usually give it from first to fourth place in a budget of 10 or more items. The older countries of Europe are generally setting apart the greatest sums for debt service and national defense and education comes third in the list. But in the Netherlands the largest single item in the budget is for education; in Norway it is second, after debt service; in Sweden, second after defense. In France, Italy, Denmark, and Hungary, education is third; in Bulgaria it is fourth. The figures given for the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics are listed in the budget under the head of "cultural and social needs" and not under that of any one ministry.

The younger nations of Europe.—The newly created national entities of Europe are having to spend freely for development work, such as building roads and railroads, and establishing means of rapid communication. Most of these activities are centered in a ministry of communications. Education in these countries usually holds fourth place in the budget; communications, debt service, and defense are given the larger amounts.³

² See Table 1, p. 14.

³ See Table 2, p. 19.

TABLE 1.—Appropriations for education in the national budgets of older European countries

Country and year	Appropriations for Ministry of Public Instruction	Per cent of total budget	Rate of exchange	Par value
Netherlands:				
1923	<i>Florins</i> 152,029,812	18.8		\$0.402
1924	156,921,036	20.5	80.3735	
1925	141,502,000	20.6	Par.	
1926	140,559,000	22.0	Par.	
Denmark:				
1923-24	<i>Crowns</i> 70,800,000	19.05		368
1924-25	67,200,000	18.7	1694	
1925-26	72,187,126	19.7	2113	
1926-27	75,803,540	20.5		
Sweden:				
1923-24	122,116,500	24.4	2618	268
1924-25	119,757,000	24.4	2618	
1925-26	129,588,000	20.8	Par.	
1926-27	123,963,000	19.8	Par.	
Norway:				
1926-27	<i>Paper crowns</i> 61,831,260	17.0	1977	268
France:				
1923	<i>Paper francs</i> 1,587,000,000	4.3	0608	193
1924			0524	
1925	1,730,000,000	5.2	0477	
1926	1,755,000,000	4.8		
Spain:				
1923-24	<i>Paper pesetas</i> 167,304,000	5.4	1275	103
1924-25	177,652,000	5.3	1391	
1925-26	178,396,000	5.8	1435	
Italy:				
1923-24	<i>Paper lire</i> 860,488,000	4.7	0434	193
1924-25	1,207,600,000	5.9	42	
1925-26	1,154,100,000	6.7	039	
Hungary:				
1924-25	<i>Gold crowns</i> ¹ 69,300,000	19.5		3028
1925-26	84,000,000	19.7		
Rumania:				
1925	<i>Paper lei</i> 2,130,780,000	7.9	005	1929
1926	2,643,114,000	11.1	00485	
Bulgaria:				
1925	<i>Paper leva</i> 747,271,500	11.3	007281	193
1926	680,190,000	10.0	007317	
Union of Socialist Soviet Republics:				
1923-24	<i>Cherwonets</i> 118,762,000	5.6		
1924-25	<i>Rubles</i> 167,543,000	5.9		5146
1925-26	247,600,000	6.2		

¹ Estimated. ² Proposed. ³ Not published. ⁴ After Jan. 1, 1927, pengos, gold. ⁵ Promulgated.

*The far-eastern countries.*⁴—These countries are all conservative in estimating revenues, and large budget deficits seldom occur. With the exception of Japan, between 80 and 90 per cent of the people are in agriculture, and the postwar depression reduced their revenues because of lack of markets. They use a silver standard coinage, and the fall in 1921 in the gold value of silver also reduced their revenues. Currency inflation is unknown.

⁴ See Table 3, p. 20.

TABLE 2.—Appropriations for education in the national budgets of younger European countries

Country and year	Appropriations for Ministry of Public Instruction	Per cent of total budget	Rate of exchange	Par value
Finland:				
1925 ¹	<i>Paper marks</i> 375,800,000	11.2	\$0.0252	\$0.193
1926 ¹	378,700,000	11.1		
Estonia:				
1925	600,378,600	8.1	.00255	
1926	608,799,400	7.9	.002676	.00268
Latvia:				
1924-25	<i>Lats</i> 11,636,666	8.5		.193
1925-26 ¹	15,349,426	14.5		
1926-27 ¹	16,947,849	13.5		
Lithuania:				
1924	<i>Lita</i> 24,537,600	10.9		
1925	30,829,800	12.1		.104
1926 ¹	31,380,100	12.9		
Poland:				
1924	<i>Zlotys</i> 234,977,000	15.1	.192	
1925	309,120,000	16.0	.177	.193
1926 ¹	270,000,000	15.9	.178	
Czechoslovakia:				
1924	<i>Paper crowns</i> 845,922,000	4.9	.0295	.2026
1925 ¹	890,850,000	5.6	.0297	
1926 ¹	750,450,000	7.5	.0297	
Yugoslavia:				
1924-25	<i>Paper dinars</i> 753,500,000	6.4	.01282	.1929
1925-26	749,600,000	6.3	.01705	

¹ Estimated.

¹ Proposed.

The fiscal policy of Japan for 1924 to 1926 was based on the needs of a country not yet recovered from the disastrous earthquake of September 1, 1923. In the allocation of loans made in 1924 for the revival of enterprises, out of 523,204,000 yen the total set apart for education was 73,591,000 yen or 14 per cent.

Samoa and French Oceania were badly damaged by severe storms in January, 1926, and reconstruction work called for large expenditures.

No estimates can be given of the funds spent for education in China. None of the many units of currency is on a stable basis, and the central government is not strong enough to levy or collect taxes or stabilize the currency.

Although the budgets of Siam began to show deficits in 1923, the program of extending compulsory education that was begun under a law passed that year has been carried forward steadily. The Government grants to education for the years 1922-23, 1923-24, and 1924-25 were, respectively, 1,355,953, 1,421,433, and 1,390,319 ticals. The appropriation for 1923-24 was 41 per cent of the total expenditure for education; in 1924-25 it was 34.97 per cent. (The rate of exchange for the tical at par is \$0.3709. It fluctuated between \$0.38 and \$0.44 in 1924 to 1927.)

The budget total of the Federated Malay States for 1924 was £6,318,811, of which £398,080 were for medical relief and £210,155

for education. In addition to the amounts allocated to education, as shown in the table for the Straits Settlements, the appropriations in Straits dollars for health were 2,475,181 in 1925 (4.3 per cent of the budget); 3,425,556 in 1926 (3.7 per cent); and 3,560,360 in 1927 (8.9 per cent).

About 40 per cent of the expenditures of New Zealand are for debt service. The other items are chiefly the working expenses of the postal and telegraph systems and the expenses of the different departments of the Government. With the exception of debt service and the expenses of the postal and telegraph, the department of education spends as much as all the other departments combined. The Government undertakes the whole responsibility for financing public education:

TABLE 3.—Appropriations for education in the national budgets of far-eastern countries

Country and year	Appropriations for Ministry of Public Instruction	Per cent of total Budget	Rate of exchange	Par value
Japan:				
	<i>Yen</i>			
1922-23.....	37,056,724	3.8		
1923-24.....	71,123,305	7.1	\$0.4126	\$0.4985
1924-25.....	74,038,748	6.8		
1925-26.....	79,751,638	7.8		
1926-27.....	103,752,440			
Netherland East Indies:				
	<i>Florins</i>			
1924.....	37,030,000	5.5	.3787	.4020
1925.....	39,734,000	5.8		
1926.....	42,193,000	5.6		
Straits Settlements:				
	<i>Straits dollars</i>			
1925.....	1,140,195	1.9	.5616	.5678
1926.....	1,236,355	3.1	.5627	
1927.....	1,508,512	3.7		
New Zealand:				
	<i>Pounds</i>			
1922-23.....	2,581,601	9.8	(*)	4.8665
1923-24.....	2,604,508	9.9		
1924-25.....	2,777,271	10.1		
1925-26.....	2,879,719	12.2		

* Estimated.

* The current rate is usually above that for the English pound sterling.

The cost of education in the Commonwealth of Australia is borne by the separate States. They make large contributions to medical and charitable activities also. The appropriations for 1924-25 were as follows:

TABLE 4.—Appropriations for education in Australia

State	Education	Per cent of total budget	Medical and charitable	Per cent of total budget
New South Wales.....	£3,829,189	9.68	£1,871,371	4.75
Victoria.....	2,238,346	9.26	1,136,190	4.70
Queensland.....	1,410,085	9.48	795,418	5.34
South Australia.....	717,086	7.41	435,855	4.50
West Australia.....	613,165	7.26	440,004	5.21
Tasmania.....	285,067	10.65	175,276	8.56
Total.....	9,092,858	9.15	4,854,144	4.88

The Latin-American countries.—The South American republics are generally under the necessity of making large expenditures to develop their natural resources, and these expenditures, often calling for bond issues, materially increase the annual appropriations for debt service.

The National Government of Argentina supports the five universities and all public secondary education. It aids elementary education in each Province that devotes at least 10 per cent of its income to elementary schools. It also establishes national elementary schools in remote districts of the Provinces. The communes of Bolivia are expected to provide primary education (six years) but the National Government gives considerable subsidies for that purpose. The cost of primary education in Colombia, except for the Indian missions and the national territories, falls upon the Departments and the municipalities. Except for private schools, the entire cost of education in both Chile and Uruguay is borne by the nation.

To the department of justice and education in Argentina is appropriated the second largest amount (debt service is first) in a budget of 12 items. Public instruction is commonly second in the amount of funds allocated to the different departments of the National Government of Chile. Public instruction and welfare are second also in Ecuador; war and marine is first. Debt service and war and marine are first and second in Uruguay, with education as the third largest item in the budget. The appropriation for the Ministry of Justice and Education is usually third largest in amount in the budget of Peru. In Paraguay, Bolivia, Colombia, and Venezuela the allocations to public education rank fifth or sixth in items of national expenditure.

TABLE 5.—Appropriations for education in the national budgets of Latin-American countries

Year	Appropriations for Ministry of Public Instruction	Per cent of total budget	Rate of exchange	Par value
Argentina:				
<i>Paper pesos</i>				
1923	96,413,566	16.3	\$0.3458	\$0.4232
1926	135,321,710	20.0	.4055	
Province of Buenos Aires, Argentina:				
1924	107,402,500	23.5		
1925	108,455,600	23.5		
1926	120,110,300	22.1		
Bolivia				
<i>Bolivianos</i>				
1923	3,243,195	9.14	.3112	.3503
1924	3,665,353	8.8	.3099	
1926	4,511,305	9.3	.3333	
Chile:				
<i>Paper pesos</i>				
1925	85,729,295	11.9	.116	.1217
1926	140,663,638	14.6		
1927	141,387,606	14.2		
Colombia:				
<i>Pesos</i>				
1923	1,108,100	3.6	.96	.9733
1924	2,234,672	6.9		
1925	2,640,580	6.2		
1926	3,530,896	8.1		
1927	4,217,967	9.3		

TABLE 5.—Appropriations for education in the national budgets of Latin-American countries—Continued.

Year	Appropriations for Ministry of Public Instructions	Pec cent of total budget	Rate of exchange	Par value
Ecuador				
<i>Sucres</i>				
1919-1924	3,797,700	18.9	80.25	60,4887
1925	4,139,522	11.5		
1926	6,708,062	16.4		
Paraguay				
<i>Paper pesos</i>				
1925-26	38,801,449	17.04	.02	.02
1926-27	44,336,948	17.05		
Peru				
<i>Libras</i>				
1923	1,058,035	14.4	1.01	4,8063
1924	1,120,919	13.1		
1925	1,260,854	13.7		
1926	1,550,432	14.8		
Uruguay				
<i>Pesos</i>				
1923-23	5,967,000	15.04	7906	1,0342
1924-25	6,525,000	14.04	8227	
Venezuela				
<i>Bobros</i>				
1923-25	4,575,029	6.3	1887	193
1925-24	4,678,438	5.4		
1924-25	4,820,246	4.1		
1925-26	5,397,478	3.3		

* Estimated.

ILLITERACY

General data.—The national censuses taken during and about 1920 revealed several startling things about the status of illiteracy in the world taken as a whole. First, statistics of either literacy or illiteracy are not available for many countries. Second, for those countries in which such data are gathered the definitions of what constitutes illiteracy are so varied that the figures are only partially comparable if at all. Finally, the percentage of people who can neither read nor write is probably much greater than is generally supposed, while those who can not effectively use these instruments of acquiring and transmitting knowledge make up a much higher per cent.

Unusual attempts to reduce illiteracy were made immediately following the war and were continued through the years under consideration. If any great reduction is to be made for the entire world, it must take place in those countries where the percentage of illiteracy is highest. In China, India, the Soviet Union, and the Orient in general the authorities have awakened to the dangers of illiteracy, and for several years have been making efforts to extend at least the rudiments of education to the entire population.

India.—The Undersecretary of State for India, in his "Statement exhibiting the moral and material progress of India during the year 1924-25," reports that:

Almost every Province is displaying great activity; and it is a testimony to the clear vision of those who now direct instructional policy that in most places attention is being directed to a concerted attack upon illiteracy.

Not all of the provinces have compulsory education laws. Bombay led the way with a bill in 1918; Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, and the United Provinces followed in 1919. Government measures were passed for the Punjab in 1919, the Central Provinces and Madras in 1920, and later for Assam. The introduction of the compulsory principle is hampered by financial stringency and native prejudice, but the timidity of the authorities is disappearing and compulsion is being introduced, especially in the municipal areas. The secretary further reports:

In connection with the general attack upon illiteracy, it must be noticed that until recently the authorities confined themselves primarily to those sections of the population which are of school-going age.

* * * But it is now realized by many local governments that a very large part of the education now needed in India is adult education; and particularly adult education of a kind which will supply the new electorates with some guidance in the use of the suffrage which constitutional reforms have placed in their hands. So far as the town population is concerned, there is a great scope for the university extension movement. But the main problem attending adult education is that of reaching the country districts. * * * In the Punjab, in Madras, and in Bombay, the night-school movement is now very promising. At small cost to the administration, school buildings and school-teachers are utilized, after school hours, for the instruction of adults. The future implications of this line of progress are very important. If once the cultivating classes can be convinced that education is of practical advantage to them, many of the problems of India will be solved. Such an attitude will change the face of the problem now presented by Indian illiteracy; for it becomes plainer and plainer that until the desire for universal primary education is sufficiently intense among the people themselves to induce them to put forward the effort necessary for its encouragement, illiteracy can not be eradicated.

The Union of Soviet Republics.—The work of stamping out illiteracy in the Union of Soviet Republics is reported in the 'Commercial Handbook of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, for 1927, as follows:

TABLE 6.—*Illiteracy in Russia*

Establishments)	School year, 1924-25		School year, 1925-26	
	Number	Attendance	Number	Attendance
Schools for semiliterates and illiterates.....	42,004	2,180,000	49,804	1,502,755
General educational establishments for adults.....	505	(1)	511	68,325
Party schools.....	201	21,533	259	29,780
Civic schools and courses.....	1,383	47,482	6,431	205,547
Reading cabins.....	19,650	24,636
Peoples' houses.....	(1)	1,756
Clubs.....	5,750	5,586
Libraries.....	11,425	19,304
Total.....	80,918	2,219,015	108,187	1,903,416

(1) No data.

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China.—The first great step toward the eradication of illiteracy in China was made during the literary revolution of 1917-1919, when the much less intricate spoken language, Pei-hua, was substituted as a literary medium for the old, very difficult classical language. The adoption of Pei-hua immensely simplified the process of learning the written language, and made it more nearly possible to give some instruction in reading and writing to the 200,000,000 adolescents and adults that had passed the school age and had been denied the opportunity for schooling. By careful study 1,000 of the most frequently used characters in Pei-hua were selected and arranged in a "foundation character course," a mastery of which gives the common man a foundation knowledge of the language and enables him to write simple letters, keep accounts, and read Pei-hua literature intelligently. The average time necessary to complete the course is 96 hours.

After two years of experimentation with the foundation characters a National Association of the Mass Education Movement was organized in Peking in August, 1923, and in the two following years 32 city self-supporting mass education associations sprang up in strategic municipal centers. The work was extended also to the army and to rural areas. The movement is one that appeals to the people, and in which they take an active part. At present it is being used by political parties to further their immediate purposes, but the inevitable result will be a much wider demand for and appreciation of education by the Chinese nation as a whole. It is remarkable in that it is the first organized attempt ever made on a large scale to educate the masses of Chinese, and that it includes the making of a new literature in a language not heretofore considered to be a literary medium.

Mexico.—An important factor in the reduction of illiteracy is the better attitude toward the indigenous peoples and the recent attempts through education to incorporate them into the national life of the country. The Secretariat of Public Education in Mexico, reestablished by a decree published on September 29, 1921, is making this an important part of the educational reforms upon which it entered about 1922.

In order to reach the native Indians, a special department for rural schools and indigenous culture was created in the secretariat. Its chief activity is the establishment of rural schools and cultural missions, both maintained by national funds, throughout the States and by means of these agencies to give the natives the rudiments of reading, writing, and mathematics, to instill in them a pride of race and language, teach them to live better and more hygienically, and in general raise their cultural level as much as possible. Statistically the head of the department reports progress in these rural schools as follows:

TABLE 7.—Statistics of the rural schools

Year	Schools	Teachers	Inspectors	Pupils	Expenditures
1924	1,044	1,105	47	76,078	\$1,540,128
1925	1,926	2,388	65	126,850	1,850,860
1926	2,633	3,000	85	183,861	2,617,030
1927	2,952	3,433	98	206,363	3,001,690

Of the pupils enrolled in 1927, 47,474 were adults.

Cultural missions were in operation in 11 States. Each mission consists of a chief who is in charge of the educational work and of the classes in school organization and administration; a teacher of physical education through gymnastics and games; a teacher of agriculture and animal husbandry; a teacher of minor industries; and a social worker to whom are intrusted the courses in foods, hygiene, child care, and the responsibility of organizing the community so that it may solve its own problems of social character.

Even the school children are helping to combat illiteracy. In the last three years of primary education, each pupil is expected to teach some illiterate child to read and write.

Other Latin-American countries.—No other Latin-American nation is carrying on a program of education, including the reduction of illiteracy, so intensive and extensive as that in Mexico, but most of them increased considerably the amount and kind of instruction offered. For example, the president of the State of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, reported in September, 1925, that the average daily attendance in primary schools was 155,849, as compared with 140,884 on April 30, 1924. There was a notable increase in the number of adults that were learning to read and write through attendance at night schools. The State railways were organizing schools of a kind, novel in southern Brazil, that gave instruction not only in the fundamentals of general education but in various technical subjects.

PRIMARY AND ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The lowered birth rate in Europe.—About 1924 the decrease in the number of births in the years 1915 to 1918, especially in the European countries, began to show in enrollments in primary and elementary schools, and most pronouncedly in the national entities with good school systems that were caring for a high percentage of the population of school age. The loss was less evident in the countries that were just building up their school systems. There the statistics indicated increased enrollments as a result of better school facilities, and to a considerable extent concealed the fact that the number of children was much smaller.

The number of births in the European countries decreased very rapidly from the years 1914 to about 1918; then increased for one

or two years; and about 1922 and 1923 began again to fall off. This later reduction seems to be fairly general and is still continuing. These changes were most marked, of course, in the countries involved in the war, but they took place also in many of the noncombatant countries and were reflected slightly even in Latin America. Table 8 shows the number of live births in a few of the European countries for the war and postwar years:

TABLE 8.—Number of live births in a few European countries for war and postwar years

Country	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1922	1923
Germany.....	1,342,546	1,029,484	912,109	926,813	1,260,500	1,404,215	1,297,449
Austria.....	118,764	93,597	87,385	87,775	110,822	141,621	145,885
Belgium.....	124,291	99,360	86,675	85,056	123,314	153,611	155,474
Bulgaria.....		99,188	79,241	98,698	156,929		
Denmark.....		71,559	70,306	72,505	68,722	73,899	74,826
France ¹	396,966	313,013	342,454	399,456	403,479		
England and Wales.....	814,614	785,520	668,346	662,661	692,438	780,124	758,131
Scotland.....		109,942	97,441	98,554		106,268	111,902
Italy.....	640,979	429,322			374,686	549,744	540,380

¹ 70 departments, in which the number of births in 1913 was 604,811.

Decreases in enrollment.—The elementary primary schools (écoles primaires élémentaires) of France enrolled 4,210,000 children in 1922-23; 3,973,000 in 1923-24; and 3,828,000 in 1924-25. For about the same period the average number on the registers for England and Wales were:

TABLE 9.—Average number on the registers

Year	England	Wales
1921-22.....	5,409,701	460,901
1922-23.....	5,296,513	462,880
1923-24.....	5,209,637	460,415
1924-25.....	5,137,325	460,490

The primary school enrollment in Belgium was 910,757 in 1922 and 805,380 in 1924. The total of pupils under primary instruction in Finland was 327,367 in 1922-23; 326,408 in 1923-24; 330,712 in 1924-25; and 330,134 in 1925-26. Primary education in Poland enrolled 3,283,901 pupils in 1923-24; 3,259,500 in both 1924-25 and 1925-26; and 3,365,235 in 1926-27.

The falling off in two years of 372,000 enrolled children—about 10 per cent of the total—in the primary schools of France, that in three years of 281,000 in England and Wales, and that of 105,000 in two years in Belgium are among the heaviest suffered by any countries, but in most of Europe and in parts of Asia something similar was occurring. The gains shown for Finland and Poland are due in the main to better school facilities and the enrollment of a higher percentage of the children of school age. The birth rates were decreasing in both countries.

These losses were accompanied, probably very naturally, by general movements for greater care and conservation of human wealth that manifested themselves in better measures of protection for women and children; extension of education downward through the kindergarten and nursery schools and upward and outward through various kinds of better postprimary education; increases or proposed increases in the number of years of compulsory school attendance; provision for better opportunities for gifted children; attempts of various kinds to make the schools more immediately responsive to the life needs of the children (the "activity school" methods of instruction); and far-reaching efforts to reduce illiteracy among adults.

Protection of women and children.—Provision for the protection of women and children, including the care of exnuptial children and the prohibition of child labor, were written into the constitutions of most of the newly created nations and of those that changed to republican forms of government. The varieties of means taken to carry out the spirit of these provisions not only in the countries where they are a part of the constitutional law but in many others are innumerable. As a single example the report from India for 1925-26 in regard to infant-welfare work may be summarized.

India as an example.—It is calculated that 1 in 6, or even 1 in 5, of the children born in India perishes in the first year of life, and that about 2,000,000 Indian babies die annually. Lady Chelmsford initiated an All-India Maternity and Infant Welfare League; Lady Reading later took up the work and initiated national baby week. The exhibitions, lectures, and baby shows which take place annually in all the larger centers of the country have roused public interest to an unusual degree. The demand for leaflets, pamphlets, model lectures, cinematograph films, and lantern slides is growing rapidly. Various benevolent institutions have entered the campaign with enthusiasm. The movement is not confined to British India, but is being taken up by the Indian States. The report of the director of public information for India for 1925-26 continues:

Nothing is more significant than the comments of Indian newspapers of all communities and of all shades of political opinion on the subject of the baby week. Sentiment is unanimous and generous, and it is a great relief, after the asperities of political discussion in India, to read these comments in which there is no jarring note but only a wholehearted and grateful recognition of the fact that her excellency's labors in India must inevitably cause a permanent betterment of the lot of millions of Indian women and children.

Preschool activities in France, England, and Italy.—As to schools for children below the usual age for admission, 6 years, 3,746 lay and congreganiste (directed by a religious organization) public and private maternal schools in France enrolled 315,632 children between the ages of 2 and 6 in 1923-24; and in 1924-25 there were 3,736 such schools enrolling 366,797 children.

The proposal of the board of education in England to reduce the Government grant to each local authority by the amount credited to the children under 5 years of age that were in school roused strong opposition, especially in industrial areas. It was not put into effect. The number of such children increased from 165,684 in 1923 to 211,348 in 1924, and to 221,800 in 1925.

In the educational reform in Italy in 1923 for the first time in the history of Italian education, kindergarten instruction became an essential part of the elementary school course. Better adjustment between the kindergarten and the primary school was made through a unified primary-kindergarten curriculum. By Royal decree of December 31, 1923, methods schools offering a three-year course for the preparation of kindergarten teachers were authorized, and 5,000,000 lire were granted to a fund to be raised for the support and maintenance of kindergartens and to promote the spread of these schools. In February, 1926, the Societa Umanitaria of Milan was authorized to conduct a course for the preparation of teachers of kindergartens and primary schools. The course is under the personal supervision of Dr. Maria Montessori.

Better compulsory attendance laws and regulations.—Increases or proposed increases in the number of years of compulsory school attendance, as well as efforts toward better enforcement of the compulsory school laws, were common. Compulsory education has been and is one of the most difficult of school problems, because it is closely interwoven with the economic status of the country and its ability to provide suitable school accommodations for all children of school attendance age; the important question of the kind of education to be given in the early years of adolescence (the ages of about 12 to 15); child labor; compulsory part-time schools for young people in the industries; the extent to which private instruction will be accepted in lieu of instruction in public schools; and in some countries with strong opposition to the education of girls and of certain social classes.

In England, since July 1, 1922, all exemptions from school attendance up to the age of 14 have ceased, and all children whose fourteenth birthday falls within the school term must remain at school to the end of that term. Local authorities may by law require children to attend up to the age of 15. The consultative committee that reported on the education of the adolescent recommended that legislation be passed fixing the age at 15 for all of England and Wales and that the law become effective at the beginning of the school year 1932.

The education act of Scotland of 1918 empowered the department to appoint a day at which full-time attendance at school should be compulsory to the age of 15. That step has not yet been taken but

arrangements for additional school accommodation and changes in the organization of the different stages of instruction are being put into effect with a view to carrying out the authority given in the law.

The primary public-school law of Estonia made attendance for all children obligatory from the ages of 7 to 16, inclusive; but economic considerations did not permit putting this into full effect, and the obligatory principle was applied by the Government only to the ages of 9 to 14, with permission to the municipalities to extend it to the full legal limits if conditions warrant it. For the year 1924-25 the towns succeeded in compelling all children over 8 years of age to attend school. The districts succeeded only partially. The final date when the compulsory school law must be introduced in its complete form is set at January 1, 1930.

In France changes in the requirement for the certificate of elementary studies (Certificat d' Etudes Primaires Elémentaires) had the effect of holding many children in the elementary schools until past the age of 12. They had formerly been allowed in considerable numbers to leave the schools when they were 11 years of age. The situation is still admittedly unsatisfactory, and attempts are being made to rouse popular opinion in favor of better attendance regulations.

The attendance law passed by the Parliament of the Irish Free State in 1926 lengthened the school term, raised the leaving age to 14 years, and gave the Minister of Education power to extend the leaving age to 16 in any communities where he deemed it expedient.

Compulsory education (for boys only) in the Bombay Presidency, India, made permissive by the act of 1918, was introduced in five rural municipalities in the five years following, and in 1925 the Bombay municipality introduced it in the F and G wards for both boys and girls, excepting Moslem girls. In 1926 the average number for the five bodies excluding Bombay city, was 113 pupils per thousand of population, an increase of 43 per thousand over the attendance prior to the introduction of compulsion.

The Education Department of Burma, in its seventh quinquennial report, notes that:

In England the law of 1870, which made the provision of accommodation obligatory, preceded by six years the introduction of universal compulsory education. In India this wise precaution has not been taken, hence the various schemes are mostly "in the air." Expense is of course the chief difficulty, and one Indian municipality which attempted to work a scheme of compulsory education points out that this has increased the cost of education by 350 per cent. * * * As Sir George Anderson paradoxically remarks: "Compulsion in India can only be effective if it is voluntary, and in the Punjab it is the villages that apply for compulsion and not the local body that enforces compulsion on an unwilling people."

Changes from the "learning" to the "activity" school.—A very general sentiment prevailed that school children spend far too much

of their time in memorizing the contents of books; that school life has too little relation to life out of school; that the child is a passive learner of things in which he has little interest; and that the constant direction and authority of the teacher take away from the pupil his opportunity to develop self-reliance and initiative. These conditions led to many attempts to develop a kind of school, commonly called the "activity" school, in which the interests and aptitudes of each child are taken more into account. In this type of school much of the teaching centers in the actual life of the community; the children are actively engaged in making or doing things for which they have an immediate purpose; the teacher is an adviser rather than a disciplinarian; and the children may have a voice in the management of the school. The work school, now common in the Soviet Union, is an attempt at the extreme of practical training. The pupils have an unusual amount of freedom and control most of the activities of the school. No scale of grading is used other than "satisfactory" and "unsatisfactory," and the certificate states that the pupil has "studied and learned to apply" the subjects named in it. In other countries the response against the formal school was less pronounced, and in some of them it amounted only to slight modifications in the subjects taught and in the methods of teaching them.

Two decrees of February, 1923, in France made considerable changes in the elementary school curriculum, with the purpose of eliminating, as much as possible, purely memory work and verbal knowledge and making the course more practical and concrete from the beginning. Moreover, the uniformity of studies for all elementary schools was relieved and opportunity was given for specialization according to the probable future occupations of a majority of the pupils of the locality. The certificate of elementary primary studies, which formerly could be obtained by pupils at the age of 11 who passed a single written and oral examination, is now granted only to those who have passed their twelfth birthday on July 1 of the year in which they present themselves for the examination. The examination is itself made more difficult and the grading is less lenient.

The programs of the public primary schools in Poland, which were drafted in detail and published in 1920 and 1921, raise the level of instruction much higher than it was in the former annexates; introduce the principle of independent work of the pupils; and give due place to artistic-technical study.

In Italy under the reform of 1923 local educational authorities are given opportunity to adapt the schools to the requirements of the neighborhood and the teacher has a large amount of freedom in working out the program of the school. The schemes of study issued

by the ministry are intended merely as guides. In the language of former Minister Gentile they—

forbid the commonplace platitudes which have so long dulled children's education, and demand pure genuine poetry; sincere searching for truth; energetic investigation of the popular spirit; restless and never satisfied, asking always the reason why; the rapture of contemplating pictures resplendent with art and life; the communion of great souls that speak through the mouth of the teacher.

The curricula of the elementary schools in England are set out by the board of education only on very broad lines, and local authorities and teachers have much freedom in the conduct of the schools. Practical work of some kind is increasing and becoming almost universal in the schools, and there is a general movement in the direction of individual work instead of formal class teaching for the pupils.

The chief inspector of primary schools in New Zealand, in 1926, reports—

Attention to the rights and needs of the individual child has brought us to realize the necessity for differentiation in primary education, as well as in secondary and technical education. * * * For many reasons a revision of the syllabus seems desirable. It could be enriched not only in the direction of utilizing more freely training in handwork, but also by giving a stronger bias towards the study of English literature and towards the more practical side of elementary mathematics. * * * More attention should be paid to good English literature in order that pupils before they leave the primary schools may be imbued with an appreciation of and a love for some of the finer work of our best authors. * * * We have already jettisoned a great deal of useless work in arithmetic, and I think there is still some lumber to be got rid of.

The reform of elementary education begun in Austria in 1919 was developed to such an extent that 375 demonstration classes were conducted throughout the country in 1925-26, by exceptionally able teachers, and these were supplemented by discussions carried on by the teachers' cooperative groups. The course of study is based on the principle of adaptation to the child. The former learning and book school is being replaced by a school in which each child is studied carefully, much instruction is given in the open through excursions, tours, visits to museums, workshops, and factories, and the child is led into extensive intellectual and physical self-activity.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The term "secondary education," in the narrow sense, has been limited in many countries somewhat rigidly to that kind of training given to young people—a comparatively small percentage of the whole—as preparation for further training in some institution of higher learning. On the Continent of Europe the secondary school has been and is typically a school to which children are admitted after private tutoring or a primary course of four years, and which gives them eight years of carefully organized training the completion

of which is marked by a certificate or diploma commonly accepted for admission to an institution of university rank. The gymnasium of Germany, Imperial Russia, Austria, Hungary, and Poland, the liceo-ginnasia of Italy, the lyc ee and the college of France, and the instituto of Spain were all of this kind. Few or no elective subjects were offered in them, but in the processes of educational development, elective lines of study or curricula from two to four or more in number were established, and there grew up, parallel to the classical training of the gymnasium, the real-gymnasium for training in modern languages, the realschule for training in science and mathematics, and other types designed to give more practical work and leading to later study in the technical schools of university rank. Not only did these different types of schools parallel each other, but in their lower years—for pupils from about 11 years of age to 13 or 14—they paralleled the schools of primary or elementary instruction that were giving instruction to the much larger group of children that would not continue in school after the last year of the compulsory attendance age had been passed.

To such a system of education, vertically divided as it was, there were the objections: First, that education followed a strict class division, and the intelligent child of poor parents could not hope to have the education which he was capable of profiting by and which the interests of the Nation required should be given him; second, the decision as to his later career had to be made by himself or his parents when he was still much too young for either him or them to know in what his chief aptitudes lay; third, having once decided and entered upon a certain type of secondary school course, the pupil could later transfer to another type only with great difficulty; fourth, the drawing off of the superior children from the primary and elementary schools at about the fourth or fifth year of school life tended to weaken the later years in the lower school in that the more progressive teachers would not care to work in them and the smaller body of less vigorous children would go slowly; fifth, such a system made little use of the large group of young people that, while perhaps not apt enough to go through a university, could nevertheless be trained to advantage for several years beyond the six or eight year elementary school; and sixth, the elementary instruction given was in the main impractical; the pupils were not prepared to be earners when they left the elementary schools.

Creation of "middle" schools.—One of the answers to these last three objections was the creation of a form of school sometimes termed a "middle school," intended for pupils from the ages of about 11 to 13 or 14, in which considerable latitude was allowed for adapting the course of study to needs of the locality in which the school was placed. In some cases—Denmark and Hungary, for instance—the

middle school corresponded to the first three or four years of the secondary school, and graduates from it could enter the later years of the secondary school, and, if successful there, proceed to higher instruction. In other instances, as, for example, the "central schools" of England and the "écoles primaires supérieures" of France, these institutions of middle-school grade did not lead into the secondary schools. Another solution of the problem of what to do with the children fitted for middle-school instruction lay in the creation of large numbers of lower grade technical and vocational schools often so far separated from the regular school system that they were attached to some ministry other than that of public instruction.

Postwar movements in secondary education, not entirely new but certainly given much stronger force by the changed political situation, were in the main: First, to make it more democratic in the sense of providing ways for capable children of poor parents to go through the secondary schools; second, to delay as much as possible the child's decision of his later career; third, to make the transition from one type of parallel course to another much easier; fourth, to incorporate the technical and vocational schools more closely into the general school system; and fifth, to raise the age of regular compulsory school attendance by one or two years and to require some kind of continuation schooling until about the age of 18. In short, secondary education is broadening immensely and coming to take on some features of the universality desired for primary education. Moreover, very special attention is being paid to the kind and amount of education that must be given during the years of early adolescence, from about 12 to 15 or 16.

Experiments in Austria.—The educators of Austria have approached the secondary school situation in a truly scientific way. The first stage of three years in a striking experiment conducted by the city educational council of Vienna, with the cooperation of the Federal Ministry of Education, was closed in July, 1926. In 1922-23, 6 general secondary schools, 3 for boys and 3 for girls, each school with 4 parallel classes, were opened in the buildings of the former *Bürgerschulen*. Normal trained teachers from the *Bürgerschulen*, and university trained teachers from the secondary schools (*gymnasia*, *realgymnasia*, etc.) were appointed in equal numbers. The same plan was applied to the principalships. The work was begun with 24 classes; in 1926 it was carried on with 93 classes, with a total of 1,460 boys and 1,480 girls.

The schools offer a four-year course. They admit pupils who have completed the four-year uniform foundation school (*grundschule*); who are about 10 years of age; and who are still subject to the compulsory education law. Pupils of average and higher grade ability are grouped in Track I; those with less than average ability are

grouped separately in Track II. The division is made not on an entrance examination, but on the general report from the foundation school. The groups are instructed in the same building by the same body of teachers, and have as far as possible a common school life of games, festivals, etc., and common instruction in such subjects as singing, manual work, and drawing.

Within Track I, in the subjects in which the uniform progress of the whole class is essential, such as mathematics, a minimum compulsory course and a more extended course are provided. Each is an organically developed unit arranged and rounded out according to its own principles. The special extended course does not require more hours than the minimum course, and all classes organized in the parallel divisions have the same time schedule. Every pupil may, with the approval of his teachers and parents, take up the extended in place of the compulsory course in all or only some of the subjects. From the second or third class on, pupils with ability in language may take Latin or a modern language. If they elect neither they must do additional work in the mother tongue.

These schools are closely articulated with the lower vocational schools to which pupils may go upon the completion of either Track I or Track II; with the higher vocational schools open to those who have completed Track I; and with the upper secondary schools open to pupils from Track I who have completed the extended courses and such supplementary subjects as the upper school may require.

The results of the experiment have been very favorable and more schools of this kind will probably be created. Many of the gymnasia, realgymnasia, and realschulen are trying out the new plan in the lower sections as an optional form of secondary school for selected pupils.

Middle schools in Prussia.—Middle schools, meaning in general schools that go higher than the elementary schools in their aims and requirements and are still not full secondary schools, became increasingly popular in Germany and especially in Prussia. The Prussian Minister of Cults and Instruction in March, 1925, granted recognition as fully equipped institutions to 13 such schools in the city of Magdeburg alone. In the regulations of June 1, 1925, for the middle schools of Prussia, the ministry states:

The development in the domains of trade, art, commerce and industry, agriculture and forestry requires a higher grade of the education of boys and girls for these branches of acquiring a living. In connection with it the need for proper preparation for many middle positions in the administrative service of the State and the communities as well as higher industry and commercial enterprises makes itself felt. The elementary public school even in its most developed form can satisfy these demands to a small extent only because of the various difficulties under which it has to work as a compulsory school. The higher schools, again, aim above all for the sciences, so that they also are unable to satisfy it in a sufficient manner.

From these conditions follows the need of a school arrangement that stands between the elementary school and the higher school which, without interfering with its duties as an institution of general education, enables its pupils also to satisfy the increased demands of later vocations of life. Such an educational institution is the middle school of six steps that follows the foundation school. The efficiency of this school arrangement has its ultimate foundation not merely in the increased maturity of the pupils by an attendance of two years more. The latter fall mainly in the time of youthful development and so their importance for the mental training, conduct, and strengthening of the pupils can not be over-estimated. With less crowding of the classes, richer equipment in means of instruction and domestic conditions, mostly more favorable for the work of the school, the effect on the increased time of instruction is essentially enhanced.

In addition to the extension of these lower secondary or "middle" schools, as a new kind of full secondary school the German *oberschule* was developed. It is differentiated from the gymnasium, the *realgymnasium*, and the *oberrealschule* in that its course is centered around German culture and two foreign languages, one of which may be Latin. Quite generally in Germany the real institutions for secondary education are gaining preponderance over the humanities institutions.

Besides this new kind of school as to content, the *oberschule*, an innovation has taken place in the form of the secondary institutions. Some of them are now six-class schools, known as *Aufbauschulen*, that accept pupils who have completed the seventh year of the elementary school and carry them to the certificate of maturity, admitting to the university in six years. They are especially helpful to the country children for they permit the child to remain with his parents until he is 13 or 14 years of age instead of taking him away from home at 10 or 11. They postpone by about three years the choice of a vocation and shorten for capable children the term of preparation for the university.

Reforms in France.—The reformation of secondary education in France, which was the subject of long debates in Parliament and of innumerable controversies in the pedagogical and professional press, excited great interest both in France and abroad.

The radical reforms initiated by Minister Berard were first applied in 1923-24. All the pupils in the secondary schools had to follow during the first four years the same studies, and these included Latin and the elements of the Greek language. At the beginning of the second class only could they choose between the classical section, including the obligatory study of Latin and the elective study of Greek, and the modern section. The science studies were the same for all pupils during the first six years of the courses.

The plan roused so much opposition that from October, 1924, classes 6 and 5 of the modern section were reestablished in the lycées and colleges, and the 1925 plan, like that of 1902, provided for the organization of a complete cycle of modern secondary studies parallel

to the classical studies and equal to it in duration, seven years. Nevertheless, the classical and modern sections are still much more unified than they were before the Berard reforms. In the course of the first six years of study from the sixth class to the first, inclusive, about two-thirds of the hours (13, 14, or 15) are common to the pupils of the classical section and of the modern section. They study by the same programs the French language and literature, history and geography, a modern language, drawing, and also (this is one of the essential characteristics of the new organization) mathematics, physics, and natural sciences. The pupils of the classical section study in addition Latin for 6 hours a week in the sixth and fifth classes, 5 hours in the fourth, and 4 hours in the third, second, and first. They take up also a study of Greek in the fourth, but they may give it up from the second and substitute a modern foreign literature and civilization. Their comrades in the modern section receive complementary training in French. They apply themselves to practical exercises in history and geography, a modern language, and natural sciences, and they take up at the beginning of the fourth class the study of a second modern language and at the beginning of a second class a modern foreign literature and civilization.

Not until the end of six years of study are the pupils required to select a vocation. Then they may by their own choice finish their secondary training in a class of philosophy or a class of mathematics. Even there the programs are the same for history and geography, modern languages, natural sciences, drawing, and for logic and morals. The differentiation is only in the amount of time devoted to philosophy, or to mathematics and science. The new programs tend to make the modern humanities equal to the classical humanities and to permit young people to acquire through them true literary and scientific culture at once wide and solid.

The report of the consultative committee in England.—A consultative committee was appointed by the board of education for England and Wales—

to consider and report upon the organization, objective, and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who will remain in full-time attendance at schools, other than secondary schools, up to the age of 15, regard being had on the one hand to the requirements of a good general education and the desirability of providing a reasonable variety of curriculum, so far as is practicable, for children of varying tastes and abilities, and on the other to the probable occupations of the pupils in commerce, industry, and agriculture.

And incidentally thereto, to advise as to the arrangements which should be made (a) for testing the attainments of the pupils at the end of their course; (b) for facilitating in suitable cases the transfer of individual pupils to secondary schools at an age above the normal age of admission.

The committee reported in 1926. The publication entitled "The Education of the Adolescent" is among the fine studies made of the problem of providing suitable education for the great number of

children who will acquire elementary training but who will not attend the regular secondary schools and prepare for the university.

Section 20 of the education act of 1921 provides that:

It shall be the duty of a local education authority so to exercise their powers under this part as to make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable provision by means of central schools, central or special classes, or otherwise—

1. For including in the curriculum of public elementary schools, at appropriate stages, practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children; and

2. For organizing in public elementary schools courses of advanced instruction for the older or more intelligent children in attendance at such schools, including children who stay at such schools beyond the age of 14.

The committee found that slightly more than 1,800,000 of the children over 11 years of age in the elementary schools were not receiving advanced instruction within the meaning of section 20; that there were 493,025 children, between 14 and 15 years of age, and 641,811 or 67.7 per cent, between 15 and 16, and 89.3 per cent of the corresponding age groups, who were not attending any full-time school represented in the official statistics, though some of them were attending schools outside of the public system of education. It estimated that approximately half the children between 14 and 15, and three-fourths of those between 15 and 16 are not receiving full-time education of any kind.

After having sketched the history and development of postprimary education in England and Wales and having reviewed the facts of the situation, the committee addressed itself to the questions of: The lines of advance; curricula for modern schools and senior classes; the place of "bias" in the curriculum of modern schools and senior classes; the staffing and equipment of, and the admission of children to, modern schools and senior classes; the lengthening of school life; a leaving examination; and administrative problems.

The 38 conclusions and recommendations, taken as a whole, form fundamental bases for a complete system of postprimary, middle school, junior high school, or superior primary (to use only four of the several terms applied to this stage of training) education and are of distinct value to educators in any country. Space does not permit reproducing all of them here. A few of the more important are given.

3. Primary education should be regarded as ending at about the age of 11 plus. A second stage should then begin, and this stage, which for many pupils would end at 16 plus, for some at 18 or 19, but for the majority at 14 plus or 15 plus, should, as far as possible, be regarded as a single whole, within which there will be a variety of types of education, but which will generally be controlled by the common aim of providing for the needs of children who are entering and passing through the stage of adolescence.

5. The schools which deal with the postprimary stage of education should include (in addition to junior technical and "trade" schools) the following types;

(1) Schools of the "secondary" types now commonly existing, which at present follow in the main a predominantly literary or scientific curriculum, and carry the education of their pupils forward to the age of at least 16 plus.

(2) Schools of the type of the existing selective central schools, which give at least a four years' course from the age of 11 plus, with a "realistic" or practical trend in the last two years.

(3) Schools of the type of the existing nonselective central schools, which may either be the only central schools in their area, or may exist side by side with selective central schools and cater for those children who do not secure admission to such schools.

(4) Senior classes, central departments, "higher tops," and analogous arrangements by which provision is made for the instruction of pupils over the age of 11 plus for whom, owing to local conditions, it is impossible to make provision in one or other of the types of school mentioned above.

6. A humane or liberal education is not one given through books alone, but one which brings children into contact with the larger interests of mankind. It should be the aim of schools belonging to the last three types to provide such an education by means of a curriculum containing large opportunities for practical work and closely related to living interests. In the earlier years the curriculum in these schools should have much in common with that provided in the schools at present commonly known as "secondary"; it should include a foreign language, but permission should be given to omit the language in special circumstances; and only in the last two years should a "practical" bias be given to the courses of instruction provided.

8. It is desirable that education up to the age of 11 plus should be known by the general name of "primary education," and education after that age by the general name of "secondary education," and that the schools mentioned in conclusion No. 5 above, all of which are concerned with the secondary stage of education, should be called by the following designations:

(1) Schools of the "secondary" type most commonly existing to-day, which at present pursue in the main a predominantly literary or scientific curriculum, to be known as "grammar schools."

(2) Schools of the type of the existing selective central schools, which give at least a four years' course from the age of 11 plus, with a "realistic" or practical trend in the last two years, to be known as "modern schools."

(3) Schools of the type of the present nonselective central schools, with a curriculum on the same general lines as that of the modern schools just mentioned, and with due provision for differentiation between pupils of different capacities, also to be known as modern schools.

(4) Departments or classes within public elementary schools, providing post-primary education for children who do not go to any of the three previous types of schools, to be known as "senior classes."

17. Adequate arrangements should be made for transferring children, who show ability to profit by "secondary" education beyond the age of 15 plus, from modern to grammar schools at the age of 12 or 13. Conversely, similar arrangements should be made for transferring pupils from grammar schools to modern schools or to junior technical schools, as need may be.

21. It is desirable that legislation should be passed fixing the age of 15 years as that up to which attendance at school will become obligatory after the lapse of five years from the date of this report—that is to say, at the beginning of the school year 1932.

29. We note that the existing division of education into elementary, secondary, and technical is losing its rigidity, and we hope that the artificial barriers between these three divisions will rapidly disappear.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Increases in registration.—At the opening reception to delegates to the Third Congress of the Universities of the Empire, held at Cambridge in July, 1926, the ex-chancellor of the University of Queensland said:

Never before since learning ceased to be the exclusive prerogative of the Church, of certain professions, and of the landed or the leisured classes, has there been so general a demand for it. This demand has reached phenomenal proportions in the United States, where, however, difference in standards makes difficult comparison with figures relating to this country or to the Dominions. A single figure—11¼ million dollars or 2¼ millions sterling for the appropriation for a single university—the Columbia University of the city of New York—for the year beginning July 1, 1926, will give some idea of the American university scale. * * * Here in Great Britain we are told that the number of full-time students—last year about 43,000—is more than half as many again as before the war. One-quarter of them come from Scotland; obviously a much larger proportion than would have been deduced from comparison of populations. The keenness in Scotland for higher education, apart from consideration of the material advantages that it may bring, is too well known to require comment.

Canada, with considerably more than half the number of university students that there are in Great Britain, is doubtless feeling the same impulse as the United States towards the highest form of education that is accessible. Ireland, with some 4,000, and Australia and New Zealand together, with some 8,000 full-time students, have about the same proportion to population as Great Britain. South Africa, with nearly 5,000, has a much higher proportion to the number of its white people. It is not fair to bring India, with its great peasant population, into the comparison, especially as university education is largely a new growth in many parts of the land. There are said to be 75,000 university students in India and Burma, but 9 out of 18 universities are of postwar creation, and all except 5 date from the first quarter of the twentieth century. The creation of two new universities in Australia and one in Canada have marked this quarter, while there has also been in it much reorganization, including the creation of a number of new colleges in South Africa.

These facts and figures may be of some interest, but really to compare the desire for a high education of the different parts of the Empire would require consideration of the differing purposes for which their universities were established and are maintained. In many cases the purpose is to afford access to the professions, and doubtless this purpose predominates in the Dominions. But in these, as in the home universities, preparation for industry by instruction in engineering and other applied science and for commerce are coming more into the curricula of universities, while a new importance is being given in some of them to that old-time but very wise object of education—the rational enjoyment of life; or, in other words, the humanities. Nowadays it is largely by continuation, evening, adult, and extramural classes that the universities are effecting his purpose among that growing body of the people who, without being able to go through a graduating course, rightly claim opportunity to discover delight in the delectable.

New institutions.—The conditions pictured as to higher education in the United States and in the British Empire prevailed in several other countries of Europe and Asia and to a considerable extent in other sections of the Americas. Between 1920 and 1926 more than

150 new instructional bodies prepared to give training on higher education levels were established. About 10 per cent of these were institutions of the usual university type, with faculties of arts and sciences and professional schools. Most of the others were instituted to conduct research or offer courses in the natural and social sciences. Of these new institutions, 55 are distinctly scientific in purpose and include some 10 polytechnic schools; 26 are sociological in character and include 3 schools of law, with the study of law intended not so much as preparation for the profession as for the relation of law to human welfare; 24 are schools of education; 20 are concerned with health; 9 with agriculture; and 7 with commerce.

Germany.—During the years 1922 to 1925 the universities and technical high schools of the German Reich were accommodating unprecedented numbers of students, both matriculated and auditors. By 1926 the registration had returned to approximately the pre-war level in the universities, but was still showing an increase of about 10,000 students over the 1913-14 figure for the technical high schools. The following table gives the enrollment for the winter semester (w. s.) and the summer semester (s. s.) for the years 1924 to 1926 as compared with that of 1913-14. These data are for the same area in both cases.

TABLE 10.—Enrollment in universities and technical high schools, Germany

Year	Universities		Technical high schools		Total number of matriculated students
	Matriculated students	Auditors	Matriculated students	Auditors	
1913-14.....	59,263	9,356	12,801	4,302	72,004
1922-23 (w. s.).....	82,213	19,899	26,802	3,127	107,011
1923 (s. s.).....	85,394	17,704	26,640	2,323	112,004
1923-24 (w. s.).....	76,859	17,663	25,939	3,107	102,898
1924 (s. s.).....	68,114	9,949	21,817	2,041	89,881
1924-25 (w. s.).....	60,879	12,544	22,499	2,300	83,978
1925 (s. s.).....	60,458	6,190	22,216	2,167	81,671
1925-26 (w. s.).....	58,867	8,478	22,634	3,376	81,601

France.—The 17 public universities of France enrolled in 1921 in their various faculties 49,931 students who were considered as being in the regular courses of study. In 1925 the number increased to 52,960, a figure that was almost 11,000 greater than that of 1914. Of that increase, about 2,600 were foreign students, and the larger attendance of foreigners came rather suddenly in 1925, with a total of 8,790 as against 6,421 in 1924. A much smaller part was due to taking over Alsace-Lorraine and with it the University of Strasbourg.

The University of Strasbourg, founded in 1621, became a German institution in 1872, at the close of the Franco-Prussian War. After the termination of the World War, the dean of the science department of the University of Paris was sent to Strasbourg to rearrange

the affairs of the university. In January, 1919, it was reopened as a French school, with the staff of professors taken temporarily from the universities in the interior of France. A few months later it was proceeding in the normal way. It is the only institution of France with seven faculties: Catholic theology, Protestant theology, law and political science, medicine, pharmacy, sciences, and letters.

Considerable reforms for all the universities were effected in 1924 and 1925 in the courses offered and the degrees granted by the faculties of law, medicine, sciences, and letters. The studies in the faculties of law and the State examinations were so changed as to require evidence of a good general education, to allow the advanced students early specialization in their legal studies, and to open the faculties to foreign students. Diplomas of higher studies in four fields of law and economics were established by decree of May 2, 1925. They are intended to encourage advanced legal study and may be obtained by examination after a year of work beyond the license in law (*licence en droit*). The doctorate in law is now open only to those who hold two diplomas of higher legal studies and present a printed thesis.

The various courses in the medical faculty were grouped more methodically and the doctorate in veterinary medicine, never previously established, was instituted in the medical faculties of Lyon, Toulouse, and Paris. The faculties of sciences began devoting more time to the practical applications of the mathematical, physical, chemical, and natural sciences and a considerable number of institutes were opened to train students for industrial careers and the various branches of engineering. These institutes offer a wide variety of courses and grant numerous university diplomas. A new State degree intended to promote research in applied sciences, the *Titre scientifique d'Ingenieur-docteur*, was established in 1925.

Reforms in Italy.—University reform in Italy was undertaken in accordance with the provisions of a decree of September 30, 1923. Italy has 24 universities, apparently more than the country needs, especially in northern Italy and in the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. Within a radius of only 18 miles from Bologna are seven universities, each with a long history of its own and with a strong sectional spirit.

By the reform the State undertakes to support only those institutions, libraries, and clinics that are deemed necessary for the State. Intending to reduce the number of universities, the Government classified them into three categories: Class A, class B, and "Free." The State supports fully 10 class A universities; 6 engineering schools; 1 higher school of architecture; and 3 royal higher normal schools. Class B institutions (11 in number) are supported for the most part by provincial or municipal contributions, with a small amount of aid from the State. The three "free" universities are entirely supported by provincial, municipal, or private funds.

All of these institutions are under State control, and their degrees have the same standing before the law. By a decree of January 21, 1927, the teaching staff in all is subject to governmental supervision and the cabinet may dismiss a professor for political manifestations not in harmony with the general policy of the Government. Moreover, by another decree of the same date, any university may be abolished by the Italian Government if its teachings show disregard for the principles and teachings of the present régime. The universities were enrolling 21,267 students in 1913. The reports for 1919-20 show 41,176, and for 1921-22 they show 32,031.

Florence, long known as the intellectual capital of Italy, was without a university from December, 1472, until January 20, 1925. On the former date the study center maintained by the Florence Athenaeum was transferred to Pisa, and the chair of medicine, physics, and chemistry became known as the institute of higher studies. On the latter date, the new University of Florence was inaugurated, in the presence of the Minister of Public Instruction; it has faculties of letters and philosophy, law, medicine, and science. Postgraduate as well as graduate courses are offered by all the faculties.

A year later, by decree of June 10, 1926, a faculty for the study of economic and commercial science was established also in Florence. Students will be admitted who have completed courses in the higher secondary schools. The studies offered by this faculty will include: Private, public, commercial, and maritime law; economics; statistics; commerce; geography; history of commerce; the mathematics of finance; accounting; banking and business theory; business management; and modern languages. The curriculum will be four years, and the degree granted will be doctor of economics and commercial science.

A royal Italian university for foreigners, which was created in Perugia, in October, 1925, is opened from July to October of each year. It offers graduate courses in Italian institutions, Italian literature, history of art, Italian and Etruscan antiquity, the geography of Italy, history of Italy, and Italian thought through the centuries. A qualifying diploma to teach the Italian language in foreign countries is awarded to those who pass the final written and oral examinations.

University of Saloniki.—Higher education in Greece, until 1926, was confined largely to the University of Athens (the National and Kappodistrian University); the National Technical High School, which was reorganized and made a part of the university in 1914; and the Commercial High School, founded in 1920. The city of Saloniki has grown from a municipality of 175,000 people in 1922 to one with 500,000 in 1926. On November 25, 1926, the new University of Saloniki was opened in the Villa Allatini. Later it was moved to the large building erected by the Turkish authorities for a military

hospital. The university began with 15 professors and 100 students; it offers the classical studies. A chair of Hebrew was created and a professor appointed to it in 1927. The intention is to transfer to the University of Saloniki the Superior School of Agriculture, now under the faculty of physics and mathematics of the University of Athens, and to create in 1929 a veterinary section. The new university is a governmental organization financed by a tax of 3 per cent on the customs duty of the merchandise imported through Saloniki, by gifts, the tuition fees of students, and aid from the Central Government. All professors are appointed by the ministry at Athens.

Hebrew University at Jerusalem.—The Hebrew University at Jerusalem, formally opened on April 1, 1925, after 40 years or more of intermittent effort and planning, began as a number of institutes intended mainly for research. While it welcomes all students without regard to sex, race, religion, or social station and the hope is that its work will be of benefit to all mankind, the purposes of its founding were more specifically to bring an inspiring influence into the life of the Jewish peoples and their civilization; to provide a working place for Jewish scholars and scientists; to contribute to the revival of Hebrew; and to aid in the material development of Palestine. The language of instruction is Hebrew.

At present it consists of a chemical institute and a microbiological institute, both inaugurated in 1924. An institute of Jewish studies, a school of oriental studies, an institute of Palestine natural history, and a department of hygiene were opened in 1926. An institute of mathematics is in process of organization. With regard to the instructional phase of the work, the university reports as follows:

The process of developing the teaching side of the university is already beginning, as will be seen from the description of the institutes. It is not to be feared, that it will be slow; the pressure in that direction is much too strong. The Jewish population of Palestine is growing rapidly and its youth is knocking at the doors of the university in numbers that will go on increasing every year. The number of Jewish students in Europe in search of a hospitable university is unfortunately growing too, and as the world's economic conditions are adjusted, so will more and more of them be able and willing to come to the University of Jerusalem—as a few have done already for graduate and research work. The time may not be far off when each of these groups will reach the stage when it could justly claim for itself a small university. For that time we must prepare.

The Jewish National Library, founded in 1892, was reorganized in 1920 and became the National and University Library. It contains approximately 115,000 volumes. Among the important collections of books acquired in recent years are an Arabica of some 8,000 volumes, the Hye legal library of 7,000 volumes, the Gompers-Meckler Greek library of 2,500 volumes, and the Hebraica and Judaica of Doctor Poznanski of some 2,000 volumes. The university budget

for 1925-26, not including building expenditures, was 4,000 Egyptian pounds.⁵

White Russian University at Minsk.—The changes in education in Russia during and following the establishment of the Union of Soviet Republics were as drastically revolutionary as the changes in political control. The Bureau of Education does not have data in regard to the educational situation; especially in regard to the universities, of a kind that seems thoroughly reliable. Certainly the requirements for admission and graduation, the courses offered, and the general purpose of higher education were entirely changed, but the changes can not be reported here with any degree of accuracy. Only two or three minor items are given.

Following the establishment of the White Russian Soviet Republic, the White Russian State University (Belorusskij Gosudarstvennyj Universitet) was founded at Minsk in 1921. It has three faculties—law and social science, pedagogy, and medicine. In the same city the White Russian Agricultural Institute was opened in 1922 with faculties of agriculture and forest economy. The latter is of unusual importance because the Russian people, in general, use wood rather than coal for heating during the long winter season, consequently the management and conservation of the forests are matters of great economic significance. All the leading cities now have agricultural institutes with branches in forest economy, and there are many lower schools of forestry.

Christian colleges of China.—Throughout the internal disturbances in China, the Christian colleges carried on their work much more regularly and effectively than may have been commonly supposed. In the autumn of 1925, 17 colleges and 11 professional schools were in operation, with an enrollment of 4,256 students, of whom 527 were women. The teaching personnel numbered 990. Up to that date the colleges had graduated 4,176. The Second Biennial Conference of the China Associations for Christian Higher Education met at Shanghai in February of 1925, with its aim fixed as the "redefinition of the function of Christian higher education in China." More than 200 college teachers and administrators from all parts of the country were in attendance.

Among its most important tasks was that of giving expression to its attitude toward the developing movement in China to turn over the financing and administration of the Christian colleges in that country to the Christian Chinese as rapidly as the Church in China shows that it is prepared to assume and meet the responsibility. The conference expressed itself as delighted with the high quality of the Chinese leadership shown at the meeting. Another important question was the matter of the colleges being required under regula-

⁵One Egyptian pound equals \$4.9481.

tions of 1924 to register with the Ministry of Education as private schools. Upon this question the conference adopted no resolutions but the council of higher education of the conference felt warranted in making the inference that many of the Christian institutions would be prepared to carry out most of the regulations laid down by the Ministry of Education as being thoroughly in harmony with the policy of making the Christian colleges more Chinese, and at the same time ask for interpretations of others of the regulations, the real purport of which seemed less clear.

University changes in India.—Among the most important and far-reaching changes made by any country in the realm of higher education are those being purposely brought about in India since 1920. A commission appointed by the governor general in September, 1917, to make a thorough inquiry into the affairs of the University of Calcutta and its affiliated colleges and to recommend any changes of constitution, administration, and educational policy which it deemed desirable, rendered its report in 1919. The 13 volumes constitute a most valuable résumé of the conditions of education throughout all of India, and indicate the lines of progress which it must take in the future as well as dealing in detail with the University of Calcutta and the schools of the Province of Bengal. The committee, in general, lays out a policy of changing the older Indian universities from examining to instructional bodies, with much closer cooperation between the constituent colleges; the establishing of new residential teaching universities; raising the standards of admission from that set by the matriculation examination to that of the intermediate examination—a full two-year increase—paying better attention to the question of students' residence and the general conditions of student life; reconstructing the entire system of secondary education, in administration, aims, and curricula; and providing for better relationships between the universities and the secondary schools and the universities and the provincial departments of education.

For the two very difficult problems, the medium of instruction and the education of women, the commission offers in the former case the general aim that the educated classes of India shall be bilingual, and for the latter the development of an enlightened public opinion that will recognize the supreme importance of the rapid development of women's education and will be ready to spend time and thought and money in bringing it about.

In regard to the languages it recommends specifically more attention to the teaching of the mother tongue as a method of mind training; less use of English as a medium of instruction up to the matriculation stage; its retention as a medium above that stage; improved methods of teaching English; more drastic tests for all of a practical

knowledge of English; and the abandonment of the system of examining nonliterary students in the difficulties of classical texts.

The commission reports that the education of women in India must have a most profound influence on the whole texture of national life and the whole movement of national thought, and that until the question is solved it will be impossible to bring the education of men into a sound and healthy condition. Women are desperately needed in the teaching and the medical professions, but Indian social usages forbid them to enter these services. The education of women in India is on an infinitesimal scale compared with what it should be and has all the faults of the system of training for men and in a sphere where they are the more destructive. The commission recommends for the University of Calcutta the organization of a special board, with a large degree of autonomy, to make provision for the advanced education of women and to make proposals regarding the adaptation of the university degree courses to the needs of women.

As a direct result of the report of the commission, the University of Dacca (Bengal) was established in 1921 under an act passed in 1920. The reasons for its establishment were: To create a new type of teaching and residential university in India as opposed to the present affiliating type; to meet the desire of Mussulmans of eastern Bengal to stimulate educational progress in their community; and to relieve the congestion of the University of Calcutta. Special attention is given to Islamic studies and the needs of the Mussulman community but the university is open to all students without distinction of race, sex, creed, or class.

The University of Rangoon, founded in December, 1920, includes University College and Judson College. The intermediate college at Mandalay is managed temporarily by the university as an affiliated institution. The university has an estate of about 458 acres of fine ground on the outskirts of Rangoon. The constituent colleges and the halls of residence will be accommodated on the estate and there still will be ample space for housing the teachers and for large playing fields. University College and Judson College had a total attendance of 741 in 1922 and 1,425 in 1926. Both colleges have been carrying on definite building programs throughout the four years. They have opened new departments in biology, education, medicine, and university extension; also instituted courses in forestry, engineering, geography, and geology.

The University of Delhi became on May 1, 1922, a teaching and residential institution formed from three constituent colleges formerly affiliated with the University of the Punjab. Subsequently 4 intermediate colleges, 3 for boys and 1 for girls, were recognized as constituent colleges of the university. Temporarily it is admitting students who have passed the matriculation examinations but after

1928 will accept only those who have passed the intermediate examination.

Aligarh Muslim University in 1920, the University of Allahabad by act of January, 1922, and the Nagpur University, established in 1923, all became residential teaching institutions.

For the purpose of setting the University of Allahabad free to function as a teaching and residential institution, Act VIII of 1926 of the United Provinces Legislature was passed establishing Agra University and empowering it to affiliate colleges in the United Provinces, Rajputana, Central India, and Gwalior, except within the limits of the Universities of Lucknow and Allahabad, or within a radius of 10 miles from the Benares Hindu University or from the Aligarh University. Agra University may supplement the instruction in affiliated colleges by instituting teaching posts at selected centers. Women who have carried on private study are eligible for degrees and other academic distinctions. The university may provide lectures and instruction for and grant diplomas to persons other than students of the 14 affiliated colleges. The act came into force in July, 1927, and the university will hold its first examinations in 1928.

The Andhra University at Bezwada came into existence by virtue of an act of the Madras Legislative Council that became operative on April 26, 1926. The university area consists of 12 districts in the Madras presidency, and the colleges within it that were previously affiliated with the Madras University are now affiliated with the new university. Four categories of colleges are established in the act. The University College offers courses for honors and post-graduate courses qualifying for admission to higher degrees. A "first-grade college" offers courses qualifying for admission to examinations for the ordinary degree in arts or science. A "second-grade college" prepares for the intermediate examination. A "special-grade college" offers courses in oriental languages or in other special subjects. The purposes of the university are, among other things, to promote the development of the study of Telugu, Kanarese, Urdu, and Oriya and their use as media of instruction and examination; to maintain colleges and hostels; to erect, equip, and maintain laboratories and libraries; and to provide funds for the maintenance of a publication bureau, an employment bureau, students' unions, and university extension boards. Every student must reside in a hostel or under such conditions as may be prescribed.

The Osmania University, established in 1917, differs from all the other universities of India in that instruction throughout the college courses is given through the medium of Urdu. Its medical college was opened in 1927.

As a preliminary step to the formation of a university for Ceylon, the Ceylon University College was founded by the Ceylon Government in 1921.

University administration in Great Britain and Canada.—In the interest of the better administration of higher education in Great Britain, a Royal Commission for Oxford and Cambridge was appointed in 1919 and published its report in 1922. In 1923 the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge act was passed, which set up statutory commissions to reorganize the universities and their colleges. In Oxford the general result was to produce closer coordination among the governing bodies of the university, to organize the teaching arrangements on a more satisfactory basis, to facilitate the admission of poor students, to regularize the admission of undergraduates, and to economize the resources of the colleges and of the undergraduates. The statutes provided for Cambridge became operative in 1926. In general, the administration is somewhat more centralized in the university; women have been declared eligible to university teaching positions and to membership on boards of faculties. Scholarships and prizes are open to women unless the founder expressly excluded them, and admission to a degree is to be by a single act rather than by the former procedure by stages.

In order that the University of London may be in a real sense "master in its own house and capable of enforcing a policy of its own," commissioners were appointed under the University of London act, 1926, to draw up new statutes for the university in accordance with the report of the departmental committee on the reorganization of the university.

The university grants committee, in discussing the supply of university education in its report for the academic year 1923-24, expressed the belief that better results would be obtained by improving and developing the universities already in existence within the United Kingdom than by hastening to add to their number, and this policy has been followed. Several of the universities have entered upon considerable building programs; most of them have materially reduced their debts; and they have increased their expenditures in such items as salaries of teaching staff, departmental and library needs, general libraries, etc.

In Canada an attempt was made, following a survey and report by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, to move all of the colleges in the Maritime Provinces to Halifax and join them with Dalhousie, already there, in order to form a strong central university. King's College moved from Windsor to Halifax and entered into a close association with Dalhousie. The scheme at present is halted because of the refusal of the University of New Brunswick, St. Francis Xavier, and Acadia College to enter it.