ACADEMIC EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA

by

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

The choice of subject was determined by several factors. Much has been written of German education, and it is sometimes assumed that education in Austria is no different, except obviously in minor points, from that of its larger neighbour. This is a superficial assessment of the real situation - there are, of course, many similarities in the educational philosophies and systems of the two countries, but, in this as in other aspects of her life, Austria claims, and rightly, a considerable measure of independence and the educational system she has evolved throughout her history is worthy of consideration separately from that of Germany. Although, especially between the wars, there was much contact between educationalists in Britain and Austria - in particular, close relationships between British socialists and the "Stadtschulrat" of Vienna, which at that time was widely thought to lead Europe in progressive social and educational measures - little has been written in this country about the educational system of Austria as a whole.

This fact becomes all the more surprising when one considers the importance of the position, economic, strategic, political and cultural, which Austria has occupied in Europe for so long, an importance which recent history has emphasised and which modern conditions in the country in no way diminish.

In the "Listener" of November 11, 1954, Professor Barraclough writes "...it is fair to say that the Austrian
question is a European question, on which the fate of Europe may again depend.... If things go wrong in Austria, it will be time for us all to look out". The past history alone of the people of Austria would in itself justify a study of the schools which have produced this people. But not only the past glory of Austria - and much of her glory may seem to reside in her past and in the memories of the older generation today - makes such a study worth while. Events in the country in the last fifty years have been so shattering - the loss of an Empire of over 50,000,000 inhabitants, embracing ten different races speaking ten different languages; the dissolution of a ruling class and an administrative machine which, despite its tragic shortcomings, was at its best reliable, dignified, upright and, in that leisurely and spacious era, efficient; the losing of a Great War; the overthrow of the Monarchy and the creation at first of a Socialist democracy, not unattended by the danger of a Communist "coup" like these in Munich and in Hungary; the subsequent bitter internal political conflicts leading to Civil War, brief and localised but none the less grim, in 1934; the assassination of a Premier by Austrians acting as Germans; the establishment of a Corporative Fascist State under Italian and Vatican influence and the consequent abolition of Parliament; the growing menace of National Socialism and militant Pan-Germanism culminating in the "Anschluss" of 1938; defeat in a Second Great War, with great loss of life and the disappearance of
many soldiers taken prisoner on the Eastern Front - all these events surely make Austria a country of peculiar interest. No less interesting and important is the present state of the country. Technically a "liberated" country - "the first free country to fall victim to Nazi aggression," as agreed at the Moscow Conference in 1943 - she was occupied from 1945 till 1955 by four victorious armies, with her territory divided into four Zones, her capital (like Berlin, surrounded by the Russian Zone of Occupation) also divided into four sectors but (significantly and unlike Berlin) with an internationally controlled central sector, placed between the contending East and West and indeed projecting into Eastern Europe. ("Asia begins in the Landstrasse in Vienna" - Metternich). Austria has occupied and occupies a situation of unusual difficulty, to put it at its lowest. It is also a position of influence out of all proportion to the size and resources of the country. Her attempts at recovery, her endeavours to exist and flourish despite unfavourable circumstances, her re-building of public life, including her education - all these things make her a fit subject of study.

It should scarcely be necessary to stress the outstanding features of the gentler sides of Austrian history, to cite the names of the outstanding men she has produced in
so many fields, especially in music, literature and the arts, or to refer in detail to the "Austrian way of life" which has charmed so many visitors from abroad, although its more unpleasant aspects may have largely escaped notice! The educational system which helped to produce these men or create this way of life merits consideration. Again, although the past may seem to overshadow the present and the future may appear so grimly uncertain, we should not neglect the present achievements of Austrians nor ignore the rôle which future generations will play. Here, as in the more pressing political sphere, the training which the new generation receives in the schools of Austria and its outlook when trained will play a large part in the development of this vital area - a development upon the nature of which more than the future of Austria herself will inevitably depend.
CHAPTER I - BACKGROUND FACTORS.

i. Geographical

Austria as it is today covers an area of 32,400 square miles and has a population of just under 7,000,000. The physical features of the country are remarkable - about half of the territory is higher than Snowdon (3,571 ft.) while one third is forest land. Much of the population lives in remote communities which are made all the more isolated by the snow conditions which prevail during several months each year. Communications are difficult and scanty except on the main trunk routes running along the most important valleys, (Danube, Inn, Mur) and over the essential passes (Pack between Styria and Carinthia; Pötschen between Salzburg and Carinthia; Arlberg between Tirol and Vorarlberg; Semmering between Lower Austria and Styria; Loibl into Jugoslavia; Brenner into Italy) all of which must be kept open all year.

Politically, Austria is divided into nine Provinces (Länder), each enjoying a fair measure of autonomy and possessing its own Parliament (Landtag) and Government (Landesregierung). These Provinces are Burgenland, in the extreme east, with its capital at Eisenstadt and, as its name implies, containing the ruins of many of the fortresses which defended the country against the Turks; Lower Austria
(Niederösterreich) whose capital is the industrial town of Wiener Neustadt and which comprises the rather low-lying country around Vienna and the lower Danube Valley, agricultural and wine producing territory including the famous Wienerwald and the Wachau. Upper Austria (Oberösterreich) with its capital at Linz on the Danube, bordering that river from its entry into Austria until it passes on into Lower Austria, and containing a wide range of landscape from fertile grain land to regions of high forest-clad mountains and lakes; Salzburg, with its famous capital of the same name, the Province of mountains and lakes, of festivals and tourism; Styria (Steiermark), whose capital is Graz, Austria's second city, and which occupies the South-Eastern region of the country, a province of forest, mountain and plain which contains most of the heavy industry of Austria; Carinthia (Kärnten), with its capital at Klagenfurt, and sharing frontiers with both Jugoslavia and Italy, a land of mountains and lakes; Tirol, with its capital at Innsbruck, probably the best known province to foreign visitors, with its mountains and valleys, its music and winter sports; Vorarlberg, with its capital at Bregenz on Lake Constance, the westernmost tip of Austria and bordering on Switzerland, Liechtenstein and Germany, a region of agriculture and light industry; the last "Land" is
Vienna itself, which now enjoys the status of a Province.

As we have mentioned, Austria possesses a strategic position of very great importance, situated as she is at one of the main cross-roads of Central Europe. Her proximity to Germany, for which country she offers the most direct route to the plains of South-Eastern Europe, her common frontier with Italy and her role of western outpost in the Slav lands have all proved fateful to herself and to Europe in the past and could well do so again in the future. This is especially the case, clearly, in a Europe roughly divided into two antagonistic zones - such a situation must be for Austria one of great opportunity and grave danger.

ii. Historical.

It is impossible, nor does it seem desirable, to give a complete chronological survey of Austrian history during the period we are considering. Instead, it is proposed that certain features, historical in the widest sense of the term, should be discussed as being those most likely to shed light on the background against which education in Austria has developed. Much of historical importance must obviously, therefore, be omitted, although a very brief summary of outstanding events has already been given in the introduction.
Little can be understood about the history of Austria, unless attention has been directed to the old Habsburg Empire or the Dual Monarchy, to its characteristics and its problems and to the legacy it left to its comparatively tiny successor, if modern Austria can properly be so termed. Likewise, the ambiguous relationship of German Austria to Germany is a factor whose importance for Austrian history it would be difficult to exaggerate. To these two main features, and to some of their derivative aspects, we may now turn our attention.

Habsburg Empire: As we have seen, the territory of the Habsburgs, under its various titles, was exceedingly large; indeed, prior to 1918 the old Dual Monarchy had an extent of 240,000 square miles and was, after Russia, the largest separate state in Europe. It embraced many races of vastly differing characteristics - Germans, Italians, Magyars, Czechs, Poles, Ruthenians, Rumanians, Serbs, Slovenes, Jews. Of these the Slav peoples were very much in the majority but the real power and influence throughout the territory was in the hands of the Germans who, totalling 12,000,000 in number, formed less than a quarter of the entire population. The official language was German; administration, law and education beyond the elementary stage were all carried on in that language till late in the nineteenth century. Vienna acted as an economic, educational
and cultural magnet for the whole area - indeed, much of the former vigour and inventiveness of that city has been attributed to the fact that it was in a position constantly to renew its supply of fresh blood, fresh enthusiasm and new ideas from the huge "Provinces" which it then possessed.

The last seventy years, approximately, of the Empire were marked by constant friction among the "nationalities" and by increased desire for autonomy on the part of the "subject" races, that is, mainly the Czechs and the Southern Slavs, the Magyars and, to some extent, the Poles having succeeded in improving their positions. The normal reaction of the Habsburg Government was to "play off" one racial group against another, frequently with great skill despite the obvious eventual sterility of such a policy. In the years under consideration, Franz Josef was on the throne of the Dual Monarchy and, particularly in the latter years of his reign, his policy of "no change" in face of a clearly changing situation was bound to be disastrous.

The nascent desire for independence, cultural as well as political, on the part of the less privileged racial groups in the Empire was a factor which influenced educational policy at the highest level and, it might be added, formed a problem the answer to which might have lain, at least in part, in a more sensitive and understanding attitude in
Vienna. This is not in any way to depreciate the very genuine efforts which were frequently made by different Ministers of Education, nor to minimise the complexity of the problem of holding the balance between pursuing a policy sincerely believed to be in the ultimate interests of all and yielding to the immediate desires of the "nationalities".

The question of whether or not, by more enlightened and less inflexible measures, Habsburg rule could have been saved, and whether this would have proved of subsequent benefit to Europe, is admittedly academic but is nevertheless frequently discussed in Austria, although now chiefly by the older generation. Much of Austrian thinking and feeling has certainly been coloured by the opinions held concerning this question.

It is linked with one of the main Austrian historical "ideas", that of the "mission" of the country and, in particular, of its ruling house. This "mission" was that of defending Western culture and civilisation against the barbarous peoples of the East: first, the Turks and later the Russians: a mission which, of course, could only be accomplished by a large powerful State such as the old Habsburg Empire. Just how actively the Habsburg monarchs strove to fulfil their "historische Sendung" is open to doubt. In "The Habsburg Monarchy 1809-1918", A.J.P.Taylor has this to
say: "..the Turks gave the Habsburgs the first of their many "missions"; the Habsburgs did nothing, for more than one hundred years, to liberate the parts of Hungary conquered by the Turks, yet they persuaded others, and even themselves, that they were the defenders of Christianity" (p. 11).

Many Austrians, and others, too, for that matter, remain convinced of the genuineness of this Austrian "destiny" of defending civilisation against barbarism or, in a more modern form, of her special understanding of both East and West and consequent ability to interpret the one to the other.

To the character of the multi-racial empire of the Habsburgs was due the almost complete absence of any real "Austrian" national feeling. The term "Austrian" was entirely devoid of meaning to the great majority of the Habsburg subjects, who looked on themselves from the more strictly racial angle, as Germans, Slovenes, Magyars and the like. Probably only a few small, but powerful groups ever seriously thought of themselves as "Austrians". These included the bureaucracy, Germans who hoped that in time the Empire would become really German, the cosmopolitan aristocracy and land-owning classes whose loyalties were principally dynastic, and probably, too, the Jews who gradually assumed considerable power, usually behind the scenes, in
the affairs of the State. (The competent, self-effacing "Hausjude" was a real figure, not merely implementing the decisions of his master, but in many cases formulating them also).

After 1918 the Succession States of course achieved that national independence for which most of their subjects had longed but, for Deutsch-Österreich, that German rump of the old Empire, the situation was vastly different. As we have seen, these German provinces had had virtually no feeling of being "Austrian" - they had merely been the German, and dominant part of that "collection of provinces accidentally ruled by the same prince" (Habsburg Monarchy p. 15) and, indeed, to quote Taylor again, "the non-Hungarian lands remained without a name to the end" (p. 9). Their loyalties were provincial and dynastic only, and the second foundation of their loyalty had collapsed. Despite the expulsion of Austria from Germany by Bismarck, the immediate reaction of all parties in the new Republic was to seek admission to the German Republic which was coming into existence. The Constituent Assembly in Vienna chose the name "Deutsch-Österreich" for the new truncated state and set about attempting to enter the German Federation. Feeling in the country was illustrated by the plebiscites held in several Provinces - Salzburg and Tirol demanded inclusion in
Germany while Vorarlberg opted to become part of nearby Switzerland. All these attempts, which were unavailing, indicate the complete absence of enthusiasm for the new country of Austria, although it should not be assumed that they were made only because of feelings of racial affinity with other countries. Also operating was the conviction that the small state had no chance of economic or political survival in the post-war world. The famous description of Austria as "a state with a strong tendency towards non-existence" illustrates with fair accuracy the opinions held at the time.

In the inter-war years the pessimistic prophecies were tragically fulfilled. Economic difficulties and unfavourable external political conditions played their part in the eventual catastrophe but it is nevertheless true that the inability of the principal contending parties (Christian Socialists and Social Democrats) to find any common patriotic ground, from which the obvious dangers of militant Pan-Germanism and National Socialism could be combated, was at the root of the entire disaster. Party and prejudice - racial and political - were put before country and made defeat, already probable, a matter of certainty. Of great interest, therefore, was the situation in Austria after the Second World War, when there emerged no group of any consequence which held that the second
Republic, like its predecessor, had no possibility of independent survival. With all the necessary qualifications made, the significance of this was, and is, enormous. Despite the crippling economic and social difficulties, despite the presence of four Occupying Armies on her territory, despite the obvious threat which one of these armies offered to her continued free existence, Austria formed a Government, a coalition of the former bitterly inimical Clericals and Socialists, which since 1945 has worked quietly, and in general effectively, in the interests of the country as a whole. Violent disagreement there has been and many controversial issues of internal politics have still to find a solution but the independent survival of the land has never seriously been questioned and great progress, economic and cultural, has been made in the attempt to ensure this survival. The reasons which can be advanced for this new feeling of national solidarity and desire for independence are of course many. Economists point to American aid and to the fact that the "Nazis" did much to establish and develop new industries which now benefit Austria; historians remind us that, for the new rulers of the country the memories of Habsburg are now extremely dim and hence there is not the feeling of helplessness and vulnerability from which the first Austrian Republic suffered. Realists insist that Austria stood to gain much
more as the liberated country which she was proclaimed at the Moscow Conference than as the German State she has so frequently declared herself to be. Pan-Germanism, they claim, is not a thing of the past and is waiting, prudently and patiently, in the wings for the appropriate moment to re-enter the stage. Idealists, again, stress the spiritual aspect of what Sebastian Haffner ("Observer" - Dec. 6, 1953) terms "the Austrian Miracle". He writes: "And this brings me to what I called above the spiritual aspect of the Austrian miracle. Like all things spiritual, it is elusive but very simple when caught. It is the simple but tremendous (and unreported) fact that the Second Austrian Republic does what the First did not; it accepts its existence, its identity and its fate. It is, I believe, this basic collective act of acceptance from which everything else flows, and without which all the rest would have been impossible. It must have been made some time in 1945, in the very depth of misery, impotence and degradation. This, it seems to me, is the fundamental piece of news to be reported about Austria".

Almost exactly three years later (December 5, 1956) we find the "Times" publishing an article entitled "Austrian Renaissance" in which approximately the same conclusion is reached: "Under the stress first of German and then Allied occupation, the Austrian people reaffirmed (sic) their sense of national
identity... But, above all, for the first time in this century, a nascent feeling of unity was brought into the country.

It has been seen, if only in the last year, that a new Austria can not only be viable but prosperous and happy". This development of a new patriotism, of a pride in Austria's past which does not exclude a belief in her future is obviously, as we shall see, in the forefront of the tasks - to some extent, one might already claim of the achievements of the country's educational system.

Federalism: We have noted that Provincial loyalties in Austria have long been strong. For centuries men have taken pride in being Styrian, Tirolese or Carinthian - or Viennese, for that matter. Folk music, legend and dance are full of examples of this love for the "Land", while the costumes worn even today, particularly in the country districts, give further proof of the vitality of Provincial patriotism. Its basis is probably ethnic and racial in the case of the more widely differing parts of the country - racially the Vorarlberg peasant has little in common with his near-Slav counterpart in Carinthia or Burgenland. Vienna with its supposed original population of Rhineland Franks has, in the course of its cosmopolitan history, produced a racial group quite different from that of any other part of Austria. The great geographical differences between some
of the Provinces, too, have contributed their share to the creation of particularism - the life of the Tirolese mountain farmer, for instance, is completely unlike that of his opposite number in the Lower Austrian plain, or on the vine-covered slopes of South Styria. History also encouraged this feeling of Provincial separatism as we have seen, at any rate, as far as the Habsburg Emperors were concerned. The constitution of the new Republic in 1920 recognised, by its federal nature, that the Province was, in the minds of the people, the real centre of loyalty and also the natural administrative unit. Despite the tendency towards centralisation of administration, a tendency to be noted in Austria as elsewhere, the Provincial Government (Landesregierung) possesses very real power and the Provincial Governor (Landeshauptmann) occupies a position of great authority and prestige. As far as legislation is concerned, the primacy of the Province is shown by the fact that all matters, unless specifically reserved for the Federal Parliament and Government, are considered to fall within the competence of the Provincial authorities (Federal Constitutional Law of 1st October 1920 - Art. 15 para. (1)). The existence of the Federal Council (Bundesrat), whose members are elected by the Provincial Diets (Landtage) is another proof of the importance attached to each of the individual provinces. Admittedly, this
Federal Council, largely a consultative body, does not possess the power of the other House - the "Nationalrat" - but it nevertheless ensures that the various provincial viewpoints are stated and respected. In Austria, citizenship, too, is on a Provincial rather than on a National basis. Federal citizenship being acquired by the act of acquiring Provincial citizenship, for which the requisite qualification is the "right of domicile" (Heimatrecht) in a commune (Gemeinde) of the Province. During the last one hundred years approximately, politics have also tended, in some instances, to maintain and sometimes widen the gap between Provinces. This is especially the case between Vienna and the Alpine provinces of the West. The strongly conservative population of the "Alpenländer" showed, and frequently show today, little sympathy for the people of "Red Vienna", whose political opinions and activities they distrust intensely and whose anti-clericalism has long been condemned in the Catholic Provinces. Such distrust and antipathy was not of course one-sided. The disproportionately large population of the capital after 1918 was another factor which contributed to the mutual lack of sympathy. In times of financial hardship and of food shortages, in particular, the country people resented the need to feed such a huge capital whose inhabitants, they claimed, were largely unproductive. The Viennese, for their part,
objected strongly to this selfishness and to the shameless profiteering in misery in which many of the peasants indulged at such times of national misfortune. Evidence of this rift between Capital and Provinces was given in 1945 when, for a time, there was a serious movement in favour of the establishment of a separate rival Government in the Western Provinces, a movement strengthened, it must be admitted, by disrupted communications between the Zones of Occupation and also by fear and distrust of what might happen in the Eastern part of Austria.

Austria and Germany: No consideration of the history and character of Austria and her people would be complete without reference to her relationship with Germany, which has been at the root of many of her recent misfortunes. To the "ties of blood, of history and of national custom" by which Schuschnigg explained the fact that Austria "could never be anti-German" - this just before the Germans despatched him with many fellow-countrymen to a concentration camp! - one can of course add other factors. A common language, a common culture in its widest sense and, particularly in later years, close economic contacts have all helped bring about the unusual relationship between the two countries. Austria's former feeling of superiority, as perhaps the most powerful group among the German peoples, largely vanished with the rise of
Prussia and with the consequent unification of the former loose Confederacy of German states. Only culturally did she continue to feel that a leading rôle was still hers, and her existence as a small and relatively weak land on the frontier of her powerful relative has since been difficult and fraught with danger to her. The undeniable fact that most Austrians, racially, are German, coupled with the strategic and economic value which possession of Austria means to an ambitious Germany has tragically complicated the history of both countries, not to speak of Europe as a whole. According to tradition, this fact was well expressed by Franz Josef in 1907 when rejecting Edward VII's proposal that he should detach himself from his alliance with the German Emperor. "Do not forget", he is quoted as having said, "what I must always remember - I am a German Prince" (Gedye - A Wayfarer in Austria Pt. II p.106 - Methuen 1948). We have seen the First Austrian Republic's attempt to enter a German Confederation and all the world knows the ultimate Hitlerite solution to the problem. Today the political danger seems to have receded, despite the doubts of many qualified observers and lovers of Austria, but there still exists what Professor Barraclough has called "the fatal ambiguity in the Austrian idea ...the fundamental equivocation which affects it in everything that touches Germany" (The Listener Nov. 18, 1954).
The visitor to Austria sees it expressed in the attitude of many Austrians to the German tourists, or of the Austrian football crowd to a German team - a curious mixture of servility, resentment, admiration, distaste, contempt and nervous fear. This is not, of course, to speak of the behaviour of the blatant Pan-German in Austria, but merely to attempt to explain the reaction of Austrians in general to their more powerful blood-brothers. Economically, too, the existence of Germany is simultaneously a boon and a potential threat to Austria. The larger country offers scope lacking in Austria to many of the most highly qualified Austrians, scope which was formerly to be found in the Empire. The young engineer, the doctor, the playwright, the University lecturer, to mention only a few, find in Germany a magnet difficult to resist and this probably does little harm in normal times. The danger lies rather in German economic penetration of Austria and Austrian dependence on Germany, a state of affairs which recalls the days before the "Auschluss" when Germany had already gained control of the large Styrian iron and steel industry, to cite only one example. Despite Austria's seemingly improving economic situation, she has a heavy deficit of trade with Western Germany, and this she cannot view with equanimity, in the light of past history. In all this relationship with Germany, as in many other aspects of her life, Austria is enormously and dangerously
at the mercy of external factors - economic, strategic, political - over which she has virtually no control and which she can influence only to a very limited extent.

iii. Economic.

Like all other aspects of the life of the country, the economic situation of Austria received a staggering blow with the dissolution of the old Empire in 1918. In Habsburg times the varied nature of the country had favoured the existence of a fairly balanced economy, the large food-producing areas of Hungary combining with the more industrial regions of present-day Austria and of Bohemia to form an integrated and relatively self-supporting system. Communications and transport by means of the Danube were uncomplicated and convenient, and were supplemented by a well planned railway network, while the possession of an Adriatic seaboard and of Trieste in particular assured easy contact with countries outside Europe. The relatively large number of graduates from the Austrian "Hochschulen" (Universities and Technical Colleges) found posts as doctors, engineers, teachers, lawyers and administrators throughout the Empire, while the hereditary Habsburg nobility, possessing, as they so often did, estates in various parts of the old Dual Monarchy, were able to support themselves, their tenants and their retainers at a reasonable level.

Much of all this was wiped out for ever in 1918.
The new small Republic of Austria found itself face to face with an economic problem of frightening dimensions, that of attaining viability as an independent state. We have seen how the attempt to do so was probably doomed to failure from the outset - defeatism at home brought the inability to turn to advantage the economic help which Chancellor Seipel obtained from the League of Nations, while lack of sympathy abroad prevented a general realisation of the vital need to make a success of the endeavour. Economically, Austria scarcely rose from her knees between the wars and economic factors played no mean part in her ultimate admission of defeat in 1938.

The end of the Second World War disclosed, in Austria, an economic situation which, if not bright, had at least in it the seeds of hope if they were recognised and encouraged to develop. Material damage to industrial plant, as a result of the war, was not very large - at least in comparison with other countries - and the Germans had greatly increased, in size and in efficiency, much of the existing Austrian industry. In addition, they had initiated much industrial development in the country. Prompt United Nations aid, and, in particular, assistance from America, enabled the Austrians to survive the initial period of difficulty and hardship and, at the same time, to undertake much of the development which was clearly seen to be essential to their future well-being.
Road repairs and construction, hydro-electric schemes, factory building and improvement could all be undertaken quite soon, if at first on a modest scale, and, despite the obvious difficulties occasioned by the presence of the Russians, the Austrian Government pressed on resolutely with all this work.

In consequence, the economic situation of the country is brighter than might well have been expected in the circumstances. Many of the industries which have been and are of fundamental importance in Austria since 1918 are in a flourishing condition - forestry has been improved and timber is now an important export; dams and power stations are now completed, allowing Austria to export electricity to both Italy and Germany; the oil field at Zistersdorf, developed and expanded by both Germans and Russians, is producing more than ever before; the iron and steel plants at Donawitz and Kapfenberg in Styria are in excellent condition and working to capacity, as are the motor car and cycle works in Graz, Steyr and Vienna and the lignite mines in Styria and Carinthia. In all these industries, and their ancillaries, morale is clearly high, craftsmanship encouraged and scope given for the theorist and possible inventor - indeed many former members of University and Technical College staffs, often in political difficulties in 1945, found their way into industry where they appear to have given excellent service. In this context
of business prosperity, mention must also be made of the Tourist Industry which has made rapid strides in recent years and which brings great rewards to the country as well as to the individuals employed in its ranks.

However, the picture is not all bright; many of the old pre-war difficulties remain and others have since arisen or become more acute. The political situation in the Balkans and Eastern Europe continues to deprive Austria of much of the natural market for her exports and to deny her the relatively cheap import of food and raw materials which she would like. Communications, although improving, are often uncertain towards the East and expensive in other directions - the loss of Trieste being an especially severe blow, the effects of which are still felt. In much of her export trade, too, Austria is a marginal producer and consequently particularly vulnerable in the event of any international recession. Her tourist industry is by its nature precarious and could again be paralysed by any unfriendly German régime.

It is not merely in what we might term its "international" aspect that we find trouble spots in the Austrian economy. The old problem of finding employment for the "Akademiker" still remains - the "Hochschulen" continue to turn out large numbers of recruits for the professions and, very often, there are no posts available in their chosen
careers. As we have noted, Germany now claims many Austrians who are unable to obtain positions in their own country. At another level we find the problem of "the flight from the Land" (die Landflucht) which is having a serious effect on agriculture in many provinces, in addition to creating social difficulties in the towns. This problem is probably at its worst in the Alpine districts, precisely these areas where it is difficult to introduce that mechanisation of agriculture which would compensate for the drifting away of the labour force. The alleged decline in the traditional crafts for which Austria was renowned is another tendency which many observers of the Austria scene regard with great misgiving. The wood-carving, wrought-iron work, handloom-weaving of the country districts, as well as the fine leather-work of Vienna and other towns, are all in retreat in the face of large-scale production, yet many Austrians claim that it is this craftsmanship which is one of the most precious and permanent economic assets of the country and which at all costs must be preserved. These last two "problems" are not of course exclusively Austrian - we think of Scotland at once - but are perhaps of greater importance to that country than to most others. A small country whose economic existence is acknowledged to be precarious must clearly make every effort to make the best possible use of all its resources and cannot afford to make many mistakes in the direction of its affairs.
iv. Political.

The influence of party politics in the development and functioning of Austrian education is enormous and largely of a direct nature. The various parties have seen, and continue to see, in the state educational system a most powerful instrument to be used in their attempt to build the country according to their desired pattern. Appointments of teachers at all levels, of inspectors and administrators, are made almost entirely on a political basis. The aspiring entrant to the profession must join the party of his choice - often, it must be added, this means the party for whose methods and aims he has the least distaste! - and his subsequent success, measured in terms of promotion at any rate, depends at least as much on his political activity as on his professional competence. Important posts in a Province or a District (Bezirk) are filled in a ratio corresponding to that of the strength of the political parties in the area. (Schools are referred to as "Red" or "Black" according as the Headmaster is a Socialist or a member of the People's Party). Though the evils of such a system are obvious, especially with regard to methods of promotion, the case should not be overstated. The individual teacher, or Headmaster in many cases, is not a political fanatic - indeed, he often is disinterested, to the point of social irresponsibility, in what the parties are doing. He does not use his position, or at least he does so very rarely,
in order to propagate his own views, although, as we shall see, the parties have some very definite aims for the schools of the country. It may well be that the recent state of the parties - near-equality in a coalition government - is part of the reason for this restraint, and that a large majority in favour of one or other party would see the introduction of very contentious measures based on a one-sided and intolerant political and social philosophy. This, once again - it could be said - is largely dependent on factors outside Austria's control. In a reasonably prosperous country in a settled Central Europe it seems highly unlikely that any extreme and dangerous situation could arise.

Parties and Pressure Groups: - In this chapter, we are concerned mainly with the Austrian Republic. In the days of the Habsburg Empire, as we have seen, the situation was that in which the dynasty attempted usually, but not uniquely, to preserve the "status quo" in the face of the demands of the Liberals (and later the Social Democrats) who both wanted a general liberalisation, secularisation and democratisation of all affairs of state, and of the "Nationalities" who claimed more and more independence for themselves. At a different level, as it were, were the struggles among the "Nationalities" themselves, between Magyar and South Slav, between German and Czech, and the general desire of the Germans to retain the privileged position they occupied in the Empire. Educationally
all this was reflected in ways to be expected - on the part of Liberals and Socialists by demands for more equality of opportunity, and for a lessening of the power of the Church in education; on the part of the "Nationalities" by the endeavour to secure more schools and universities in their lands, to have the right to train their own teachers in their own Training Colleges and to have their languages recognised as the natural language of instruction (Unterrichtssprache) at all stages of education, thus replacing German, the official language of the Imperial System.

The Parties: 1. The People's Party (Österreichische Volkspartei - Ö.V.P.). This is the post-1945 successor of the Christian Socialist Party, which was the most powerful party between the wars and which, under Dollfuss as Chancellor, dissolved Parliament in 1934, founded a Corporative State (Standesstaat) and ruled by decree until the "Anschluss" in 1938. It is once again the strongest party in Parliament (82 seats out of 165) and its total of votes in 1956 (2,000,068) was not far short of an absolute majority of the electorate (4,349,463). Since the war it has provided the Chancellors (Figl, Raab) and the Ministers of Education (Hurdes, Kolb, Drimmel), except for the brief transition period in 1945 when, after the fall of Vienna to the Russians, an "interim" Provisional government was set up under the Chancellorship of the veteran Socialist, Karl Renner, with the Communist, Ernst Fischer, as Secretary of State for Education.
The new People's Party, like its predecessor, is to all intents and purposes the political organ of the Catholic Church, with its main strength in country districts, particularly in the Western "Alpenländer". It is therefore the Austrian equivalent of Adenauer's Christian Democrats in Germany and the "Mouvement Républicain Populaire" (M.R.P.) of Bidault and Schuman in France. Although ostensibly "progressive" it has, of course, by the very nature of its supporters, a somewhat conservative character, without being as bitterly inimical to Socialism as were many members of the Christian Socialist party from which it was formed.

2. The Socialist Party (Sozialistische Parteit Österreichs - S.P.O.). This party inherit the ideals and traditions of the pre-war Social Democratic Party, which was led by men like Renner, Otto Glöckel, Secretary of State for Education after the First World War (and later the dominant figure, until the middle 1930's, in the Viennese Education Authority), Viktor and Friedrich Adler, (the latter the assassin, in 1916, of the Chancellor, Graf Stürgkh) and Otto Bauer, the leader in the days of defeat in 1934 when the Party was suppressed by Dollfuss. Originally strongly Marxist and doctrinaire, it has, by experience, "mellowed" greatly and, although still extremely anti-clerical and republican in its views, it has found the necessary spirit of compromise to
allow it to share the Government with its chief opponent, the People's Party. In 1956 it obtained seventy-four seats and 1,873,250 votes and thus forms the only other organised political group of any consequence in the country. (The Communists and Left Socialists won three, and the Freedom Party, largely ex-National Socialists, six seats in these latest elections). Its support comes chiefly from Vienna, from the working-class quarters of Provincial Capitals like Graz and Linz, and from industrial areas in Lower and Upper Austria and in Styria. From its early leaders it received a tradition of internationalism, intellectualism and of fervent belief in the importance and power of education in social reform. The magnificent school buildings erected by the Vienna Municipality between the wars are a proof of the strength of this conviction, as are the youth and adult education movements organised by the Party.

**Educational Aims of these Parties:** These are perhaps best illustrated by consideration of the points on which they conflict most seriously. Both sides, it should be made clear, share a sincere pride in their country's educational achievements and would claim, for the system which made these achievements possible, a superiority over that of most other countries.

**Church Schools and Religious Education:** The People's Party, like the M.R.P. in France, demand for parents who desire to do so, the right to send their children to Catholic
Schools, for whose upkeep the State should provide the money. At present, parents who wish their children to be brought up in a Catholic atmosphere must send them to private schools, usually conducted by the Church or one of its Orders, in which fees are charged. There are many such schools of all types, particularly for girls, and they include some of the most famous in the country. The Protestant Church is much less in evidence in this matter, having only two schools in Vienna, largely because of its financial weakness, although partly because it is less dissatisfied with the present system than are the Catholics. The "Volkspartei", in support of their demand, claim that the State, when it dissolved the Jesuits, appropriated their educational funds which were then spent upon secular education. For its part, the Socialist Party wishes to preserve the "status quo" according to which free education at all levels is provided in inter-denominational state schools, in which, unlike those of France, religious instruction has its place in the curriculum and is provided by representatives of the principal creeds and denominations - Catholic, Protestant and Jewish. They do not agree that public money should be spent in the establishment and maintenance of Church Schools.

Secondary Education: Here again the parties differ along expected lines, the Socialists urging "Secondary Education for All" and their opponents determined to maintain its
highly-selective nature by retaining the present severe entrance examination and the ruthless "weeding out" (Auslese) throughout the entire eight year course. The Socialist aim implies the creation of a four year Common Secondary School (allgemeine Mittelschule) for all aged ten to fourteen, which would replace the present separate schools for that age group and after which would follow various types of Upper School (Oberschule) which would offer courses to suit the different requirements and aptitudes of those pupils who had successfully completed the more difficult courses in the "allgemeine Mittelschule". The "Volkspartei" wish to retain the present three types of full Secondary School (Mittelschule). These are the "Gymnasium", "Realschule" and "Realgymnasium", which are all eight year schools with selective entrance at the age of ten, vastly superior in their social status and their educational provision to the schools attended by the great majority of the children between ten and fourteen (Hauptschule, Volksschule). The problem is the Austrian version of the "Einheitsschule"; "école unique" controversy and the arguments adduced by the contending parties are those found in other countries which face the same difficulties. The Socialist case is that their scheme would give genuine equality of opportunity, would allow errors in selection at the age of ten to be easily rectified, would enable choice of type of career to be postponed until the age of fourteen, and would
not bring any lowering of standards, because of the "two-stream" organisation of the Common School and the opportunities for specialised study in the different Upper Schools. These last opportunities, they maintain, do not exist in the upper classes of the present "Mittelschulen", where the attempt to carry on the study of a large number of subjects, usually at least thirteen, leads to superficial encyclopaedism. The People's Party is firmly of the opinion that the adoption of the Socialist Scheme must lead to a lowering of standards and that the new "Oberschulen", in particular, would never reach the level attained by the traditional "Mittelschulen" and, especially, by their pride and joy, the classical "Gymnasium". They do not admit that the choice of career has now to be made at ten, but concede that Higher Education is virtually out of the question for any child who does not gain entrance to the "Mittelschule" at that age. The present system of selection at that stage is, they feel, sufficiently reliable to ensure equality of opportunity. Finally they are not convinced that "Secondary Education for All" is in the interests either of the country as a whole or of every individual child. They point to the common Austrian problem of a surplus of academically-trained citizens, for many of whom later life brings much bitter disillusionment with consequent danger of political extremism and unreliability. The increase in centralisation which would necessarily follow acceptance of
the Socialist proposals would also, they assert, aggravate the problem of the "flight from the Land" (Landflucht), a problem which, as has been mentioned, is already dangerously acute in many parts of the country. At present there seems little prospect of the adoption of the Socialists' plan for a Common Secondary School, but the argument continues unabated - in Parliament, in the public press, in the educational periodicals and, perhaps rather surprisingly, sometimes in the Annual Reports (Jahresberichte) of Secondary Schools when a Headmaster or other member of the staff states and defends his views on the question.

The arguments advanced by both sides very frequently hinge on their authors' opinion of the position which Latin should occupy in the curriculum. We have mentioned the intense pride of the "Volkspartei" (and indeed of most Austrians) in the classical "Gymnasium", in which Latin and, later, Greek are given much attention and in which Humanistic ideals are pursued. With such aims in view, they claim, the study of Latin must begin as soon as possible and any attempt to postpone its introduction, as the Socialists have suggested, until the Upper School, would be disastrous, not merely for the subject itself but also for those other languages for whose comprehension a knowledge of Latin is of great benefit. The Socialists retort that, with the new more direct oral methods
of teaching Modern Languages - methods much in favour in most Secondary Schools in Austria - a grasp of Latin is of doubtful value. They go on to argue that, in their proposed Upper School, those pupils who wished to begin the study of Latin would have the advantage of greater maturity and would, in addition, have sufficient hours of Latin per week to enable them to attain, in four years, the standard at present reached in eight years under a system where inadequate weekly time is devoted to all subjects throughout the course and under which, at least in the first four years, the progress of gifted pupils is retarded by the presence in their class of a large number of the intellectually less well-endowed.

In face of all attacks Latin's position in Austrian schools does not seem to be much weakened, a fact not to be explained merely along political lines. One finds little desire to see its complete disappearance as a subject compulsory, somewhere in the Secondary Schools, for all pupils who aspire to continue their formal education beyond these schools. The prestige of the "Gymnasium" still remains high and to it go many of the most gifted pupils from the Primary Schools, although many knowledgeable parents now send their children to the middle-of-the-road "Realgymnasium", in which Classics, Modern Languages and the Sciences receive equal emphasis, consequently allowing pupils a wider choice of academic career when they
complete their Secondary schooling.

Teacher Training: Party differences are also apparent in opinions concerning the best method of preparing future teachers, in particular future teachers in the Compulsory Schools (Pflichtschulen). While this is discussed in more detail in the appropriate section, the views of the two parties can be briefly stated here. The People's Party wish to retain the existing Training Colleges (Lehrerbildungsanstalten), to which potential teachers in the Primary Schools (Volksschulen) and in the "Hauptschulen" proceed at the age of fourteen, usually from a "Hauptschule" or the Lower Department (Unterstufe) of a full Secondary School. To meet the general demand for improved Teacher Training, however, they propose that the Training College course be increased from five to six years. Their argument is that the future teacher of young children must himself be "caught young" and must mature gradually in an atmosphere of common aims and interests which alone will give the necessary sense of vocation (Berufsethos). This atmosphere, they claim, is provided by the Training Colleges and would be sacrificed if the Socialists' reforms were carried out. These envisage that all teachers should complete a full eight-year course in a Secondary School before going on to a two-year Training College (Lehrerakademie) which would enjoy the status of a "Hochschule". In such institutions, the Socialists maintain, the great benefit would be the fact that the
students, already mature, had themselves really chosen their career, which is certainly not always the case under the present scheme of training.

v. Authorities.

It may seem strange to include here a section on the "Authorities", that is, the "Government" at its various levels. Much of the influence of these authorities is obviously political, reflecting the views of the predominant political parties and, as such, has been touched upon in the previous section, while the administrative facts concerning the functions of the various educational authorities are given in the relevant chapter, and are partly explained by the Federal nature of the Constitution, already discussed. The administration of the educational machine in Austria is an involved and ponderous business in which are employed what seems to us to be an inordinate number of officials. Paper work reaches huge proportions and letters are replete with technical terms, abbreviations and references to sections, sub-sections, paragraphs and lines of relevant acts. The ultimate effect of all this is to slow up any changes - it is a familiar phenomenon in Austrian education that a legislative measure should be abolished and superseded before the completion of the necessary administrative formalities which would have made its execution possible. It is particularly important that this fact be borne in mind.
during any consideration of the apparently daring and comprehensive reforms in education; many such reforms never progressed beyond the discussion or, at the best, the experimental stage. This is not all loss, as the slow working "Amtsschimmel" often provides a valuable safeguard against the introduction of measures adopted in times of crisis or for purely political ends. Nor is it always an unconscious process. Time and again we hear Austrian educational administrators stressing the need for "organic development" as against "radical reform" and pleading that the schools be given time in order that wise progress be made.

vi. Teachers.

A brief mention should be made here of the position and influence held by the teachers themselves in the educational life of the country. As in most Continental countries and unlike Britain, the main division in the teaching profession is that between the staff of the Compulsory schools on the one hand and those employed in Secondary and Higher Schools (Universities etc.) on the other. The former group are not "Akademiker" - i.e., they do not themselves complete a course of Secondary education followed by study at a "Hochschule" but enter, at fourteen, the Teachers' Training College on completion of which they are appointed to posts in the "Volksschulen". The staff of Secondary Schools and of the
Higher institutions are trained in Secondary School and "Hochschule" and are much closer in status than their British equivalents. Indeed very frequently the same man is both Secondary teacher and University lecturer. It will be understood, therefore, that the difference in standing between the elementary school "Lehrer" and the Secondary school "Professor" is considerable, and that, as a rule, they do not act in common in educational matters. There is, it should be made clear, no expression in Austria equivalent to the rather slighting French term "esprit primaire" but the social and intellectual "cachet" which goes with the designation of "Akademiker" suggests that the feeling in the two countries is similar.

Having made this reservation, we can, however, fairly claim that, in general the status of the teacher in Austria is high, that of the "Professor" of course particularly so. Although plentifully supplied with directives from the relevant authorities, he nevertheless retains a fair degree of freedom in his work. In his relations with his colleagues, for example, he enjoys a large measure of equality from the outset of his career. The Secondary Schools, as in France, have no Principal Teachers of the various subjects, while, in most Primary Schools, the Headmaster (Schulleiter) is usually a senior — and an actively teaching-colleague, whose authority over his staff is less than is usually the case in similar
schools in Britain. The Headmasters of all schools, however, and therefore the schools themselves, possess considerable power and freedom vis-à-vis the authorities and the community in general - certainly a potent factor in this matter of the status of all teachers. In his various Professional Associations (Arbeitsgemeinschaften), with their news organs, the Austrian teacher can voice his own opinion freely on matters of interest to him, although here again it must be remembered that party politics have assumed an unpleasantly great importance and that Associations have tended to be formed along political lines.

In his dealings with the parents of his pupils, the Austrian teacher and, in particular, the Secondary Teacher once again, is in a very strong position. It can be stated that, as a rule, his opinions and his decisions are rarely openly challenged, although often resented and bitterly criticised in private. His right to summon parents when he wishes, allied to his inaccessibility to them except at stated hours, the fact that, in Austria, the teacher is virtually both judge and jury in all examinations, success in which is so vital because of the country's economic and social organisation - all these facts combine to increase the power and consequently the status of the teacher in the community.

In educational matters the influence of the practising teacher has probably been conservative on the whole - the
system of training, particularly for Secondary Teaching, has encouraged this tendency. Against this, however, should be set the undeniable fact that the normal teacher in Austria has a great interest in developments in his own subject and, perhaps more important, has usually the time to satisfy this interest. Although it might at first sight appear that he is not financially in a position to do all necessary to keep up his cultural interests, a closer examination of the situation often reveals that this he is in fact able to do so, thanks to the many indirect benefits he enjoys. These include such things as reduced subscription rates for books, special terms for opera and theatre visits and, frequently, favourable opportunities for travel abroad. The conservative influence referred to above, like that often exercised by the Civil Servants engaged in educational work, does much to provide that stability and continuity which would otherwise be jeopardised if purely political "lines" were to be followed in the schools.

vii. Parents.

We have already seen that, in his relationship with his children's teachers, the Austrian parent is usually in the weaker position. The determination among parents who are themselves "Akademiker" that their children should not be allowed to slip backwards into the "Proletariat" - of this
they have a very real fear, frequently expressed - allied to
the decrease in the number of professional positions after
1918, means that success in school work is of overwhelming
importance for these children. In addition, there is the
ever-growing number of parents, whose own education did not
proceed very far, who are anxious to give their sons and
daughters an advantage they did not themselves enjoy. Com-
petition is therefore fierce at all stages after the
"Volksschule" for those children who succeed in gaining
a footing on the bottom rung of the Secondary Ladder. In
the vast majority of Austrian homes the children's home-
work is a most serious affair, in which both parents, if
they are able, are frequently involved. This is made all
the more so by the large number of subjects studied and the
fact that only half of the day is spent at school. Much of
the essential work must consequently be covered at home,
under parental guidance or, at least, supervision. Any
shortcomings in this direction, as the parent well knows, may
easily mean failure and consequent rejection of the pupil,
a fate which must be avoided at all costs. Teachers assume
that much work will be done at home and many parent-teacher
interviews take the form of a statement by the latter of
what he expects in that direction. Many booklets, official
and otherwise, have appeared to advise the parent on this
matter of his children's homework. It will be seen, therefore, that there is a very close, if not always very amicable contact between parent and teacher and much of this contact can only be for the good, intellectually at any rate, of the pupils in the schools. This last qualification is in no way meant to depreciate the many fruitful and sincerely helpful efforts made by both parties in the relationship, but to refer to the undoubted truth that, for the reasons mentioned above, much parent-teacher co-operation is unfortunately limited in scope and carries within it seeds of potential bitterness. The parent's expectation of his child is that he should obtain satisfactory marks, and in very few homes does anything else compensate for a failure to do so. Popularity among his fellows, sporting prowess and even, perhaps surprisingly, artistic or musical ability are all, of course, desirable in themselves but, at school in Austria, only in addition to scholastic progress in the shape of certificates (Zeugnisse). The day when these are awarded is a most important date in the calendar, on which the successful are fèted and the others, one fears, made to feel their inadequacy in no uncertain fashion, despite the inevitable spate of newspaper articles begging the fathers to show restraint and understanding. Many parents, of course, regret this state of affairs but appear either unable to change it or
unwilling to take the initiative in any attempt to do so from the human as distinct from the political "angle" if one may so phrase it.

viii. Educational Theory and Psychology.

Reference is made in the relevant chapters to the influence on Austrian schools of the great educational reformers and thinkers and of the various schools of philosophy and psychology whose discoveries and doctrines have affected the work of teachers and administrators alike. From what has already been said, however, in addition to the fact that, during the period under consideration, Austrian education has been very firmly controlled in most of its aspects, we shall not be surprised to find that such influence has been less strong than in many other countries. The combination of Church control and Habsburg authority meant, and later the centralised administration, based on political decisions, continues to mean that little freedom is left for experiment which does not have official blessing. It must be added that, frequently and especially where Secondary Schools are concerned, the Provincial Authorities and the Ministry grant the requests from individual institutions whose staff are anxious to introduce experimental methods. These latter, however, usually do not mean any very radical change but deal
rather with alterations within individual subjects or in the
timing of their first appearance in the curriculum. In
general, work in schools is carried on in accordance with the
officially-prescribed syllabus (Lehrplan), in which detailed
instructions are given regarding the teaching of all subjects,
and keeping firmly in view the official aims of every subject
(Lehrziele), also decided upon by the Ministry in Vienna,
with minor modifications in accordance with provincial differ-
ences. In all this, comparison with France immediately
suggests itself, and it is true that one finds a great deal
of similarity in the two highly centralised systems. Austria,
however, by virtue of the individual nature of her Provinces
as well as by the large gap found between theory and practice
in almost every aspect of her public life, has never reached
the stage which has allowed French educational administrators
to boast that, in every French State School exactly the same
work went on at exactly the same time throughout the entire
country.

It can be said then, probably, that in Austria, the
educational principles on which the work of the schools is
based are those which are agreed upon, centrally and after
much argument and discussion, by groups of men - politicians,
administrators, practising teachers, and educational theorists -
in whose minds educational philosophy in its purest sense is
only one of many considerations. The views of contemporary reformers and educational psychologists are not of course ignored, but almost inevitably carry less weight than the apparent social, economic and political needs of the country, not to mention the demands of the political parties. It is not of course being suggested that such a state of affairs is in any way peculiar to Austria, but the past history and present situation of the country, its long tradition of centralised control, the virtual absence of private schools of any standing (apart, naturally, from Church Foundations) and the enormously important rôle played in education by party politics, all contribute to the undoubted fact that freedom to experiment has been lacking in the schools of Austria, and that theories, while eagerly discussed and argued about, are apt to remain theories.

There has been much discontent with the bureaucratic centralised system we have described, discontent on the part of both teachers and parents. Although, and this should be stressed, the administrators in the various Headquarters have almost all, since the Reform Period after the First World War, been recruited, but often for political activity, from the ranks of practising teachers, it has been felt that the latter have not been sufficiently in a position to wield in the framing of policy the influence desired. Accordingly there was established in 1955 a Permanent Educational Conference
(Ständige Pädagogische Konferenz) which acts as an advisory body to the Ministry. It is composed of the Provincial School Inspectors, administrative officials from the Ministry, Training College representatives, and "advisers" (Berater) from the ranks of the teachers themselves - these last, however, are nominated by the Inspectors, usually on the basis of outstanding teaching successes or research work, i.e., it is an entirely professional body. Outsiders are not represented and, in particular, parents have no direct voice in it. At its meetings it considers outstanding educational problems, chosen either by its own members or referred to it for opinion by the Ministry. Its members, and in particular the practising teachers and the Inspectors, have the duty of seeing that the views of their colleagues, previously ascertained as fully as possible, are made known and, if necessary, defended. Its members claim for it a considerable measure of influence in the eventual framing of policy, but it is hard to pass judgment on that point so soon. However, its creation has, in theory at least, called into being a body to study and advise upon educational problems considered mainly as such, and free from the shackling influence of the political party line. So far, this advisory body discussed, as its central theme in 1955, the much talked-of "Überlastung der Schüler" (le surmenage scolaire)
and intended, at its 1956 meeting, to deal with Education for Citizenship (staatsbürgerliche Erziehung) and all its implications. If it retains its freedom, this Conference should ensure that the purely pedagogical aspects of all important problems are given due importance and that the benefits which can result from the work of educational philosophers and psychologists are not withheld from the schools merely because those who lay down policy are unsufficiently aware of all the possibilities.

For many years now teachers in Austria have had to study psychology in their courses of training and to be familiar with the most important of its applications to their work in the classroom. Educational literature has given psychology, in this connotation, a considerable measure of attention, and, as could be expected, the Austrian teacher is usually extremely interested in and conversant with the problems of child psychology, individual and group psychology, abnormal psychology and the like as they affect his relations with his pupils.

Despite this, Austria is only now beginning to introduce psychological methods of selection and testing on any large scale. The reasons are not hard to find. The emphasis on the purely academic side of school attainment led to the retention of traditional methods of teaching and of examining. Entrance to a Secondary School was, and is the
aim of most primary pupils or of their parents, and the individual Secondary Schools have jealously guarded the privilege of carrying out their own entrance examinations, in which intelligence quotients and aptitudes receive little attention. A knowledge of facts and skill in Grammar and Arithmetic was and in many cases still is the only sure passport to the "Mittelschulen" and this has meant that psychological testing and measurement does not figure largely in the life of Austrian pupils.

In recent years, however, the enormous increase in the number of "Hauptschulen" within the compulsory school system has opened the door to psychological methods of selection, and rapid progress is now being made. In some provinces pupils are now selected for these 2-stream "Junior Secondary" Schools, and allocated to the more suitable stream, on the basis of a battery of Attainment and Intelligence Tests of the type with which we are now so familiar in this country. The introduction of these tests met with much opposition from the older teachers, both in Primary Schools and in "Hauptschulen", but their supporters claim that the tests have done much to eliminate the previous large discrepancy between school and school and district and district. The use of such tests is now likely to be extended — in fact, they were used, but along with existing traditional selection methods, at the entrance examinations to some Secondary
Schools in 1956. In addition to this work of testing, the psychologists in the Austria Schools are now beginning to offer more general service, as they have been doing in other countries for some time now.

A School Psychology Service (Schulpsychologischer Dienst) is now in existence in most of Austria, and works with the Provincial and District Inspectors. Normally, it functions at District (Bezirk) level and the "Bezirksschulinspektor" is responsible for its supervision and control. He chooses an "expert" - a University Graduate in Psychology with teaching experience or a Training College Lecturer - to organise the Psychology Service of the district. As his assistants the "expert" recruits, in the schools of the district, interested teachers who are given one year's training at University or Training College in the main types of work which the Service performs. This training is part-time and the assistants, who must be successful practical teachers, remain in their ordinary posts and after training are called on to undertake the extra psychological work in their spare time. At present, in an attempt to popularise their methods and to obtain the sympathetic co-operation of younger teachers in particular, the officials of the Psychology Service also ask for volunteers from teaching staffs to undertake for them some restricted and simple work, either in the classroom or elsewhere. In the "Pflichtschulen" at least the climate of
opinion seems to be becoming more favourable for all these applications of psychology, although here again political and religious difficulties are not absent. As for the Secondary Schools, it is at present difficult to believe that psychological testing will oust more traditional methods at the Entrance Examinations, although experiments in that direction may well be made.

ix. Austrian Character.

It is obvious that consideration of Austrian education cannot be complete without some attempt to discuss the character of the people who have created and who have enjoyed that education. This is a very difficult task and one which can only be approached with considerable hesitation and an awareness of the need to avoid sweeping generalisations, however tempting, in an attempt to "define" Austrian character. The most that can be accomplished is a consideration of some of what appear to be the outstanding characteristics of the inhabitants of Austria, bearing in mind the obvious differences which must exist in a country so varied geographically and in which Provincial particularism has always been most marked. The present-day Austrians are, as we have seen, predominantly German although there is a strong admixture of Slav blood in the East and South East. The German element is not, of course, Prussian but Bavarian German so that, both in temperament and
religion, we can expect the Austrian to resemble the South German in many respects, and consequently to possess many of the characteristics commonly associated with the "non-Prussian German". These characteristics will be modified by those normally taken to be possessed by the Slav races and also, it can be claimed, by Austria's proximity to Italy and to the influence of the Mediterranean, a fact which most people would agree should have added a mellowness and sense of form absent among the Germans proper. In the tentative enumeration of and comment upon "Austrian characteristics" which follows it should often be possible to observe the interaction of the different racial influences at work.

The stock "foreign tourist" idea of the Austrian as gay, witty, charming, music-loving, somewhat irresponsible and, of course, "gemütlich", is clearly based upon superficial observation although it contains, like all such generalisations a certain amount of truth. Indeed, it is probable that most Austrians, if called upon to describe themselves, would claim many of the characteristics we have mentioned, a fact in itself significant. Shrewd observers of the Austrians, who have lived among them for years and usually enjoyed the experience, would rate self-deception and, often, complacency high on the list of Austrian characteristics. Many reasons are advanced for the existence of these characteristics, reasons which embrace Baroque and Mozart, Strauss and Franz Josef,
Austrian Catholicism and the German Soul. Here let it suffice to say that evidence of this self-deception is not hard to find in dealing with Austrians, and certainly is to be seen in education. For the Austrian it is easy to believe what he really wants to believe and recalcitrant facts can simply be ignored or pushed into place. Nietzsche refers to the "idealistic self-deception . . . that the Germans love and almost worship as a virtue" while Dr Morris Ginsberg credits the Germans with "a capacity for self-intoxication and self-deception truly remarkable" (German Views of the German Mind - p. 69. Institute of Sociology 1945). Complacency is also frequently in evidence, not least in education, and when allied to self-deception and, often, to a conservatism not unconnected with inertia, can be a potent factor militating against an objective appraisal of facts followed by effective action. How much these characteristics are a product of the education the Austrians, and in particular the "Akademiker" receive and how much they are innate is very difficult to assess. It can at least be said with fair certainty that academic education, for the most part, does little to counteract them. Accepted information is too infrequently tested by objective observation of facts, where such observation is possible, and, as we shall see, the educational system is such that what has been called "accepted information" forms
the bulk of what pupils and students receive. Such self-deception has of course a gentler and sometimes an appealing side e.g., the Austrian is almost always convinced that he is impossibly busy, a view which the outside observer, however sympathetic, finds it hard to share, but in questions of politics and of social progress it can be a great handicap, and must frequently result in much fine theory not reflected in practice.

The Austrian's well-known love of titles and privilege of all kinds is perhaps not unconnected with the characteristics just discussed. In many it is a harmless phenomenon—sometimes amusing, sometimes tiresome—but it is often linked with an arrogance or subservience which it is not at all pleasant to observe. Class-consciousness is on the whole still very strong in Austria and education has in the past certainly contributed towards its continued existence, with most unfortunate results. To-day the normal "Akademiker" is exceedingly proud and jealous of his status and inclined to assume possession of a superior wisdom to which he may often have little claim. The importance attached to titles is seen at all levels of society and it undoubtedly has some beneficial results also. In the trades and crafts it has done much to preserve the dignity and consequently the standard of performance of those who hold a "Master's" title and, perhaps,
to sustain the status of these crafts themselves. The educational training traditionally provided in Austria for most trades has probably also contributed to this.

A desire to "label" and to "classify" everything is another feature of the Austrian temperament, almost certainly also German in its source. It may often reveal once again a tendency to ignore or suppress facts which obstinately refuse to be so "classified", although it should also presuppose a thorough consideration of the subject matter to be organised. The Austrian's passion for paper work of all kinds is evident here, too, as is his frequent inclination to attach too little importance to the individual human beings who may in fact be the raw material which he is attempting to classify on paper.

While not worshipping the abstract idea to the same extent as the French, the Austrians are most certainly interested in ideas and theories of all kinds, and, in general, very receptive to novelty in this field. We have already suggested the weakness in this devotion to theory to the exclusion of testing by actual practice, but it does much to ensure a climate of general intellectual liveliness and to foster a wide outlook. Literature and the arts in general profit from this atmosphere of course, and the Austrian public has always considered its tastes to be
catholic yet discriminating, so that the best work of other countries is soon known and appreciated in Austria. It is perhaps necessary to sound a note of warning here - much of what has just been said applies mainly to Vienna and, to a lesser extent, to the Provincial capitals, and it would be an enormous mistake to generalise from them. In addition, the changing tempo of life in recent years has greatly altered this old Austrian characteristic of universal culture, which owed much to the leisurely atmosphere of social life in the "Kaffeehaus", supplied as it was with literature from all countries of Europe and from America also. These old establishments are now disappearing and being replaced by modern "Espresso" bars which have little or nothing in common with their predecessors. This inevitable change is one which older Austrians in particular usually view with regret, looking upon it as a weakening of the old cultured and civilised life which they once enjoyed.

Musically too, a somewhat similar situation exists. The Austrian in both town and country is usually intensely musical - Opera Houses and concert halls are well attended, village musical societies flourish and are able to produce bands and choirs for all the local "events" which seem to occur so frequently in the Austrian countryside. Yet one has the feeling that more effort is required now than formerly to ensure that this should be so. Musical evenings in the
home, in which the various members of the family could sustain a varied programme, are now certainly much rarer than was the case even twenty-five years ago, while folk-lore enthusiasts bewail the fact that Austrian peasant youth is now often ignorant of and uninterested in his own native music and dancing, just as he or she is perhaps becoming less fond of wearing the traditional local "Tracht". Despite all this, the foreign traveller in the less "tourist" areas in Austria cannot fail to be impressed by the strength of many of the clearly genuine folk customs which he is able to observe.

Much of the gaiety which is so often considered a feature of the Austrian temperament is musically inspired - the gaiety and "Gemütlichkeit" of the famous "Heurigen" of Grinzing and Nussdorf can scarcely be imagined without its background, or accompaniment, of music. It is music, too, which probably does most to cut the barriers of that Austrian class-consciousness of which we have spoken. Yet it is doubtful if the Austrians can properly be termed a "gay" people, except on certain specific occasions. It is not surprising that events in the last few decades have tended to make them in many respects rather grim and suspicious of strangers and to foster a ruthlessness and egoism which can make everyday life, despite its many apparent courtesies and gracious formulas, a rather harsh and graceless affair.
The irresponsibility also commonly associated with the Austrians is usually considered a contribution from the Slav and Eastern element of the racial mixture. The Austrian (or Viennese) word for this characteristic, although German in form, is not familiar in Germany itself, the significance of which fact is obvious. This "Schlamperei" is described as follows by a perceptive though sympathetic observer of the Austrians: "It means promises made and forgotten the next moment, official pens left in the air as the hour for closing the office strikes, jobs scamped or pigeonholed undone, letters left unanswered and much more ....... It is a legacy from the Orient - Metternich's 'Asia' - and from feudalism". (A Wayfarer in Austria - G.E.R. Gedye - Revised Continental Edition Vienna 1947 - pp.44 - 45) Such irresponsibility, in many of its manifestations - vagueness, unpunctuality, apparent fecklessness - may have a certain charm, as is often claimed, but it has never been without danger to its possessors. When it betokens, as it frequently does, an absolute unwillingness to accept responsibility for much of what goes on in the country, its disadvantages are too obvious to require discussion and, when linked with the German gift for self-deception already mentioned, it provides the pessimistic observer of the Austrian scene with one of his strongest arguments.

Such then is a résumé of some of what might be termed
the principal features of the Austrian temperament and character. Much has of course been omitted and the opinions stated are put forward in the full knowledge of the almost inevitable inadequacy of any such attempt to capture and define anything so elusive and at the same time so many-sided as "national character" even if such a thing should exist. It may be objected that too little attempt has been made to link the various characteristics directly with aspects of the Austrian educational system but it is hoped that such "links" will reveal themselves when we consider the work in the schools themselves.

x. Conclusion.

After consideration of what we have called the "background" factors affecting and in some degree determining education in Austria, we must now ask ourselves what kind of education we shall therefore expect to find there. Certain facts appear to be clear. Through their education the Austrians will try to cling to what is good in their German culture and way of life, and to foster pride in many aspects of their old Imperial existence. Above all, perhaps, they will strive to produce and to encourage love of the new Austria, with faith and confidence in and responsibility for its future. In doing so they will have regard to its Federal structure and will make
every use of the existing Provincial loyalties and traditions while aiming at a more national consciousness. True to their past and in accordance with the present political and economic situation of their country they will make every effort to promote internationalism and to foster all kinds of co-operation among the nations of Europe. Economic factors, too, will force them to ensure that the best possible use is made of the human resources of the land and to attempt to deal fairly and effectively with the surplus of academically-trained citizens. Through their educational policy they will have to try to combat and, if possible, defeat many tendencies - Pan-Germanism of a militant brand, cynical defeatism, internal class-selfishness, political intolerance or irresponsibility, mutual suspicion and distrust among individuals. Great care will obviously be necessary in legislation, in selecting and training teachers and in choosing text-books, especially as the dangers of over-centralisation must be avoided. The more specific aims of the political parties and of the Catholic Church must be met, presumably by some form of compromise. Finally the highest degree of sympathetic co-operation between administrators, teachers and parents must be obtained in the interests of the pupils, for whose benefit, too, the best of traditional methods and ideals should be reinforced by the advantages accruing from the progress made in philosophy, psychology and educational theory.
CHAPTER II.
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SUBORDINATE EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITIES.

Amid the political upheavals of 1848, the demand for improvement in education, particularly in elementary education, quickly and forcibly made itself heard. On 23rd March, an Imperial Decree, published in the official supplement of the "Wiener Zeitung" the next day, stated that the Emperor Ferdinand "with a view to promoting the spread and the improvement of popular education and likewise the more complete development of scientific, technical and artistic studies, has been graciously pleased to decree the establishment of an independent Ministry of Public Instruction" (in der Absicht, die Verbreitung und Vervollkommnung des Volks-Unterrichtes, so wie die vollständigere Entwicklung wissenschaflicher, technischer und artistischer Studien zu fördern ... die Errichtung eines eigenen Ministeriums des öffentlichen Unterrichtes zu beschliessen.). This new Ministry replaced the former "Royal Commissions on Education" (Studienhofkommissionen) which had been created by the Empress Maria Theresa as one of the measures designed to weld into an administrative unit the Bohemian and Austrian Provinces of her Empire. In addition to routine administrative work it was formed to carry out reforms in the direction of liberalising the educational system - to loosen the existing tight
control over the teaching staff, to promote "Lehr-und Lernfreiheit" and, in the political sphere, to attempt to meet the educational demands of the non-German speaking "nationalities".

The political reaction of the 1860's brought upon the temporary dissolution of the Ministry, and for seven years education was controlled from a department of the Ministry of State (Staatsministerium). The re-emergence of the Ministry was soon followed, in 1869, by the appearance of the most important legal measure yet formulated in the history of education in Austria. This was the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz", the Law which gave to elementary education the firm basis on which it has since stood. Fundamentally it is valid to-day, new measures appearing as amendments or additions to it. Its political foundation was the "Fundamental Law concerning the General Rights of the Citizens" (Das Grundgesetz über die allgemeinen Rechte der Staatsbürger), which had just been passed and which guaranteed the equality of all citizens before the law. Until the end of the Habsburg Monarchy the Ministry of Education had as its main task the tackling of the educational problems posed by the increasing political restiveness of the Slav races within the Empire and by the gradual growth of Liberalism and Socialism.

In the new Republic which was born in 1918, the Ministry of Education was first amalgamated with the Ministry of State, under the name of the "German-Austrian State Office of Education" (Deutsch-Österreichisches Staatsamt für Unterricht),
and did not resume independent existence until 1923. This was the second great period of experimentation and reform, with which the name of Otto Glöckel is usually associated — first as Under-Secretary of State in charge of the Reform Department and then as President of the Vienna Education Authority (Stadtschulrat für Wien). Under his direction and with the support of his colleagues of the Socialist Party, much money was spent on elementary schools and the attempt was made, unavailingly, to secure the adoption of the Common Secondary School (allgemeine Mittelschule). This reform period came to an end in 1927 when the results of the experiments were embodied in two legislative measures — the Secondary School Law (Mittelschulgesetz) and the "Hauptschulgesetz" which set up the new "Hauptschule" as a kind of Junior Secondary School which constituted the highest institution in the compulsory school system (Pflichtschulwesen). Both these Laws are in force today, although of course they were annulled during the years when Austria formed part of Germany. Between 1927 and the "Anschluss" of 1938, education became more and more under political influence in the sense that, in an endeavour to create a true Austrian patriotism among the pupils and students, the governing Christian Socialists wished the schools to stress the homeland (Heimat) in every way and to support the aims and philosophy of the Catholic Church.
In 1938, the Austrian Ministry of Education was dissolved by the Germans and the educational affairs of the country were conducted from the Ministry in Berlin in such a way that, administratively at least, Austria became like any other German Province. This seven-year period of domination, although its effects were of course great on the youth of the school, was not sufficient to do really permanent harm to the Austrian educational system. Immediately after the liberation of the country, on 27th April, 1945, the Austrian educational administration began work again, under conditions of extreme difficulty. For the first few months it functioned under the title "State Office for Popular Enlightenment, for Instruction and Education and for Religious Affairs" (Staatsamt für Volksaufklärung, für Unterricht und Erziehung und für Kultusangelegenheiten). After the elections of December, 1945, this "Office" became the "Federal Ministry of Education" (Bundesministerium für Unterricht), the name it still retains. Since that date, the Ministry, first under Hurdes, then Kolb, and now under Drimmel, all People's Party, has been endeavouring to produce legislation to replace the pre-war Acts. This process has been made very difficult by the political situation - by the long occupation of the country and, more particularly, by the balance of power between the two main parties, the Socialists and the People's Party, whose views on
many fundamental educational questions are so divergent as to admit of no really effective compromise. At the moment education is administered by the issue of ordinances (Verordnungen) based on Party Agreements (Parteivereinbarungen) and whose legal foundations are the relevant Acts passed before 1934. Obviously this situation gives rise to a feeling of some uncertainty and a new Education Act is greatly to be desired; it must be said, however, that the day-to-day organisation and administration of education is not greatly affected. Whether a new Act will be forthcoming in the near future appears to depend upon purely political factors – it is difficult to imagine the present Coalition Government, despite its impressive record of practical progress, in a position to produce a law acceptable to all the interested parties.

The "Bundesministerium für Unterricht" as at present organised, consists of a "Praesidium" and four Sections (Sektionen).

The "Praesidium" has seven members and undertakes general duties, including the administration of the Ministry itself and of its officials; attached to this "Praesidium" are the Office Library (Amtsbibliothek), Accounts Department (Buchhaltung) and Public Relations Department (Pressereferat).

Section I controls University and Higher Education (Hochschulen und wissenschaftliche Anstalten), including such institutions as the Academy of Sciences and the Meteorological Institute in Vienna.
Section II is for "Kunstangelegenheiten", which we might translate as Cultural Affairs, and has nine Departments. In addition to controlling Schools of Art, of Drama and of Music, this Section supervises, for example, Museums, Collections, Care of Monuments (Denkmalpflege), Films, Television and Radio, Publishing, the award of titles to artists, cultural relations abroad, U.N.E.S.C.O., and Popular Education (Volksbildung).

Section III has six Departments and is devoted mainly to legal administration, economic matters and inspection. It also, however, contains Departments for the Development of Sport (Sportförderung) and out-of-school education (Außerschulische Jugenderziehung).

Section IV has six Departments and the "Kultusamt" (Office for Religious Affairs) and controls Instruction and Education (Unterricht und Erziehung). The Departmental division follows fairly closely the division of the educational system into school-types - Secondary, Vocational, Primary and Training College. It has sub-departments for such things as Physical Education, Girls' Education, Vocational Guidance (Schule und Beruf). The "Kultusamt" has three sub-departments (Referate) - one for the Catholic Religion, one for the Protestant and the third for other religions and for general religious matters.

It will be seen that the Ministry of Education really does control the educational life of the country, although
there is nevertheless a fair amount of administrative devolution to the Provincial level and beyond.

The supreme authority in the land is the "Bundesministerium für Unterricht". It is responsible for the relations between the State and the various religious bodies. It exercises direct control over the Universities, Technical Colleges and other Institutes of Higher Education, and, through the Provincial Education Authorities (Landesschulräte), indirect control over Secondary Schools, Central Schools (Hauptschulen), Primary Schools, Teachers' Training Colleges and so on. The Federal Ministry is also responsible for the approval of text-books and apparatus, the appointment of Secondary and Primary Headmasters and of District Inspectors (Bezirkschulinspektoren), the award of honorary titles to Primary teachers, and the hearing of appeals against decisions of the "Landesschulräte".

The Provincial School Council (Landesschulrat) is the supreme educational authority of each Province, controlling everything within its area which is not already under the direct supervision of the Ministry in Vienna. In particular it administers all Secondary schools within its Province.

The District School Council (Bezirksschulrat) controls all public and private Primary and Central Schools (Hauptschulen) and Kindergärten in the political "Bezirk", and is situated in the chief town of the District. The Town Education Council
(Stadtschulrat) in certain large towns replaces the "Bezirks-
 schulrat" and performs the same functions. The Village Educa-
tion Council (Ortsschulrat) is the lowest educational author-
ity, controlling Primary and Central Schools of a "commune"
(Gemeinde).
CHAPTER III - PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION.

There are in Austria three types of Kindergarten, all of which are open to children between the ages of three and six. These are:

1. "Allgemeine Kindergärten" - the normal type.
3. "Übungskindergärten" - demonstration schools at which Kindergarten teachers are trained.

The Kindergärten are found either separately or in conjunction with other schools e.g., with a "Volksschule" or, in the case of the "Übungskindergärten", very often with a Secondary School. In general, however, the aim is that the Kindergarten should have its own buildings wherever possible. The official aim of the Kindergarten is "to supplement family education and to take the measures necessary to ensure a healthy physical, moral and intellectual development of the children" (...."die Familienziehung zu ergänzen und jene Massnahmen zu ergreifen, die eine gesunde Körperliche und seelischgeistige Entwicklung der Kinder sichern"). All formal instruction is forbidden, methods consisting of general activity, games, singing, observation and discussion of objects and pictures, story-telling and poetry learning. Teachers are trained in two-year courses at the Teacher Training Colleges,
entry to the courses being controlled by an examination which cannot be attempted below the age of sixteen. Arrangements exist which allow women of eighteen and upwards to become Kindergarten teachers without the formal two-year course of training. Such candidates must satisfy the Provincial Educational Authority of their suitability for appointment and must serve a probationary period, followed by a theoretical and practical examination conducted by a State Teachers' Training College.

Kindergarten may be established by private groups or individuals but all such institutions require the approval of the State Authorities and must satisfy the official regulations. In 1954-1955 there were 1,247 Kindergärten, of which 731 were public institutions - in Scotland there were in the same year 75 Nursery Schools. These Kindergärten catered for 65,781 pupils, almost equally divided between boys and girls - in our Nursery Schools there were 4,540 children. Lower Austria led all the Provinces in this branch of the educational system with 331 schools, followed by Vienna with 253. Since the last war the number of Kindergärten and of pupils attending them has shown a continual increase, rapid until 1948 and from that year slight but steady. The obvious popularity of the Kindergärten is explained in part by the higher school entrance age. In many private institutions social
aims predominate so that the Kindergarten mistress becomes rather a Governess, and deportment and foreign languages appear in the curriculum. It is fashionable to send one's children to such Kindergärten and this is frequently done at a considerable financial sacrifice to the parents. Families which were previously able to have their children, at first at least, educated privately at home now patronise the private Kindergärten and the cosmopolitan tradition of many such families, especially the former Habsburg nobility, has brought the demand for instruction in spoken French and English at such an early age. The standards of instruction, supervision and of accommodation in such Kindergärten vary considerably, and the State's right of inspection and control appears to be rarely, and then very leniently exercised.

Children of working mothers are often looked after in the "Kinderbewahranstalt", established in most cases by industrial or commercial firms with the approval of the Provincial School Authorities. The "Krippe" takes care of children whose parents are unable to provide the necessary attention while the "Kinderhorte" has the function of catering for children of school age during their free time, of occupying them purposefully and of safeguarding from the dangers of the streets. These last types of institution are certainly not numerous, being confined to the largest cities and, in particular, to Vienna.
CHAPTER IV.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION (DAS PFLICHTSCHULWESEN)

i. Historical

The compulsory schools of Austria under the present system comprise the "Volksschulen" (Elementary or Primary Schools) "Hauptschulen" (rather like our Junior Secondary Schools) and "Sonderschulen" (Special Schools). These schools carry the pupils through the entire period of compulsory education, from six to fourteen years of age. At the present time, there is a demand for a ninth school year, but disagreement concerning where it should be inserted - it is accepted that the leaving-age should be raised to fifteen, but there is opposition from the Secondary schools to the proposal that the extra year be added to the Primary School period.

The first schools recorded in Austria were Monastery Schools (Klosterschulen, Stiftsschulen) and traces of them are found after the "Völkerwanderung" and the Christianisation of the Germans. In the Seventh Century the "Scuola St. Peter" was founded in Salzburg, and, of the others, perhaps the most famous were the "Stiftsschulen" at Melk on the Danube (976) and at Gőss in Styria (1000). It is interesting to note that there appear, very early (in Eleventh and Twelfth Centuries) to have been Girls' Schools, also, conducted in convents (Frauenklosterschulen).
From the Twelfth Century onwards, Parish Schools (Pfarrschulen), conducted by the Church, were quite numerous. These were the forerunners of the Town Schools (Stadtschulen, Bürgerschulen) and the lay Parish or "commune" Schools (Gemeindeschulen). In Vienna, the "Stadtschule bei St. Stefan" was founded in 1237, its Rector being originally appointed by the Emperor and later by the Municipal Authorities. The spread of education, and the desire for it, due to the Crusades and the prosperity of the Babenberger dynasty led to the need for more educated administrators in both town and country, and to the establishment of many schools in market-towns and villages. This process continued throughout the Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries. The establishment and success of the Universities of Prague (1348) and Vienna (1365) indicates the existence of efficient Elementary and "Lateinschulen" (Grammar Schools).

The early sixteenth century, with its religious tensions and wars, saw a retrogression, but the Counter Reformation once more focussed attention on education and conditions were once again relatively stable and favourable to further development. Hand in hand with the Jesuit activity in Secondary and Higher Education went the re-animation of "Pfarrschulen" in country districts. These were established in considerable numbers - indeed it is estimated by official Ministry historians that, in some areas, the
number of such schools reached 60% of the present total. In 1773 the activity of the Jesuit Order in Austria was halted by Maria Theresa and, for the first time, the State prepared to intervene in educational matters, on a considerable scale. Previous attempts at such intervention had been limited to local regulations e.g., Ferdinand II's "Schulordnung" for the province of Tirol, issued in 1586.

The desire for reform in education came from several sides. Since 1760 the Royal Commission on Education (Studienhofkommission) had been working on proposals to reorganise the entire system but these were not accepted by the Chancellery when presented in 1770. Only the intervention of Maria Theresa's Privy Council (Kronrat) saved the reform movement from being stifled in its infancy, and instructions were given that the preparatory work leading to reform was to continue.

Simultaneously with these developments, the Headmaster of the St. Stephen's school in Vienna, Josef Messner, who, by virtue of his office, was also Supervisor of the other schools in the city and had first-hand knowledge of their deficiencies, determined to aid the progress of reform. He sent one of his assistants to study the work being done by the Abbot Ignaz von Felbiger in Sagan (Silesia), and to report on his return. Felbiger had studied in Berlin the methods of Johann Hecker in his "Realschule" and had been particularly impressed by
his success in the Teacher Training Establishment attached to the "Realschule", and also by the use of tables (Tabellen) and mnemonics as aids to study. In Sagan he introduced and adapted some of the methods he had seen used in Berlin and soon the educational system of his district gained a considerable reputation. The report by Messner’s assistant on his stay in Sagan led to the decision to create "Schulkommissionen" in each Province (at first only Upper and Lower Austria actually did so) - these bodies corresponded approximately to the present "Landesschulräte". Also, a Teachers' Training Department was added to the St. Stephen's school in Vienna.

Meanwhile, in Bohemia, Ferdinand Kindermann, Priest in Kaplitz, shocked by the condition in which he found his Parish School, determined to bring about an improvement. He, too, visited Felbiger in Sagan, studied the available educational literature and set about restoring order in his school and gaining the confidence of the parents. His success was considerable, teachers came from other schools to study his methods, which consisted mainly in keeping firm discipline and ensuring that the pupils were constantly occupied (Massenunterricht), and eventually he was able to set up a small Teachers' Training College, so that his methods gradually spread throughout Bohemia. When the "Schulkommission" was established in Prague (1775) he was appointed a member and simultaneously Chief Supervisor (Oberaufseher) of Schools in Bohemia. He set up the Normal
School in Prague and lectured there. As Supervisor of Schools he was responsible for the introduction of what was termed "Industrial - Unterricht", by which the pupils, in addition to their literary education, were able to devote time to subjects like weaving, spinning, knitting, orchard cultivation and gardening.

In an attempt to correlate and consolidate all this varied and widespread activity, and to avoid possible obstructionist tactics on the part of the Chancellery, Maria Theresa decided in 1774 that the "Studienhofkommission" should be responsible to her personally. With the permission of Frederick II of Prussia, she invited Felbiger to Vienna and charged him with the drawing up of a school code for the whole of German Austria. This appeared on 6th December, 1774 as the "Allgemeine Schulordnung für die deutschen Normal-Haupt - und Trivialschulen in Sämtlichen Kaiserlichen - Königlichen Erblanden". (General School code for the German Normal, Central and Trivial Schools in all Imperial-Royal hereditary provinces.)

This was the first really Austrian piece of educational legislation, and marked the emergence, in Maria Theresa's words, of the school as a "Politicum". Some of its more important clauses were:

School attendance was to be compulsory between the ages of six and twelve. Schools were to be of three types:

1. "Trivialschulen": These were to be one- or two-class schools, established in every parish and in places (Fileale)
possessing a subordinate church, which were far from the chief village in the parish. The pupils were to be given instruction in the "3 R's" and in Religion, in addition to courses designed to be of assistance to them as peasants and landworkers.

2. "Hauptschulen": Three-class schools, set up in larger towns and in monasteries in such a way that, if possible, every "Kreis" (political district) possessed such a school. The course included, in addition to the basic "3 R's" and Religion, elementary Latin, advanced work, including essays, in the language of instruction, nature study, geography, history, free-hand and geometrical drawing and surveying. Instruction in Domestic Science and Agriculture was also to be provided.

3. "Normalschulen": Four-class schools, in all Provincial capitals; these were the schools setting the standard which was to be the eventual aim of all schools. They offered the same subjects as the "Hauptschulen", but, because of better facilities, a higher level of attainment was anticipated. In addition, they often included a Sunday Art School (Sonntags-Zeichnenschule), and they undertook the training of teachers, providing both theoretical instruction and teaching practice. The training course lasted six months; it was also provided at some "Hauptschulen".
The educational supervision of the "Trivialschulen" was exercised by the Parish Priest, who had to possess a training certificate from a "Normalschule". For administrative duties a supervisor was elected from the parish. This local administration was responsible to the District Supervisor (Distriktssaufseher), who was usually a senior Priest and whose duties also included the supervision of the "Hauptschulen" in his district (Kreis). He reported to the "Kreisamt" (District Offices), corresponding to the present "Bezirksschulrat", which in turn was subordinated to the "Schulkommission" of the Province (the present "Landesschulrat"), to which the Headmaster of the "Normalschule" was also responsible. Felbiger himself was the "Generaldirektor" of all elementary education, and was himself subordinated to the "Studienhofkommission" (Royal Commission for Education). So there was set up a system of control and administration which, in its essentials, has changed little since its inception.

School texts were to be published and provided free if necessary. With this purpose in mind, the school publishing house (Schulbücherverlag) which was set up in Vienna in 1772 was to be taken as a model for the publishing facilities which were to be provided in all "Normalschulen" desiring them. The provincial establishments, however, were empowered only to publish books for the "Trivialschulen" and these had to be identical with the Viennese editions. In this respect centralisation was most marked.
Light is thrown on the previous living conditions of teachers by the clauses forbidding them to act as professional musicians in inns and also depriving them of the right to carry on business as innkeepers.

Thus Felbiger, with the support of the Empress, which he continued to enjoy until her death, had succeeded in giving Austria an elementary education act which promoted, in a remarkable degree for that period, the establishment of schools, the attendance of pupils and the professional preparation of the necessary teachers. In addition, he contributed much to the adoption of modern methods of class-teaching and to the provision of text-books in the more important subjects - he produced the first Austrian Reading Book for Schools, various editions of the Catechism, Arithmetic and Grammar Books as well as manuals of instruction for their use. After the death of Maria Theresa, however, Felbiger's immediate influence waned and Josef II requested his resignation when he was beginning to turn his attention to the Military Academies. Even in his retirement, however, he busied himself with school matters and in 1783 he published, in collaboration with Jacob Schmutzer, later Director of the Vienna College of Art (Akademie der bildenden Kunst) a manual governing the teaching of Art in the "Normalschulen" and "Hauptschulen".

The next few years were devoted to the implementation of the various clauses of the "Schulordnung". Progress was, as can be expected, by no means uniform in the various
provinces - Bohemia being perhaps the most enterprising - and in many cases the actual situation bore little resemblance to that which should have existed in theory. This was particularly the case in provinces where language problems had to be met e.g., we find the Emperor Josef II expressing his dissatisfaction over the state of education in Galicia in 1780. Time was of course necessary for the erection of the necessary buildings and also for the provision of the teaching staffs required, and it is likely that school attendance, particularly in country districts, was usually bad. Josef endeavoured to meet the situation by the provision of school funds (Normalschulfonds) and by bringing pressure to bear on those whose duty it was to establish and maintain schools. He instructed the District Education Authorities to make a census of the children of school age and to enforce their attendance at school. By the provision of syllabuses (Lehrpläne) he sought to improve the standard of teaching and, with the same aim in view, he improved the financial position of the teachers. He allowed Protestants and Jews to establish their own schools where numbers justified this, but his desire to have German used everywhere as the language of instruction met with bitter opposition from the other "nationalities".

The new measures laid severe burdens upon the community and it should not be supposed that these were everywhere
willingly assumed. Indeed complaints from local authorities were frequent, and the French Revolution strengthened the hands of the more conservative groups, and demands were made that the "Schulordnung" be revised. Josef's successor, Franz, according authorised the formation in 1795 of a commission to study what changes might be made in the educational system (Studienrevision kommission). This body proceeded to draw up the "Plan für die deutschen Schulen", which was debated at various levels and finally approved in 1804. After the addition of some detailed "Instruktionen" (Instructions for its implementation) it finally appeared in March 1806 in the form of an Education Act - "The political constitution of the German Schools". (Politische Verfassung der deutschen Schulen). This was the second important piece of legislation governing the lower levels of education in Austria, and it was to remain valid, in most respects, for more than sixty years.

Although many of the clauses of the "Schulordnung" of 1774 were retained, the new regulations made some important changes, mainly in what might be termed a conservative direction. More control returned to the Church, the lay commissioners at the different levels being withdrawn, and a "Scholasticus" being now the chief educational official of each province. The teachers were now often expected to help in the training of church choirs and to act in the capacity of "Messer" (Verger). They had as yet no pension rights of any kind but the new Act
made it possible for the teacher to make arrangements to have his son succeed him. (Lehrergenerationen).

The compulsory school age remained as before - from six to twelve - but children were now to attend the "Sunday Schools" until the age of eighteen. To the three existing types of school - Trivial, "Haupt", and Normal Schools - there was added the "Realschule", providing the same subjects as the "Normalschule", but with a commercial or technical bias and also giving instruction in the History of Art, Chemistry and Foreign Languages. It was therefore in some degree a Vocational School (Berufsschule). The curriculum of the "Normalschule" and the "Trivialschule" remained unchanged, but the "Hauptschule" suffered a reduction in the number of its subjects, and more attention had to be paid to the "3 R's" and to Religion. The training of teachers still took place in the Normal Schools and in some "Hauptschulen", but the length of the training course for a teacher in the Trivial Schools was reduced to three months. Some more Girls' Schools were set up in larger centres for girls of the educated classes (die gebildeten Stände). Co-education was officially frowned upon but the absence of separate girls' schools in most districts made it necessary, and the sexes had therefore to sit apart in the same rooms. Teaching methods were to aim at the development of memory and the application of knowledge. A new "Methodenbuch" was issued and had to be strictly
followed and nothing extra was to be added. The cost of providing buildings, equipment, heating etc., was met by the local authorities but the State could, by means of the Normal and Provincial School Funds (Normalschulfonds, Landesschulfonds) grant temporary financial assistance to local authorities which were too poor to meet the burden they had assumed. Permanent financial help was also given to schools performing more than a restricted local function e.g., the Normal Schools.

The period between the passing of the "Politische Schulverfassung" and the revolutionary year of 1848 saw few educational developments in Austria. Financial and political conditions were unfavourable, to any spectacular progress. Attempts to set up better institutions for the training of teachers failed several times because of the cost, the only result of these efforts, including that of the Emperor himself, being that the length of the training course was increased to one year. The work being done by Pestalozzi and Fröbel and the humanism and the, in some respects, liberal philosophy of writers and philosophers like Lessing, Herder, Schiller, Goethe, and Kant, Fichte, and Hegel, were of course not unknown to teachers in Austria. The existence, however, of an official "Methodenbuch" and of a severe censorship of all text-books prevented the new ideas from having the practical effect they achieved in other countries.

Statistics for the year 1847 indicate that the
establishment of "Trivialschulen" in the territory corresponding to present-day Austria had proceeded remarkably far. In that year there were 4,143 such schools, as compared with 4,582 "Volksschulen" in the year 1935/36 and 4,426 in 1954/55. The other provinces showed great variation in their educational achievement, Bohemia being still the most progressive and the more eastern areas, like Moravia and Galicia, making slower progress. School attendance, too, was still far from perfect, figures for 1857 showing that approximately 60% of the children of school age did in fact attend. In this category the same tendency is found for the Western Provinces to lead the Eastern for example the Province of Salzburg claimed 100% while Galicia is quoted as having 16% of its school-age children in attendance at school. The linguistic and racial difficulties were great, communications poor, and cultural standards deteriorated as one moved eastwards. These facts are always adduced by Austrian educationists in refutation of criticism directed at their administration of the Eastern areas. The complexity of the political situation was also important - the almost entirely German administration being often reluctant to surrender its position of superiority, while Imperial policy frequently sought to retain power by playing one nationality off against another. In addition the central government, faced by the external problems of maintaining Austria's position in the German Confederacy, in Italy and in the Danube
basin, wished to maintain an internal solidarity and looked with disfavour and some trepidation upon the liberal and nationalist tendencies becoming so apparent within the country, tendencies which found at least temporary expression in the revolutionary outbreaks of 1848.

The main educational result of the events of 1848 was the replacement of the "Studienhofkommission" by the Ministry of Education (Ministerium für Unterricht). Its first important act was to produce a plan for the reformation of the entire educational system, in conformity with the more liberal spirit of the times. This plan appeared in June 1848 as the "Sketch of the fundamental characteristics of the public system of education in Austria (Entwurf der Grundzüge des öffentlich Unterrichtswesens in Österreich). It was the result of work carried out in the "Reform Department" (Reformabteilung) of the Ministry by Professor Franz Exner, joint author of the fundamental work which laid down the character of Secondary Education in the country.

As can be expected, this plan was in the main liberal and progressive, and designed to meet the new responsibilities which the growth of political democracy would impose upon education. Opportunity for a full education must be open to all, even the poorest, while at the same time the freedom of the citizen and the rights of the family should be safeguarded. (Indem der Staat die Kraft und den Willen des Einzelnen im
Bezug auf Unterricht und Bildung zu ergänzen bestrebt ist, muss ihm zugleich die Freiheit Seiner Bürger und insbesondere das Recht der Familie heilig sein; er darf sie nirgends ohne Not beschränken).

The "Entwurf" foresaw three main stages in the educational system - the "Volksschule", the "Mittelschule" and the "Hochschule". In addition, encouragement was to be given to the Kindergärten and the hope was expressed that they would increase in number and importance. The compulsory school age remained from six to twelve, there were to be Continuation Schools (Fortbildungsschulen) held on Sundays, until the age of fifteen.

Elementary schools were to be established in every "Gemeinde" in which there were at least sixty children of school age and which was too far from an existing school to allow the pupils to be educated there. Each "Volksschule" was to be at least a three-class school, and elementary education in all country schools, and in the towns for poor children, was to be free. An attack on centralisation and authoritarian control was also made - local conditions and needs were to be taken into account in framing the curriculum (in particular, the difference between the needs of town and country children was to be catered for), and teachers were to be free in their choice of teaching methods. Private individuals or corporations were to be allowed to set up their own schools, if
they satisfied the general legal requirements - denominational schools, in addition to the Catholic ones, were to be given freedom.

Administration and inspection too were to become less authoritarian. The individual schools were to be administered by a commission, under the combined chairmanship of the Parish priest and the Headmaster, and made up of the teachers and lay representatives of the parish. This commission was to be responsible to the District Inspector (Bezirkaschulinspektor, Kreisschulinspektor), who was assisted by a "Kollegium" made up of elected representatives of the District. The next higher authority was the Provincial Educational Council (Landeschulrat), which was composed of experienced former teachers, each responsible for some branch of the educational system, and of a Church representative, who was in charge of the teaching of Religion throughout the province. The supreme authority was the Ministry of Education. These proposals reduced the authority of the Church in general educational matters and also that of the Civil Service administrator. Teachers were to have more control and there was envisaged the system of "Kollegial" authorities, made up of educationists and elected lay representatives, which was to be characteristic later - indeed, the proposals gave a remarkably accurate forecast of the eventual system.

The training of teachers, too, was to be improved.
Independent Training Colleges (Lehrerbildungsanstalten, Lehrerseminarien) were to be set up, in which courses of two, later three years' duration were to be instituted. Certification depended upon success in both theoretical and practical tests, minimum salaries were fixed on a provincial basis and pension rights granted. In this sphere, too, the democratic trend was made evident by the decision to hold twice-yearly "District Teachers' Conferences" (Bezirkslehrerkonferenzen), in which experience was to be exchanged and new methods made known and discussed. This clause, also, pointed towards future developments.

The "Entwurf" described itself as a programme for development, to be discussed and criticised by specialists and public and then implemented by the issue of "Lehrpläne" (Syllabuses) detailed "Instruktionen" and "Verordnungen" (Ordinances). However, the political reaction after 1848 prevented any large-scale execution of the measures advocated. The return to absolutism and the conclusion of the Concordat in 1855 meant that the democratic, liberal trend was checked and the influence of the Church once again strengthened. The "Kollegial" Provincial Educational Authorities (Landesschulbehörden) were indeed set up in 1849 but in 1854 they were dissolved, control reverting to the political authorities, with the help of Educational Advisers (Schulräte). The
reforms in Secondary Education, proposed in the "Suggested plan for the organisation of Gymnasien and Realschulen in Austria" (Entwurf der Organisation der Gymnasien und Realschulen in Österreich), published in 1849, were largely put into effect but compulsory schooling remained for the most part based on the "Politische Schulverfassung".

Some internal progress was made, however. Pestalozzi's methods were slowly finding some official favour—teachers were recommended to use his "Lautiermethode" (sounding method) in the teaching of reading and his "Anschauungssunterricht" (observation methods) were also introduced where considered applicable. Practical work, too, received attention, school gardens being cultivated in country districts, while special courses were begun to train teachers for the instruction of blind, and deaf and dumb children, so that such pupils could receive at least some education in the "Volks- schulen" and not only in the few special institutions in Vienna and Prague.

In 1849 the "Entwurf's" proposals with regard to Teacher Training were implemented and Training Colleges were established, candidates for which had to be sixteen, have completed the "Unterrealschule" or the Junior Department (Unterstufe) of the "Gymnasium", and to have some knowledge of music. Thus was assured a certain standard of previous
education upon which could be built a systematic theoretical and practical course of training.

In 1849, also, a new school type was created. The previous "Unterrealschule" was transformed into the 2- or 3-class "Bürgerschule", which rested upon the foundation of the "Hauptschule", now a 4-class institution, and was destined to train its students for a commercial, agricultural or industrial career. Its teachers were specialists and were to be graduates from the full course in the "Realschule". Subjects taught included, in addition to the basic group, a Foreign Language, (either one spoken within the Empire or French or English) Physics and Chemistry, Geometry and Architecture. Thus some provision was in fact made for pupils to enjoy more than the previous elementary education, without their having to go to a "Mittelschule" which very many could not afford. This did not, of course, constitute "equality of opportunity" but at least some concession was made. The "Bürgerschule" was destined to last until 1927, when it was replaced by the modern "Hauptschule".

From 1860 - 1867 the Ministry of Education had no independent existence, education being dealt with by a Department of the Ministry of State, with the educational officials serving merely in an advisory capacity. The Ministry was reborn into a prosperous bourgeois Austria which, however, had distinct liberal tendencies. Industry and trade were
flourishing, communications were being improved and the natural resources of the Empire developed to the full. Building was in full swing - some of the most famous of the buildings along Vienna's "Ringstrasse" date from this period - and the cultural life of the cities, and of the capital in particular, was at its height. Bruckner, Wolf and Brahms were at work in Vienna and Johann Strauss had won world renown for the Viennese Waltz. The University of Vienna, especially its Medical School, was at its most famous, attracting students from many foreign countries.

Such was the atmosphere in which the Ministry of Education resumed its work, an atmosphere which was to some extent expressed in the clauses of the "Fundamental Law concerning the general rights of the citizens" (Staatsgrundgesetz über die allgemeinen Rechte der Staatsbürger) published in 1867. This legislation, along with that of the following year governing the relationship between Church and State, paved the way for the important educational measure of 1869, whose clauses provided the basis and showed the direction of all later educational measures. This was the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz".

The "Fundamental Laws" of 1867 had laid down the equality of all citizens before the law (Art. 2) had guaranteed the freedom of person (Art. 8), property (Art. 5) and conscience (Art. 14) and, of particular importance, had stated that "Knowledge and the dissemination of it" were
also to be free (Die Wissenschaft und ihre Lehre ist frei). Every citizen who possessed the necessary qualifications had the right to establish and administer schools (Unterrichts- und Erziehungsanstalten) and to teach in them. The State reserved for itself the supreme control of all education, the Churches being responsible only for the teaching of religion. (Art. 17). All "nationalities" in the Empire had equal privileges and possessed the right to preserve and promote their own "national feeling" (Nationalität) and language (Art. 19).

Upon this basis of social and political legislation, therefore, the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" established the future framework of the Austrian compulsory educational system. It was natural that it should adopt many of the proposal of the liberal "Entwurf" of 1848 and therefore equally understandable that it should meet with much opposition from more conservative sections of the population and, in particular, from the Catholic Church, which saw its own position weakened by the creation of the inter-confessional school. The liberalism of which we spoke in a previous paragraph was mostly a city, and, in particular, a Viennese phenomenon; in the country districts and smaller towns, the Church was still the strongest influence and the inhabitants were largely conservative in outlook. Mutual distrust between capital and provinces was sharpened, a process helped by the gradual development
of the two new political parties which, together, were to overthrow the old, rather loose, liberalism and replace it by the more sharply defined ideas of Christian Democracy and Social Democracy. These two new parties, led at first by Karl Lueger and Viktor Adler respectively, have since dominated the Austrian political scene and have between them determined to a considerable extent the course of development of the country's educational system.

The period of compulsory school attendance was increased by two years and now lasted till the age of fourteen, a fact which much displeased the peasant who saw their normal source of labour adversely affected. In the new "Volks-schule" the curriculum was widened by the inclusion of history, geography, nature study, drawing, singing and gymnastics; and more modern teaching methods, based on the work of Pestalozzi, Diesterweg and Fröbel, were to be encouraged. This tendency was helped by the new comparative freedom in the compilation and publication of text-books, which were now to be submitted, by their authors or publishers, to the Ministry for approval, thus depriving the strictly controlled "State Publishing Office" (Schulbücherverlag) of its monopoly. The appearance, too, of more books published by educationists, mostly Training College workers, helped the movement in this direction, as did the new regulations for the training of Teachers. Following Exner's proposals of 1848, - and then going beyond them -
this was now to be provided by four-year courses in Training Colleges, entrance to which required successful completion of the "Unterstufe" of the "Realschule" or the "Gymnasium". The course was widened to take into account the needs of country pupils, instruction being given in agriculture and in domestic subjects. Later, teachers were to be kept abreast of educational developments by the production of periodicals, the provision of teachers' libraries and the holding of regular conferences. The "Bürgerschule" received attention, too, inasmuch as an effort was made to increase its numbers and to develop in it a course of education which, while not presuming to be the equivalent of that provided by the "Mittelschule", would at least be superior to that which the normal "Volkschule" could offer.

To sum up, therefore, the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" attempted to give the country a uniform system of popular education, in which the danger of possible rigidity was to be minimised by the Federal principle on which it was to be executed. This is perhaps best illustrated by the manner in which syllabuses were produced. These, and all internal school regulations, were in the last resort decided upon by the Minister, after consultation with, or petition (Antrag) from the Provincial authorities. In practice, these latter possessed - and still possess - great power except in matters of national policy. Neither of the two main political
groups was completely satisfied - the new socialist and old liberal parties would have preferred a completely "lay" school, with no religious instruction, as in France, while the Catholic party had striven for a "confessional" school, emphasising the importance of religion in all aspects of school life. As far as the racial difficulties within the Empire were concerned the new law appeared to safeguard the various "national" interests. General social and industrial problems, too, were attacked - the most important articles in this respect being those which sought to protect the children of school age who were employed in factories. According to Article 24, factory owners were responsible for ensuring that their child workers received the necessary elementary education. Factory schools were to be set up (Art. 60) in which the pupils should receive at least twelve hours education per week, at reasonable times. (This social problem was not finally solved until 1885 when legislation forbade the regular employment of children of school age.) In addition to these more general clauses, the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" regulated many of the details of the internal life of the schools. Most of these regulations, sometimes with slight or large-scale adaptations, are still in force. Many Austrian writers on education point with pride to these two aspects of the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" - aspects which might be termed its width and its depth - and very often claim that, as
a result of this legislation, Austrian elementary education had reached a level not attained by Germany until the days of the Weimar Republic nor by England until the Second World War. This view naturally accepts in advance the excellence of uniformity - a view which not all, in Austria as elsewhere, would share. The last comment to be made is that which one so often finds oneself making in Austria - what was decided upon in theory was by no means entirely put into practice.

The three or four years following the appearance of the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" were a period of intense activity, both in the central Ministry and in the Provincial and local (Gemeinde) offices. The executive details of the new law had to be formulated, new syllabuses and text-books produced and approved, buildings constructed and improved. Kindergarten facilities at one end of the educational process and Teacher Training arrangements at the other had to receive attention, while, in general, the attempt was made to adapt the schools to reflect the new wider conception of education. However, despite all this activity and the successful work which was done the "Neuschule", as the "Volksschule" of the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" was then called, failed to win the confidence of large classes of the population. The opposition of the Provincial politicians, the peasants whom they represented and, above all, of the Church - intensified perhaps by the rather
impatient and intolerant attitude of some of the new teachers - attained such strength that the Federal Parliament was forced to introduce new legislation in 1883. This took the form of the "Novelle zum Reichsvolksschulgesetz" (Amendment to the R.V.G.) and with it, the pendulum swung back some considerable distance.

This "reactionary" tendency of the new Law is illustrated by the restrictions imposed upon the syllabus - in addition to the "3 R's" and Religion, only the barest outline was to be given of subjects like history, geography and nature study - and in particular by the clause allowing exemption from school attendance, with very little formality, to pupils in the last two years of the course. The number of pupils per teacher was raised from a maximum of eighty to one hundred, and half-day schooling (Halbtagsunterricht) declared to be the rule. (The Reichsvolksschulgesetz had left some freedom on this point).

The District Education Authority (Bezirksschulrat) was no longer allowed to make a choice of text-books from those approved by the Ministry - This function was now reserved for the Provincial Authority (Landesschulrat). The Church scored a partial victory through the inclusion of the clause which laid down that the Head Teacher (Leiter) of any "Volksschule" must possess a qualification to teach the religion professed by the majority of the pupils in his school. In the "Bürgerschule", less
attention was to be paid to the "cultural" (allgemeinbildend) subjects and more to those preparing the pupil for a future occupation, such as Commercial Correspondence and Book-Keeping — thus discouraging any possible attempt to raise the status of the "Bürgerschule" in the direction of that enjoyed by the "Mittelschule".

However, much that was contained in the "Reichsvolks-schulgesetz" was preserved and a compromise was maintained on the thorniest problems — the confessional school and the creation of independent systems for and by the various nationalities. (Nationalisierung der Volksschulen). Attempts were made, by the Church on the one hand and by the Czechs on the other, to have these critical matters discussed in Parliament and, if possible, to force a solution but the proposals to do so were not accepted by the Ministry of Education and, as a result, did not reach Parliament. The uneasy situation, particularly with regard to the nationalities, thus continued until 1918, when this problem ceased to exist. The other has still not found a solution.

During this period of legislative reaction, however, internal progress was being made. More interest was being taken in the theory of education, Herbert's systematic methods were being discussed in the educational periodicals, which now appeared regularly, and in the Training Colleges in Vienna and the Provincial capitals. As a result these methods gradually
found their way into the "Pflichtschulen", as they had done in the "Mittelschulen". About the turn of the century, other new ideas began to affect the schools. The reaction against over-intellectualism, allied to the advances being made in Child Psychology, led to the demand for the encouragement of more creative co-operation on the part of the individual pupil. The "activity principle" (Selbsttätigkeit) made some progress and, with its kindred idea of "Kunstunterricht" (the use of art as the basis for creative activity by the pupil) led to the consideration of the "Arbeitsschule", and the effects of its adoption upon the work of the "Volksschule". Simultaneously the "Heimatgedanke" or "Heimatprinzip" (homeland principle), developed in Germany and strengthened by the Youth Movements like the "Wandervögel", gained influence in Austria. This principle, supported by the new Theories concerning the learning processes of the young child, led to the demand for "Bodenständigkeit" (emphasis on the immediate environment) in elementary teaching. These new ideas, we shall see, along with the political and social aims of the reformers, received much attention during the period of educational reform which followed the collapse of the Empire in 1918.

The new Federal Republic of Austria which emerged from the chaos at the end of the First World War set to work to create a system of education to meet the requirements of the changed situation. Although emphasis was now naturally laid
upon democracy, it was found possible, at first, to take over most of the fundamental legislation which was in existence. This included the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz", as amended by the "Novelle" of 1883 and the detailed executive regulations contained in the Schools Code (Schulordnung) of 1905.

The Federal nature of the new state was made evident by the compromise between centralisation and local control, a compromise inherited from the Habsburg era, admittedly, but now to be put into practice more than had previously been the case. The Ministry of Education, for example, was to have the right of inspection of all schools, but was to exercise this right only after notification of and consultation with the Provincial Authorities. The city of Vienna was detached from the province of Lower Austria and henceforth constituted a province of its own - a fact which, in educational as in other matters, widened the gap between the capital and the provinces. The German-speaking areas of what had been Western Hungary were formed into the ninth Austrian province of Burgenland and gradually received an educational system on the Austrian model.

Although the new Federal Republic was now predominantly German, Austria had not completely rid herself of the "nationality" problems which had plagued her in the days of the Empire. There remained a Czech-speaking minority in Vienna and a Slovene group living mainly in Carinthia. (To her great displeasure
Austria had lost the German-speaking population of the Sudetenland and South Tirol. The interests of these minority groups were safeguarded by the provisions of the Treaty of Saint-Germain. They were to be taught in their own languages - although German could be made compulsory in their schools - and were accorded the right to set up and administer their own schools, if they were prepared to meet the cost.

With much of the old authoritarianism now gone - at least temporarily - the new ideas which we mentioned in the last chapter begin to receive much more serious consideration. The Republican spirit, too, led to an earnest examination of the place of the individual in the new society and to a consideration of the practical importance for education of the results of this examination. On the one hand, the "Individual Psychologists" led in Austria by Alfred Adler, aimed at the full unhindered development of the individual personality, and their views were given precision by the progress being made in Child Psychology (Jugendkunde), especially by Karl and Charlotte Bühler in Vienna. Educationists who were most influenced by these arguments pressed for a curriculum which would give full opportunity for the all-round development of each pupil according to his abilities and which would lay stress on "personality" - both that of the pupil and that of the teacher. Of great importance to them was the relationship of teacher to individual pupil and also the illumination of the impersonal subject matter by the personality of the teacher. For
this school of thought, "the personality of the pupil was the most important aim of education and the personality of the teacher the most important means whereby this aim might be attained". (...die Persönlichkeit des Zöglings als wichtigstes Ziel und die Persönlichkeit des Lehrers als wichtigstes Mittel der Erziehung - Georg Stengel.)

On the other hand "Social Education" (Sozialpädagogik) sought to stress the importance of the individual's duty towards society and of his necessary self-subordination for the good of the community. The increased influence of the post-war Social Democratic Party strengthened the arguments of this side. In Munich, Georg Kerschensteiner, the University Professor who undertook the organisation of the city's Primary Education System, was a protagonist of this "Sozialpädagogik". He planned to construct, with the help of the educational machinery at his disposal, an ideal community and his method was the establishment of compulsory "Vocational Schools" (Berufsschulen), in which the pupils would obtain the idea of social co-operation and division of labour. In Austria the "Social Educationists" did not propose any such radical scheme of reform but demanded an education which would emphasise the civic duties of the individual and would, at an early stage, give the pupil a general understanding and appreciation of the community in which he lived (staatsbürgerliche Erziehung). In Vienna, Otto Willmann studied this question of "Individual and Society"
and pointed out the direction which was in fact to be followed, by emphasising the equal importance of the two seemingly opposed bodies of opinion. This compromise was accepted when the time came to consider, in a more practical fashion, the aims and methods of the "Volksschule".

Meanwhile the revolt against "sterile intellectualism" - mentioned previously - went on and increased in intensity. Its supporters declared that the whole educational aim of the pre-war "Volksschule" - and indeed of other schools also - was the "greatest possible piling-up of knowledge" (möglicher Anhäufung von Wissen - Ludwig Battista). As a result, aesthetic, moral and religious values had been almost completely ignored and the great need now was to accord to them the place they merited. The importance of "the true, the beautiful, the good and the holy" (die Bedeutung des Wahren, Schönen, Guten und Heiligen) was to be emphasised in the schools, by the direction of greatly increased attention to subjects like Art, Singing, Poetry and Gymnastics. Connected with this general "Aestheticism (Ästhetizismus) was the more particular movement of "Kunsterziehung" (Education through Art) which derived largely from Ruskin, had occupied German educationists in the first decade of the century and which, although not attaining its larger aim, led to a more imaginative and freer treatment of Art in the Schools.

Excessive intellectualism was attacked from another
side also, by the proponents of "Voluntarismus", who stressed the importance of the formation of character and, in particular, of the development of the will-power of the pupil. On the didactic side this led to a support of the methods of the "Arbeitsschule", and, as far as "Erziehung" was concerned, to a statement of the importance of "Moral Education", (Moral-pädagogik) and of character-building. This latter aspect of training, it was claimed, was too frequently neglected, although the difficult social conditions after the war made its importance all the more evident. Friedrich Wilhelm Förster, a Professor in the University of Vienna, expressed this point of view and wanted more training in self-discipline and pupil self-government in the schools (Selbsterziehung - Selbstregierung der Schüler). An offshoot, as it were, of the problem of Moral Education was the question whether moral instruction should replace Religion in the school - as in France - or should supplement it or should, in fact, be given at all. Here of course, the sharp division of opinion was along Party lines and the approximately equal strength of the contending groups ensured that no radical step would be taken.

In March 1919, after the General Election, Otto Glöckel took over control of educational administration, as Under-Secretary of State. There was at the time no separate Ministry - Education forming part of the responsibility of the Ministry of the Interior. (Innenministerium). Glöckel was a former
elementary school teacher and undertook with great enthusiasm the work of rebuilding and reforming where necessary his country's educational system. As we have seen, the legal position was satisfactory but the internal conditions in the schools - in particular the outmoded curricula and teaching methods - required attention. Głöckel's general aims were a broadening of popular education and a raising of its standards, a just and efficient selection of pupils for higher education, and a "democratisation" of the administration, including the employment in the Ministry of many former teachers instead of Civil Service administrators. He planned that, at lower administrative levels, teachers and people's representatives should form the authorities. Parents' Associations were planned, as were Professional Associations for teachers.

As soon as he took office, he established the Reform Department (Reformabteilung), directly responsible to himself. This department had the task of working out plans for the organisation of compulsory schooling and for teaching methods in general and, at the same time, of ensuring that the teachers were at once informed, and kept informed, of the intentions of the Ministry.

The "Reformabteilung" proposed the following organisation of the compulsory educational system:-

1. "Grundschule" - as the Junior Department (Unterstufe)
of the "Volksschule". This was a uniform compulsory school (Einheitsschule) for all normal children between the ages of six and ten; and contained four classes. Alongside this school were to be special institutions for handicapped children (Sonderschulen).

2. "Allgemeine Mittelschule" - for all normal pupils between ten and fourteen, but with two "streams" according to ability and preference. In places where such a school could not be set up, the Senior Department (Oberstufe) of the "Volksschule" was to remain and cater for the children until the age of fourteen.

3. From the first "stream" of the "Allgemeine Mittelschule", successful pupils could proceed to the four proposed "Academic Upper Schools" (allgemeinbildende Oberschulen) or to "Professional Schools" (Fachschulen; écoles professionnelles) of Secondary standard.

From the second "stream", it was planned that pupils would proceed to lower-grade Professional Schools" (niedere Fachschulen) or to Continuation Schools (Fortbildungsschulen) in conjunction with apprenticeship.

4. Elementary school teachers, after successful completion of an Upper School, were to receive two years' further education and training at a University.

The internal reform of the "Volksschule" was to be effected after consideration of all the new ideas and tendencies.
which were occupying the minds of educationists, philosophers and psychologists in the country. It was clear that such reforms must be directed principally towards the curriculum and teaching methods. The changed situation of Austria indicated the need to attempt to create a new patriotism and, to some degree, this coincided with the "Heimatgedanke" in its educational sense. Further, Child Psychology had indicated the importance of "Bodenständigkeit" in the instruction of young children, so the process could begin early, and move from the immediate environment towards a more general understanding of and love for the "Heimat". Civic instruction could easily be incorporated and thus the claims of "Sozialpädagogik" met to some extent. Study of the homeland, too, should be made to include consideration of its beauty, its customs, its dress and its music and dance, all conforming to the wishes of the supporters of "Kunsterziehung". The methods according to which all this work was to be covered took into account the demands of the "Individualist" and "Personality" schools of Psychology and Education. The individual pupil's powers and personality were to be developed by his purposeful and creative activity under the guidance of the teacher - that is, the "Arbeitsschule" method was to be introduced where practicable. Handwork for both boys and girls was, for example, expected to play an important part in this "Arbeitsschule". Under
this heading of methods, too, came the new emphasis on "Gesamtunterricht" (Konzentration), the method whereby, especially for the younger pupils, the old-fashioned barriers between subjects would largely disappear. A series of projects was to be devised, taking into account both "Bodenständigkeit" and the "Heimatprinzip", into which could be fitted instruction and exercises in the basic subjects like Arithmetic, Reading and Grammar. This was to be the method for the first three classes, in the fourth class there was to take place a gradual transition to teaching on a subject basis, which was to be employed in the later classes but with continued emphasis on "Konzentration", on the relationships between the subjects. It followed from all this that much freedom must be left to local initiative and to the individual teacher, which was of course in keeping with the general democratic tendency. When the Ministry issued its first "Lehrpläne" in 1920, these contained only general aims and provided a framework which the teachers were to complete for themselves. These "Lehrpläne", too, were experimental - work was to be carried out on the basis they laid down and teachers were invited to submit proposals and criticisms when they saw the progress they were making.

The new syllabuses had a mixed reception from the teachers but work was begun to implement them. This entailed much collection of material to meet the new demands of "Heimatkunde",

sorting and allocating the various items to the most suitable classes and devising methods of presenting them in conformity with the activity principle. Added to this were the learning of new freer methods in Gymnastics and the study which had to be devoted to Handwork which, in most cases, had to be introduced as a completely new subject. To help the individual teacher in this considerable work of preparation, the Ministry encouraged the setting up of "study groups" (Arbeitsgemeinschaften) at whose meetings the problems were discussed and solutions reached. With the same purpose, lecturers were sent from the Ministry's Reform Department to the various "study groups", and the official periodical of the Ministry, "Volkserziehung", was given a supplement (Pädagogischer Teil) in which the new ideas and proposed reforms were discussed.

For the "Volksschule" this period of experimentation lasted until 1926, when a consolidation took place - although an experimental syllabus was left in force in the eight-class schools until 1930. (In 1927 the establishment of the "Hauptschule", which built upon the first four classes of the "Volksschule" necessitated the adoption of a definite syllabus in these classes.) This final consolidation followed a consideration by the Ministry of the views of the "Volksschule" teachers themselves, the opinion of Secondary Teachers concerning the calibre of the recruits now coming from the Elementary schools and the judgment of the local and provincial inspectors.
concerned. In addition, professional and commercial bodies and many parents' associations contributed their opinions. As a result of all this information, the new definitive "Lehrplan" was issued. Although the new ideas and methods suffered a check on several fronts — notably in the attempts towards increased informality in the teaching of the "3 R's" — this new syllabus incorporated many of the proposed reforms. The activity principle had won its way into the school and the "Heimatprinzip" and "Bodenständigkeit" were firmly established. This latter factor was of particular importance in the country schools where increased attention was now to be paid to the way of life and the social and economic needs of the population. In this manner, it was hoped to stem the flight from the land (Landflucht), a struggle which, as in many other countries, had loomed increasingly large in Austria and which is still in the forefront of her educational problems. Few, if any, small country schools have had to close because of lack of pupils. The solution adopted in Scotland, for example, of providing larger schools in centrally situated spots, is often not practicable in Austria because of poor communications over mountainous country and of the snow conditions prevailing for several months of the year.

In the year 1935/36, there were in Austria 4,582 "Volksschulen" in which were educated 863,441 children. More than half of these schools were one- or two-teacher establishments, which gives an idea of the importance of the "Landschule"
in the elementary education system. There were only four schools which had eight classes, each under a separate teacher, but it should be remembered that the "Hauptschule" in many cases took pupils who otherwise would have remained in the "Volksschule". There were in fact 1,422 four-class "Volkschulen" in which a teacher was provided for each class, and whose pupils then went to "Hauptschulen".

Thus was set the general course which the "Volksschule" was to follow in the 1930's. The growing political tension and struggle for power provided an uneasy background but does not appear to have disturbed unduly the work of the schools. The Federal nature of the constitution allowed development to proceed peacefully in the main - within this constitutional framework, the traditionally "Red" Vienna could carry out its own schemes, largely in the form of welfare and social provisions, while the more conservative provinces followed their own line of development. The authoritarian regime of Dollfuss and, later, Schuschnigg tended to strengthen the position of the Catholic Church and of its schools and, at the same time, to increase the emphasis placed on patriotism in the schools both in the curriculum and in the outside activities where, however, the eventual suppression of all but the officially sponsored Youth Movement (Vaterländische Front) destroyed the democratic ideals which had existed in the 1920's. The motives of the Government were clearly patriotic - to
safeguard Austria from what they believed were the equal threats from Left and Right, from the Socialists and the Nazis - but the accuracy of their interpretation of the situation is open to doubt.

When the National Socialists took over control of Austria, the entire constitution and legal system of the country was abolished. As far as education was concerned the Ministry and its subordinate authorities were immediately removed and their duties taken over by the new political representatives of the central German Government in Berlin. Thus the democratic and "Kollegial" nature of these authorities was destroyed and replaced by strict political control.

In July 1938 the German Compulsory Education Act (Reichsschulpflichtgesetz) was applied to Austria. This decreed eight years of elementary followed by three years of vocational education - for agricultural workers this second period was reduced to two years. Due to the outbreak of war this clause concerning vocational education was never really carried out in Austria. All private schools were closed, and religion was not to be made compulsory. The curriculum was based upon the "Richtlinien" (Directives) for the German elementary schools and, in theory at least, the Austrian "Volksschulen", like the country itself, ceased to exist.

When the war broke out and as it progressed, the situation in the schools grew steadily worse - the shortage of teachers,
already evident in 1939, became acute as more and more were called to the colours. Later, the senior students of the Training Colleges were also conscripted, thus aggravating the position. School buildings were often requisitioned and the situation deteriorated until finally, when the war swept into Austria itself, the Austrian educational system collapsed completely.

When the war came to an end the Austrian Constitution of 1920 and the Austrian legal system once again were put into force, with the addition, provisionally, of many National Socialist regulations, provided these were not inimical to the ideals of a free and democratic Austria. On 20th July, 1945 the "Behördenüberleitungsgesetz" - a transitional measure re-establishing the various administrative authorities - set up once again the various educational bodies under the new Federal Ministry of Education, and the educational system was recreated as rapidly as possible. In the "Volksschule" the syllabus of 1926, which had been confirmed for the complete eight-year school in 1930, was adopted as the basis of instruction. Because of the many changes since the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz", legislation affecting the "Volksschule" is now very much a patch-work and there is much demand for a new law covering the entire educational system from the Kindergarten to the "Hochschulen". Despite much discussion there is as yet little sign of any such legislation appearing in the near future.
ii. The "Volkschule" To-day.

In 1954–55 there were in Austria 4,426 "Volksschulen", which provided instruction for 544,159 pupils of the statutory school ages i.e., from six to fourteen. The vast majority of these schools (4,324) were State institutions; of the 102 private primary schools 93 were owned by the Catholic Church while the Protestant Church had 2 schools. Country schools, with one or two teachers, provide almost half the total, there being almost 1000 of each of these two types. The commonest type in towns is the four-class school whose pupils all go on either to a "Mittelschule" or to the "Hauptschule" - indeed, the tendency is now for all town "Volkschulen" to follow this pattern, the "Hauptschule" being looked on as compulsory where it can cater for existing needs.

Despite the widespread official disapproval of co-education 3,932 "Volksschulen" are at present mixed schools, another interesting reflection of the large gulf between educational theory and practice. This question, too, it should perhaps be added, is in Austria answered, to a great extent, along political party lines - the People's Party condemning and the Socialists approving Co-education.

In the year in question 17,737 teachers were at work in the "Volksschulen" - 7,578 men and 10,158 women. It would appear that, as in many other countries, the ratio of women
to men among primary teachers is likely to increase, unless a change is made in the system of teacher training. At present, boys make every effort to complete a full Secondary Course and hence do not appear in any great numbers as candidates for entry to the Teachers' Training Colleges (Lehrerbildungsanstalten). The effect of this in the Rural Schools (Landschulen) may well be grave, as traditionally, and by regulation, such schools have a Headmaster— in many cases assisted by his wife—who is expected to play a vigorous part in the social and political life of the community served by his school. The People's Party are anxious to see this tradition maintained but, by their opposition to radical reform of Teacher Training, they seem to be making such a possibility more remote. Unlike the French "instituteur," the Austrian "Volksschullehrer" is not by tradition a Socialist; indeed the People's Party, except in industrial areas, claims the political allegiance of most Primary teachers. There is at present no shortage of teachers for the Primary Schools—in fact, since the post-war "bulge" has been dealt with, the opposite is the case, but the quality as well as the quantity of male entrants gives cause for concern.

In 1954-55 the average number of pupils per teacher in the "Volksschulen" was thirty-one. As stated above, however, a large number of schools are of the one- or two-teacher type, so that the teaching conditions are not so satisfactory
as the relatively low figure of thirty-one might at first sight suggest. As appears to happen in many countries now, the Austrian "Lehrer" complains bitterly of a superabundance of "extraneous" duties, making his work less attractive and rewarding than before and consequently discouraging new entrants to the profession. Despite the seemingly good staffing position, too, one hears on all sides the opinion that Headteachers should return wherever possible to more active teaching duty, in the interests, it is claimed, of pupils, teachers and of the Headteachers themselves. This would entail finding other employees to assume administrative duties or, alternatively, reducing these drastically. To many foreign observers it may well seem that Headteachers in Austrian Primary Schools can fairly be called upon to fill the dual role of teacher and administrator— their maximum teaching time per day being about 4½ hours— provided their conditions of Service are satisfactory and, in particular, that they are adequately paid for the extra work they have to undertake.

Despite the great differences in their preparation and conditions of service, Primary and Secondary teachers in Austria enjoy fairly amicable relationships, on the whole, although the gulf between the "Akademiker" and the "nicht-Akademiker" is not appreciably narrowed by their apparent community of interests. There is a certain lack of understanding, and consequently of sympathy, between the two grades of teacher which is perhaps most evident in connection with the transfer
of pupils from Primary to Secondary Schools. The opinion of the "Volksschullehrer" concerning the abilities of his candidates is asked for and given, but he feels, often with justice, that the examining Secondary teacher ignores his report and, worse, has not taken the trouble to familiarise himself with what the candidates should know, as laid down in the Primary syllabus. Resulting bitterness may then spread to the parents, who may blame either party but tend to assume that the "Herr Professor" will be in the right and that the "Volksschullehrer" has not done his job adequately. It is probable that, in Austria, the success of a Primary teacher is not measured, to the same degree as in Scotland, for instance, on his success in preparing pupils for Secondary education - the fact that he, and in many cases his superiors in the Inspectorate, did not attend Secondary Schools may partly account for this. In country areas, too, many parents are not anxious that their children should be removed to the towns and that their labour force should thus be reduced. This attitude is often encouraged by the Church and the local politicians of the People's Party. Elsewhere, however, the increasing demand for Secondary schooling means that the "results" of the Primary Schools in this field are bound to become more important and, in the minds of the parents at least, that the "successful" teacher will be the one who, no doubt among other things, enables large numbers of pupils to gain admission to a "Mittelschule".
The establishment of "Volksschulen" is in the power of the Provincial legislatures and is governed by the basic provision (Grundsatz) that such schools must be set up in places situated more than four kilometres from the nearest existing school if, on a five-year average, more than forty children live within one hour's distance of the locality in question. The special geographical and climatic problems in Austria are reflected by the clause making provision for "Emergency Schools" (Notschulen), which may be set up if weather conditions make it impossible for children to attend their usual school. Such "Notschulen" are normally classes conducted by a teacher sent for the purpose from the nearest "Volksschule" and may, according to the emergency, give full-time instruction to the pupils concerned or may, alternatively, function on a part-time basis.

The costs of establishment and maintenance of the "Volksschulen" are met, in the first place, by the parish (Gemeinde), which, in particular, is responsible for the more material side of the schools' needs - heating, buildings, playgrounds, gardens and the like. Minimum standards are set by Provincial regulations and the tendency is now for many "Gemeinden" to find themselves unable to meet the increasing costs of education within their area. Consequently more and more funds are now provided by the central, in this case, the Provincial authorities, to be administered by the local bodies. It is obvious that great differences exist,
even within the same Province, in the quality and suitability of "Volksschule" accommodation. Vienna possesses some quite magnificent Primary Schools, many dating from the Glückel "Reform Period" of the 1920's and early 1930's, which appear to be far superior to most Secondary Schools in the city. In smaller towns, too, one frequently sees spacious and attractive Primary School buildings, often, it should be said, where such buildings house "Hauptschulen" in addition. "Volkschulen" in country districts are often buildings of good appearance, especially in mountain villages, but the accommodation and equipment they possess can rarely be considered adequate. It is a surprising fact that, in 1954-55, only half of the State Primary Schools of music-loving Austria possessed a piano, and this despite the emphasis laid on both vocal and instrumental music in the training of their teachers. In the same year about the same proportion had Radio Sets.

The "catchment areas" or zones of recruitment (Schulkreis) for each "Volksschule" are decided by the "Landesschulrat" which publishes a register (Einschulungsurkunde) which shows the "zoning" plans for the whole Province, and which, of course, is altered if population changes make this necessary. Admission to school takes place, in normal circumstances, at the beginning of the school year which follows the sixth birthday of the child, and attendance continues, in theory, until the age of fourteen. Then the pupil may leave, provided he has acquired the basic essentials of education as prescribed in the syllabus of the "Volksschule" (die für die
Volksschule vorgeschriebenen Notwendigsten Kenntnisse). In practice, however, considerable exemption is granted to pupils during the last two years of the course. This is especially the case in country districts where general exemption (generelle Befreiung) is frequently granted, whole classes being freed to help with agriculture in the summer time. Such general exemption is sought by the local authorities and ratified by the "Landesschulrat". Individual exemption (individuelle Befreiung) is also common - the parents applying to have their children released from school to help at home. This individual exemption may also be on a seasonal basis, with the pupil attending school in winter only, or on a basis of part-time education, the pupil attending school on some days of the week and working on the others. The disorganisation caused by this widespread exemption, especially in small schools, must be considerable, despite the official efforts made to regulate the situation, and it is probable that in many areas attendance figures for the senior classes of the "Volksschule" are often low. The obligation upon the parent to have his child attend school can statutorily be enforced by means of fines, the money going to the District Education Funds (Ortsschulfonds), and by imprisonment for periods varying from twelve hours to four days in the case of repeated offences.

Great variety is to be noted also in the organisation of teaching time in the "Volksschulen", as indeed in all schools in Austria. The number of periods of instruction per week
ranges from eighteen for the youngest children to twenty-four or twenty-five for pupils of the higher classes. However, local social and geographical conditions, in addition to seasonal factors and the staffing position in the schools themselves all contribute to a situation which, to the outsider, seems rather chaotic and which undoubtedly causes great dissatisfaction to parents with several children. Some children attend school all day and consequently have a free day, usually on Thursday, and possibly a free afternoon on Saturday also. Others attend school in the mornings only every week-day - this is the most frequently-found arrangement - while others again, usually in the younger classes, are in school in the afternoons every day. A final arrangement, theoretically for cases of emergency usually due to absence of a teacher, is that whereby pupils attend school on alternate days only, thus having three long school-days each week. Comment on this rather mixed state of affairs is difficult - considerable flexibility is attained and, in some respects, the best possible use of existing teaching staff can be made, but it is doubtful if these advantages outweigh the many obvious drawbacks of the system. As already mentioned, most parents are decidedly in opposition to the absence of a more general routine and complain that too much importance is attached to administrative convenience and also, often, to the wishes of individual teachers. It seems clear that a system which may result in very young children returning home from school as late as
eight o'clock in the evening is open to severe criticism.

The legal basis, on which all aspects, external and internal, of the life of the "Volksschule" are founded, remains the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" of 14th May, 1869, amplified by the "Definitive Schul-und Unterrichtsordnung" (Definitive Code for Schools and for Instruction) of 1905. Individual Provinces usually published "Executive Regulations" (Durchführungsverordnungen), which govern the carrying out of the instructions contained in the Code, and continue to legislate for day-to-day educational affairs by issuing Directives based on the relevant clauses of the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz".

The official aim (Zweck) of the "Volksschule" has remained unaltered since it was formulated as the first paragraph of the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz". This states that "the duty of the Volksschule is to educate the children in morals and religion, to develop their intellectual activity, to equip them with the knowledge and skills essential for a further preparation for life and to provide the foundation for the training of sound human beings and members of the community". (Die Volksschule hat die Aufgabe, die Kinder sittlich-religiös zu erziehen, deren Geistestätigkeit zu entwickeln, sie mit den zur weiteren Ausbildung für das Leben erforderlichen Kenntnissen und Fertigkeiten auszustatten und die Grundlage für die Heranbildung tüchtiger Menschen und Mitglieder des Gemeinwesens zu schaffen). Thus the moral and religious development of the individual is put in the
forefront, followed by his intellectual stimulation, while vocational and social aims are formulated later. Too much should probably not be read into the order in which the various aims were stated - it is interesting to observe, however, that no changes, either in content, or in order, have been made since 1869. Most of the demands of the various "schools" of educational thought which, as we have seen, became active about the turn of the century appear to have been met in advance if the serious attempt was and is made to attain the aims of the "Volksschulen". Much room of course remains for argument concerning the methods by which the agreed aims are to be reached, although it should be emphasised that, in the minds of the practising teachers themselves, the main problem is that of imparting the necessary knowledge of the subjects laid down by the official curriculum. The gap between educational theory and practice, everywhere wide, is in Austria almost certainly increased because of the Austrian "penchant" for declaring general aims in sweeping terms.

Religious training in the "Volksschulen" is in the hands of the local Church Authorities, in most cases it is given by the Parish priest. Unless specially exempted at the parents' request, each child must receive religious instruction according to the doctrine of his own denomination. The youngest children receive one, and others two
periods of such instruction weekly. Moral training (Erziehung) is to be effected more by example than by precept. It is not taught as a "subject" but the teacher has to use every suitable opportunity - anniversaries, visits to statues, charitable activities and the like - to promote the moral development of the pupils. Such training is of course also of a social character and thus in keeping with the attempt to realise the last of the stated aims of the Primary School. It is clear that opportunities for such moral and social "Erziehung", and in consequence the nature of it, must vary considerably in different parts of the country. Local political environment is important too - in the country areas the activities of the Catholic year provide the background against which the school fulfils its moral and social function while, in many towns and industrial areas, the Church's role is very much less dominant, and the work of the Socialist party comes into the forefront. Official policy endeavours to hold the balance fairly in such matters but the fact that most "Volksschullehrer" are politically active in their villages must often lead to a certain amount of bias, intentional or otherwise.

Other aspects of what we might call moral and social training are also given attention. It is safe to claim that the compulsory schools are due much of the credit for the Austrian reputation of consideration for wild flowers and animals. From an early age pupils are instructed in the
nature-lore of their native districts, in particular, and urged to protect and preserve the flowers and the animals which need such protection. This education is, of course, carried on elsewhere and among adults - mountain inns, for example, usually display charts which list and describe the species to be protected - but the foundation of this education is laid in the schools. In the same way the schools promote a knowledge of and a respect for public monuments of all kinds (Denkmalpflege). This also brings good results throughout the country and is taken with real seriousness, especially as it so easily serves the purpose of fostering the desired "Heimatliebe" in its best sense: while also paving the way for the internationalism of outlook which is one of the aims of Austrian education.

Turning now from these aspects of "Volkschule" education which can best be classified as "Erziehung", we come to the more academic training (Unterricht) given in the schools. This is governed by the official Syllabus and Scheme of Work (Lehrplan), issued by the Federal Minister of Education, after consultation with, and consideration of the ideas of the Provincial Education Authorities. The "Lehrplan" lays down the number of hours to be devoted weekly to the various subjects of the curriculum and details the work to be covered in each subject. In the case of the "Volkschulen", and
unlike the "Mittelschulen", as we shall see, official instructions regarding the allocation of time to individual subjects are expressed on very general lines although no deviation is permitted from the requirements of the Scheme of work to be covered. Definite allocation is made only for language of Instruction (Unterrichtssprache), Arithmetic and Elementary Geometry (Rechnen und Raumlehre) and Religion. The time spent on other subjects is left to the schools, with the proviso that the demands of the scheme of work are met. In addition to the subjects mentioned, the "Volksschule" gives instruction in Reading, Writing, Drawing and Singing, in the elements of Natural History (Naturgeschichte) Physics (Naturlehre), Geography and History "with special consideration of the Fatherland and its constitution" (...mit besonderer Rücksichtnahme auf das Vaterland und dessen Verfassung). Girls are also instructed in Handwork, usually in the form of knitting and sewing. Gymnastics is a compulsory subject for boys but is optional for girls. The instructions do not preclude the inclusion in the curriculum of other subjects, should local conditions appear to warrant this, but any such proposed departure from the "Lehrplan" must receive official sanction. In this respect, it is anticipated that consideration would be given to the provision of instruction in a language other than the "Unterrichtssprache" - that is, normally to the
teaching of German in a school in a non-German speaking area. (This is largely a survival from the old Imperial days and is of little practical significance nowadays.)

The actual Time-table (Stundenplan) is drawn up by the Headteacher (Schulleiter), on the basis of the official "Lehrplan" and must be submitted for approval to the District Education Authority (Bezirksbehörde). In schools with more than one teacher the Time-table must be discussed by the entire staff in conference (Lehrerkonferenz) and should therefore satisfy all the individual teachers, so far as this is possible.

Teaching methods in the "Volksschule" clearly depend, possibly more than in very many countries, upon factors outside the purely pedagogical field. Work in the many single-teacher "Landschulen" containing pupils at all stages of compulsory education, is of course very different indeed from that in city schools, more and more of which are becoming four-class establishments carrying children up to the age of ten only. Another factor of importance in determining methods is the comparatively short nature of real "Primary" schooling. In four years pupils have to be fitted for possible promotion to Secondary Schools, which in general means that they must learn a great number of facts and master the basic skills quickly. This would indicate that little time remains for
what are so often termed the "frills" and fair experience of
the Austrian Primary schoolboy in class and at home appears
to confirm this assumption. The school life of the Austrian
"Volksschüler" is certainly not so grimly serious as that of
his French counterpart, struggling with his famous "cahiers"
which have to be presented to a most exacting critic, but it
is none the less no easy one if satisfactory progress is to be
made. Much is expected from the pupil, not merely of intelli-
gence, and diligence when in school, but also of responsibility
towards his work. Some of the demands in this direction seem
a little unrealistic and unrelated to any very clear idea of
the nature of childhood, but they are nevertheless made with
great insistence by teachers and administrators alike, and
are perforce echoed by these parents who are anxious that their
children should succeed in school.

It may seem difficult to reconcile this apparent con-
centration on the "3-R's" in the Primary School with the res-
ults which emerged from the work of educational reform in the
1920's. This work was based, it will be remembered, on the
realisation of the need for new methods in conformity with the
changed political situation and applying where suitable the
new pedagogical and psychological theories which had been elabor-
ated. The Syllabus and Scheme of Work which was produced in
1926 is still largely in force today, so that the "Heimatgedenke",
the "Arbeitsprinzip", and "Gesamtunterricht" remain officially in
favour. Certainly, understanding and love of Austria is still fostered wherever this is possible, but it is doubtful if the "Activity Principle" received in practice the application which its support in theory would seem to make probable. This is even more the case with the "Project Methods" whose adoption was favoured by the theorists and which are still advocated in many Training Colleges. The practical demands of the curriculum, especially that of the preparation of future "Mittelschüler", in addition to the obvious problems of organisation and discipline inherent in the methods of "Gesamtunterricht", have caused most practising teachers to pay mere lip-service to official theory. It is perhaps true to say that the Reforms of the 1920's were the culmination of the reaction against the narrow "Lernschule" of Habsburg days, and that a period of consolidation and, partly, of rejection of extremism was bound to follow. Added to this is the factor to which allusion has often to be made - in Austria educational ideas are frequently formulated and adopted without much consideration having been given to the possibility of their practical application. Such a state of affairs is not, of course, confined to Austria but the gap between theory and practice is emphasised by the Austrian insistence upon much high-sounding statement of aims and methods. An experienced educationist, Hofrat Dr. Karl Köchl, writing in 1949 a handbook of instruction and information for Primary teachers, attempts to sum up the actual situation with regard to methods of teaching in the following words: "No definite
teaching method is prescribed for any subject; teachers must however, avoid all experimentation with methods, and, in their teaching, have regard to the basic principles of methods which are recognised in theory and in practice" (Eine bestimmte Lehrmethode wird für keinen Lehrgegenstand vorgeschrieben; die Lehrer haben jedoch jedes Experimentieren mit Methoden zu vermeiden und bei ihrem Lehrverfahren die in Wissenschaft und Praxis anerkannten methodischen Grundsätze zu beachten - 'Schulpraxis' - Leykam: Graz/Wien 1949, Page 70). The writer’s emphases are obviously significant. The demands of the "Lehrplan" have to be met and "results", in the form of the pupils' acquisition of the facts and skills considered suitable for his stage of development, have to be obtained. Methods which jeopardise to any serious extent the attainment of these aims will meet with disapproval, and most teachers find these aims best attained by traditional methods of teaching, at any rate of the basic subjects of the curriculum.

It should not, however, be assumed that the Austrian "Volkschullehrer" are lacking in interest concerning new, experimental ideas of teaching. We have already made it clear that most of them follow with close attention developments in the theory of their craft. This interest is stimulated from official quarters by the holding of regular Conferences at various levels - Parish, District and Province - and by the work of the "Ständige Pädagogische Konferenz", to which we alluded in our introductory chapter. The District Conference
(Bezirkslehrerkonferenz) takes place annually and must be attended by all Primary Teachers, from among whose number delegates are sent to the Provincial Conference (Landeslehrerkonferenz) which is held every six years. In addition to Conferences, vacation courses of many kinds are held each year, usually in Provincial capitals, and organised by the Training Colleges. Most are held with a view to increasing the efficiency of teaching in the "fringe" subjects (Randstoffe) such as Art, Handwork etc., but some are of more general interest, dealing mainly with psychology and educational theory. Attendance at such "general" courses and discussion with the participants would suggest that, despite the interest usually aroused, they have little direct effect on the work of the schools.

iii. The "Hauptschule".

In its modern form the "Hauptschule" dates only from 1927. The name, however, as we have seen, existed long before. Maria Theresa's legislation of 1774 created "Hauptschulen" in larger towns to provide a rather fuller elementary education than could be given in the small "Trivialschulen". These early three-class "Hauptschulen" offered instruction in the basic essentials and also in elementary Latin, History and Geography. Some of them, too, had small Teachers' Training Departments, giving six-month courses for future Elementary School teachers. The "politische Schulverfassung" of 1806 restricted the curriculum of the "Hauptschule", more attention
being given to the "3-R's", and reduced the Teachers' Training course to three months. In 1849, the Ministry of Education set up the "Bürgerschule", the real predecessor of the present "Hauptschule", as a two- or three-year course following upon the completion of attendance at the existing "Hauptschule", and offering a wider curriculum including Science, History, Geography and a Foreign Language. The "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" brought the disappearance of the old-type "Hauptschule", and the "Bürgerschule" continued in the larger centres, as a kind of "école primaire supérieure", providing a "Junior Secondary" type curriculum up to the new school leaving age of fourteen.

During the period of experimentation after 1918, the Social Democratic party sought to establish a "common Secondary School" (Allgemeine Mittelschule) for all pupils between the ages of ten and fourteen. Accordingly, experimental classes of the proposed new type were begun in several "Bürgerschulen" in Vienna, and the results later evaluated. Despite the claims made for its success the supporters of the "Allgemeine Mittelschule" were unable to persuade the Government, now dominated by the Christian Socialists, to introduce the new common school. Instead, in 1926, the Minister of Education, Richard Schmitz, proposed a compromise - in place of the three-year "Bürgerschule" a new type of school, but with an old name, was to be established. This was the four-year "Hauptschule", introduced according to the clauses of the "Hauptschulgesetz" of 1927. Although not, as Otto Glöckel wished, a common school, it was based on
the organisation proposed for the "Allgemeine Mittelschule" and took into account the lessons learned from the Viennese experiment.

The modern "Hauptschule" is a four-year school, receiving its pupils at the age of "ten plus" from the fourth class of the "Volksschule". As such it corresponds approximately to the English Secondary Modern School or our Junior Secondary School - except for the year's difference in the age range - and, more closely, to the "Cours complémentaire" in France. Unlike the "Mittelschule" it forms part, the highest part, of the compulsory education system (Pflichtschulwesen). It is found chiefly in towns and in larger country centres, although, especially since 1945, much effort has been made to increase its numbers and to bring it within reach of the children in more remote areas. Like the proposed "common secondary schools" it is conducted where numbers permit, in two "streams" (Klassenzüge), allocation to which is made upon the Certificate (Zeugnis) of the Fourth Class of the "Volksschule" and the Primary teacher's estimate and report (Schülerbeschreibung). Recent increase in the use of psychological methods of selection has led to the adoption, in a growing number of Provinces, of a "Hauptschule" Entrance Test (Hauptschulreife test). This includes an Intelligence Test and Attainments Tests in German and Arithmetic. Its results are considered, along with the other evidence already mentioned, when decisions are made regarding admission to the school and allocations to a "stream".
By the application of this Entrance Test, it is hoped to eliminate the large discrepancies in numbers selected for the "Hauptschule" in various districts. Parents who are dissatisfied with the placing of their child in the "second stream" can apply to have him sit a Supplementary Examination (Überprüfung) at the "Hauptschule". Those pupils whose work proves quite unsatisfactory may, according to the "Hauptschulgesetz" of 1927, be sent back to the "Volksschule" to complete their education in the higher classes of that school. The present tendency, however, is to regard the "Hauptschule", where this is practicable, as a compulsory school for all but the very weakest pupils between the ages of ten and fourteen, so that the clause has little relevance today. Provision is also made in the Act (Para. 18a) for a pupil to be transferred to the "Hauptschule" from the higher classes of the "Volksschule", should his work warrant such a course of action.

The stated educational aim (Zweck) of the modern "Hauptschule" is two-fold. Firstly, it has, as the highest division of the compulsory school system, to provide a "rounding-off" (abschliessend) education which goes beyond that offered by the higher classes of the "Volksschule". In doing so, it is to be guided by its duty of fitting its pupils to meet the demands of practical life and of preparing them for entry to the Higher Vocational Schools (...die Schüler für den Eintritt
Accordingly, the school provides instruction in Religion, German, History, Geography, Natural History, Physics, Chemistry, Elementary Mathematics, Art, Handwork, Writing, Singing and Gymnastics. These subjects are compulsory and common to both "streams". The first "Klassenzug" has a modern foreign language - almost invariably English - as an additional compulsory subject, while optional subjects for both "streams" include Shorthand, Typing, Violin and Piano playing, and Domestic Science for girls. As an experimental measure, English is now often offered as an optional subject for girls of the "second" stream. No exalted level of attainment is of course expected - simple oral work being the aim. Esperanto is also officially listed as an optional subject but it appears likely that this is largely another case where theory and practice are far apart.

As a further aim, the "Hauptschule" has so to equip its best pupils that, if they wish, they may transfer to the next highest class of the "Mittelschule". In practice this can only affect the outstanding pupils of the first "stream" who, with an eventual transfer in mind, may from the Third class study Latin as an optional subject, thus widening their choice of "Mittelschule". (Without Latin the only possibility after the Third class would be the "Realschule"). This additional aim of the "Hauptschule" was included in the law of
1927 on the insistence of the Social democrats, who saw in it a preservation of at least some of their wishes regarding a "common secondary school". In theory, the syllabuses of the "Hauptschule" and the "Unterstufe" of the "Mittelschule" were to be identical - or, more exactly, the best pupils of the former school could study the same subjects as the normal secondary pupil. For country pupils this would have been a great advantage, as they could, between the ages of ten and fourteen, attend a nearby "Hauptschule" and only then have to think of the problems of boarding in the nearest large town containing a "Mittelschule". In practice, however, the transfer from school to school was seldom successfully achieved. Then in 1934, Schuschnigg, at that time Minister of Education, faced with the problem of increased numbers in the "Mittelschule" and a consequent overcrowding of the professions, so increased the difficulty of the syllabus in that school that the able pupil from the "Hauptschule" was in practice prevented from going on to complete a secondary course. In 1945 the original clause was re-introduced and is still in force. Thus, in theory, mistakes in the original selection for a full course of Secondary Education can be put right - in practice, however, as in the parallel case of transfer from Junior to Senior Secondary courses in Scotland, such promotion is rarely successful. Again as in Scotland it is almost invariably necessary for the pupil in
question to "repeat" a year and, even then, satisfactory subsequent progress is the exception rather than the rule. The reasons are obvious - the more selective group makes more rapid progress, especially in Austria, where the weeding-out process (Auslese) in the Secondary Schools begins early and is often ruthless.

In 1954-55 there were in Austria 796 "Hauptschulen", 516 of which were one-stream and 280 two-stream schools. The overwhelming majority (727) were under direct State control while 67 were Church institutions, all Catholic. The "Hauptschulen" provided instruction for 236,676 pupils, as compared with 56,822 in the "Mittelschulen". Since 1945 there has been a spectacular rise in the number of "Hauptschule" classes - in that year only 97,309 children attended these schools, whose classes then averaged 35 pupils as against 32 in 1954-55. The supply of teachers has kept pace with the increase in demand, rising from 4,997 to 11,007, usually by teachers in the "Volkschulen" obtaining the extra qualifications necessary for appointment to a "Hauptschule". Almost exactly half (141) of the two-stream "Hauptschulen" are in Vienna, whose traditionally Socialist administration has always devoted much attention to this type of school. The predominantly agricultural provinces, with the exception of Carinthia, had, in the year for which figures are given, as yet no "Hauptschulen" organised on the two-stream basis which is the aim where numbers warrant it.
We have said that the "Hauptschulen" have increased their number rapidly in the post-war years. This, it should be emphasised, has taken place not at the expense of the full Secondary Schools but by the implementation of the aim to provide more ambitious courses within the system of compulsory education. There is very little evidence of any tendency to accord to the "Hauptschulen" an esteem equal to that enjoyed by the "Mittelschulen". Indeed, the growing habit among employers of all kinds of demanding attendance at a Secondary School as an essential qualification of candidates for employment militates against the emergence of any such "parity of esteem" on the part of the public. Pupils leaving the "Hauptschulen" go on, most frequently, to the various Vocational Schools, (Berufsschulen) which include the Teachers' Training Colleges, or enter apprenticeship. They must, however, compete against these pupils who have completed the four lower classes (Unterstufe) of the "Mittelschulen" and who are not considered fit to continue their Secondary Course. Despite the many modern and excellent buildings, therefore, and despite the smaller classes, it can fairly be said that, to most Austrian parents with ambitions for their children, the "Hauptschule" remains very much a "second best" form of education for the ten to fourteen age group. This seems likely to continue under present economic conditions and so long as the Austrian reverence for the "Akademiker" persists.
In the 1930's the "Hauptschulen" were considered by many to be schools wielding a very strong pan-German and frequently National-Socialist influence, being staffed with teachers holding these beliefs. As a result of de-Nazification, therefore, the post-war teachers in the "Hauptschulen" are to a large extent comparatively junior members of the profession. Much work and thought is being put into the attempt to improve the standards and the status of the schools—by teachers and administrators alike—and the eagerness and interest shown is impressive. Although generalisation in such a matter is clearly dangerous, it can perhaps be said that there appears frequently to exist in the "Hauptschule" and among its teachers an attitude from which is lacking that complacency and that form of arrogance which can sometimes be encountered in the "Mittelschulen". It is not being suggested that this difference in attitude is peculiar to the Austrian situation, but the Austrian and German tradition of the gulf between "Akademiker" and "nicht-Akademiker" possibly makes it more clearly discernible than in many other countries.

iv. Special Schools (Sonderschulen)

Like so many other aspects of education in Austria, the instruction of handicapped children of various kinds first received the attention of the State in the time of Maria Theresa. Influenced by her son Josef on his return in 1779 from Paris, where he had seen the first such school
in the world, she set up in Vienna the "Taubstummeninstitut" (Institution for Deaf Mutes). This school became the centre for such education not only in the Danube Monarchy but in the rest of Central and Eastern Europe, and its staff gave advice to the other schools set up later in the neighbouring countries. Since the 1920's it has served Vienna, Lower Austria and Burgenland and in 1953-54 the Institution which opened with twelve pupils provided instruction for 190 boarders and 60 day pupils over an eight-year course.

Throughout the Nineteenth Century, especially in the second half, increased consideration was given to this problem of special education for handicapped children and attempts were made to include in the curriculum of the Training Colleges instruction in methods, knowledge of which would enable teachers in the Primary Schools to deal with isolated cases of such handicaps, especially deafness and blindness. Thus it was hoped that country districts too might possess some of the educational benefits enjoyed by the towns, in many of which special schools had been established. Work in these schools was largely based on the results of the research being carried out, mainly in Vienna and, to a lesser extent, in other University towns, by doctors, psychologists and child specialists. Such research was particularly fruitful in the first decades of the present century until a check was experienced, caused by the National Socialist interlude,
with the consequent departure from Austria of many of the specialists, including a large proportion of Jews. Since 1945 the work has been resumed, with state research to some degree replacing private experimentation, with the result that there were in 1954-55, 111 "Sonderschulen" (Special Schools) in Austria. This number refers only to separate establishments, and does not include the "Sonderklassen" (special classes attached to "Volksschulen"). It represents a steady increase in the provision of special education over the previous ten years, the number of pupils receiving such instruction (16,177) having approximately trebled since 1946 (5,454), and more than doubled since 1949 (7,774). In the latest year, 1954-55, for which final statistics were available, twelve new special schools were established. The 111 "Sonderschulen" are made up as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Special Class</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentally handicapped (Schwachb菲higte)</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partially sighted (Sehgestiirnte)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blind (Blinde)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defective in speech (Sprachgestiirnte)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partially deaf (Schwerhfiirige)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaf mutes (Taubstumme)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically handicapped (Kfiirperbehinderte)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approved Schools (Schwererzishbare)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vast majority (102) of these "Sonderschulen" are state institutions, eight being maintained by the Catholic
Church and one by a private body. As is to be expected, Vienna leads the provinces in this field, with forty-five Special Schools, including two (one for blind and the other for deaf-mute children) which provide education up to Secondary level and offer vocational courses to their pupils.

v. Present Problems.

Under this heading, the intention is to discuss a few problems which have in recent years been occupying the attention of both teachers and administrators.

We have already seen that the staffing position in the schools can be considered satisfactory, so far as quantity is concerned at least, and that buildings and equipment show great discrepancies in quality and adequacy. Here, however, it is our purpose rather to discuss problems of a different nature.

1. Reife (Maturity) - At all stages of the educational process in Austria we find ourselves confronted by this term, both in its general connotation and in its more particular reference to the award of certificates, especially at the end of a Secondary School career (Reifezeugnis: Matura). In the "Pflichtschulen" we meet this problem of "Reife" right at the outset. A large and, probably, growing body of experts - teachers, administrators, psychologists - is of the opinion that the modern Austrian child of six is no longer
fit to begin serious schooling - he is not yet "reif". He does not appear - on the evidence of his teachers in most cases - so able as his predecessors to make the necessary and expected progress in lessons from the time of his entry to the school. Various reasons are advanced for this state of affairs - less suitable home atmosphere, both parents at work, increased nervousness, due to the pace of modern life, with consequent decrease in the powers of concentration. At all events the proposal is now being made that the school entry age should be raised to seven to meet the new situation. How this would be reconciled with the demand, also frequently made, that the total number of years of compulsory schooling be raised from eight to nine, is difficult to assess at present. It is not easy to believe that the supporters of the higher entrance age will prevail in the foreseeable future.

The word "Reife" comes to the forefront of discussion once again when consideration is being given to the last years of compulsory schooling, especially in the "Hauptschule". Here, however, it is being used in its more general sense of physical and sexual maturity. Those teachers and administrators most closely in contact with the classes in question claim that they have established the fact that their pupils, and especially girls, are entering the stage of puberty earlier than was formerly the case. The problems and difficulties attached to that stage of individual development
have consequently now to be faced on a large scale within the compulsory schools of the country, whereas previously this happened only in exceptional cases. Once again reasons are advanced to explain the phenomenon - unsuitable films, (despite the stringent Austrian regulations governing their showing to children), "Smutty" books (Schundliteratur) which are apparently becoming more numerous, the increased tempo of life, lack of parental control and the like. Whatever the cause, the consequence of this "earlier puberty" is a decrease in the efficiency of learning and assimilation on the part of the pupils concerned, and a resulting "wasting" of some valuable time in the schools. Some solution, it is claimed, must therefore be sought either by application of psychological knowledge, by new methods of presenting the subjects of the curriculum, by modification of the curriculum itself, or, perhaps, by the addition of the proposed ninth year of schooling. It is claimed by many that adoption of this last alternative would allow the most complete and satisfactory solution to be found, as it would allow the problem of the onset of puberty to be tackled in the schools and yet ensure that the necessary work could be overtaken with relative ease.

2. "Die Überlastung der Schüler" (le surmenage Scolaire).

This is a perennial topic of discussion and of argument among those concerned with, and interested in, education
in Austria. Like "Reife" it is probably referred to most often when Secondary Schools are under consideration, but it figures fairly largely in discussion of the Compulsory Schools.

It has acquired special importance in recent years, partly as a result of the situation we have just been discussing - the apparent mental immaturity of the six year old child and the earlier maturing physically, of the "Hauptschüler". This has meant a "telescoping" of the period during which the processes of teaching and learning can be carried on satisfactorily, and therefore, added to the fact that an increasing number of subjects are clamouring for admission to the syllabus, has resulted in the overburdening of the pupils.

Many teachers, it should be emphasised, do not believe that their pupils are overburdened at all. Diligence and concentration, they claim, are becoming ever rarer virtues, for the reasons we have already stated; pupils who work properly should not be "überlastet". Another school of thought would prefer to substitute for "Überlastung" the word "Überforderung", claiming that the pupils are not, in fact, being given too much to learn but that too much is being asked of them in tests and examinations, in the sense that standards being set are too high. In the "Volksschule" this is probably to be explained by the increased desire of parents - for the social and economic reasons already discussed - to have their children secure entry to a "Mittelschule". As far as a similar situation exists in the "Hauptschulen" it
may well be caused by the unwillingness of teachers to accept the pupils as they are and to admit the existence of new and powerful competing interests as a permanent phenomenon which it is useless to attempt to combat but which must rather be used for what educational purposes it can serve.

Those teachers and inspectors who do accept the contention that "Überlastung" in fact exists have plans for its partial elimination, at least, plans which they express for the most part in the formulas "Sichtung und Lichtung" and "Konzentration der Fächer". The first implies a re-examination of the individual subjects of the curriculum with a view to ensuring that the essentials are emphasised and that any unnecessary "lumber" is removed. Agreement on this would not of course be easy to obtain. The second formula refers to a consideration of the curriculum in general in order to eliminate "overlapping" of information among the various subjects. In the "Hauptschule" this would bring with it the reduction of the number of specialist teachers giving instruction to the weaker pupils, that is, to the second "stream". It is envisaged that either or both these schemes would first be put into practice in experimental classes (Versuchsklassen) so that results could be assessed before final decisions were taken.

Another solution is advanced by those who wish to put the work of the "Pflichtschulen" on a whole-day basis,
five days per week. This, they maintain, would give the additional time in school necessary to allow the prescribed work to be covered and would also permit the "homework-free week-end" which is much in demand in various quarters, not least among parents. Psychologists and doctors very often favour this answer to the problem of "Überlastung", but the existence of "optional" subjects, at present taken at odd times, might make its adoption difficult.

vi. **Teacher Training** (Lehrerbildung).

Until 1848 teachers for the Compulsory Schools were trained in the Normal Schools (Normalschulen) of the Provincial capitals. There they followed a six-months' course, after which prospective teachers in the "Hauptschulen" and "Normalschulen" had to complete a probationary period of three years. The candidates for posts in the "Trivialschulen", after satisfactorily finishing their course of training, taught for one year, at the end of which, if they had attained the age of twenty, they sat an examination before the "Consistorium" of Church officials. Success in this examination gained for the candidate his Teacher's Certificate (Lehrerzeugnis). The Catholic Church had, in consequence, much influence in the appointment of teachers, and had supervisory powers over Private Schools and tutors, thereby ensuring that no Catholic child was taught by a non-Catholic.

By the legislation of 1848 and 1849, the course of teacher training was lengthened to two - later three-years and
was provided in special Training Colleges, to which the Prussian name "Präparandien" was given. Entrants to these Colleges had to be sixteen, have completed the "Unterrealschule" or the "Untergymnasium" and have a knowledge of music. The status of the new course was further raised by the introduction of a systematic treatment of the science of education (Erziehungs- und Unterrichtslehre) and a methodical introduction to school practice (Schulpraxis). Little further general education was, however, provided for the students who, at the end of their course, sat an examination (Befähigungsprüfung), containing tests in both theory and practice. Success in this examination brought the right of appointment to vacant posts in the "Trivialschulen" or to assistantships (Unterlehrer) in the "Hauptschulen" and "Normalschulen". Outstanding performance in the examination meant the possibility of immediate appointment as a full member (Lehrer) of the staff of a "Hauptschule". The course for women teachers, while of the same nature as that for men, lasted one year only. Periodic Conferences and Assemblies (Lehrerversammlung), were held at various levels to keep teachers in touch with new ideas and developments. The 1850's brought the introduction of secular School Inspectors who were, however, not educational specialists or former teachers but Civil Servants. This removal of control from the Church Authorities - whose indirect influence nevertheless remained powerful - pointed out the line of future development.
After the appearance of the "Reichsvolksschulgesetz" in 1869 it was obvious that changes in Teacher Training were required to meet the new demands of the "Pflichtschule", now an eight-year interdenominational institution whose curriculum had been widened to include History, Geography, Nature Study, Drawing, Singing and Gymnastics. Also, the new emphasis upon the moral and civic duties of the school, and the importance now attached to the allround development of the individual pupil, would clearly affect the methods according to which teachers were to be trained.

The Training Colleges, for both men and women were made four-year Institutions, candidates for entry to which must be sixteen and have completed the course of the Lower "Realschule" or Lower "Gymnasium", with the exception of the work in Foreign Languages. The new "Lehrerbildungsanstalten", however, in contrast to their predecessors had to continue the general education of their students in addition to providing suitable professional training. This general education was served by a curriculum which included Religion, Language and Literature, Geography, History, Mathematics, Nature Study, Writing, Music and Gymnastics in both men's and women's Colleges. Men's Colleges also taught Rural Science (Landwirtschaftslehre), while women received instruction in Foreign Languages, Handwork and Domestic Science. Professional training included courses in the theory and history of education.
In addition, student-teachers were to be made acquainted with methods of educating deaf-mute and blind children and to obtain some familiarity with the organisation of the Kindergarten. At the end of the course came the examination (Reifeprüfung für Volksschulen), success in which brought the certificate (Reifezeugnis) which gave its holder the right to apply for a post as a probationary teacher (provisorischer Lehrer) in a "Volksschule". After a two-year period of probation, candidates could sit the examination (Lehrerbefähigungsprüfung für Volksschulen) on the result of which depended the award of the final certificate. For the teacher who wished to obtain such a certificate for the "Bürgerschule" a probationary period of three years was required. Further training (Fortbildung) of the teachers in service also received its share of attention, steps being taken in the direction indicated in the 1850's. These included the publication of professional periodicals, the establishment of teachers' libraries, regular conferences and "refresher" courses. Such activities, allied to the work of Austrian educationists at the Universities, especially in Vienna and Prague, helped to ensure that the new ideas from Germany and Switzerland found their way into Austria and, in particular, made their mark upon Teacher Training. These ideas corresponded, on the whole, to the liberal political tendencies of the times - the need for the freedom of the individual being recognised and stressed.
The reaction which found its expression in the "Novelle zum Reichsvolksschulgesetz" of 1883, affected Teacher Training in the way which might have been anticipated. The general education offered in the Training Colleges was narrowed and more attention was given to the purely professional training of the students. This tendency was of course in line with a similar curtailment of the curriculum of the "Volksschule" and the "Bürgerschule". In addition, the examination regulations were made more stringent - aspiring teachers were subject to very exacting tests, particularly on the practical side. Thus the traditional gulf between Elementary and Secondary Education - which the 1869 "Reichsvolksschulgesetz", if fully implemented, might to some extent have bridged - was re-opened and remained so without question until the period after 1918 when the general movement for reform inspired a critical assessment of the problem of finding and training teachers.

Of all the problems which faced the educational reformers after the First World War, Teacher Training was probably the thorniest. Logically, it should probably have been the first to be tackled and solved, but the conflict of views - professional, party political, philosophical and economic - was such that, despite all efforts, reform of Teacher Training was never really achieved in the time of the First Austrian Republic.

Secretary of State Otto Glöckel had definite plans
for reform. He intended that future Primary School teachers should complete a full course of Secondary Education and then spend two years at a University. The Associations of University Teachers (Lehrerkammer für Hochschulen), however, when asked for their opinion, rejected Glöckel's proposals on the grounds that education of elementary teachers in a "Hochschule" could not be considered a good idea and that the Universities had neither the staff nor the facilities to undertake such a course. The type of work done in a University, they claimed, was not that which would best train the future teacher of young children. Such a teacher did not require advanced, specialised knowledge in any subject and should receive elsewhere a more limited, vocational course of training. In this view they were, and are today vigorously supported by the Church and by the Christian Socialists (now the People's Party). Glöckel met other opposition from the Provinces, with their normally conservative governments - except for Lower Austria. They distrusted "Red" Vienna, wanted to retain the organisation of Teacher Training in their own hands and were, in addition, fearful of a possible intolerable financial burden should the Reform proposals be accepted.

Thus Glöckel and his followers could not go forward with their schemes on a national basis. After some years of proposals, plans and discussions, the Municipality of Vienna, in its capacity of school manager (Schulerhalter)
proceeded independently and set up in 1925 "Teacher Training Courses on a University level" (Hochschulmässige Lehrerbildungs Kurse). These were held at the city's "Pädagogisches Institut", were of two years' duration and could be attended by students leaving either the "Mittelschulen" or the "Lehrerbildungsanstalten". The courses never received the official approval of the Ministry, as this would have meant an admission that the training of teachers was not organised on a national basis.

During this period of uncertainty the existing Training Colleges pursued a rather unsatisfactory course on the old lines, modified occasionally to meet pressing demands. For example, they had to provide more advanced tuition in Mathematics and Foreign Languages so that students unable to find a teaching post in the small and economically handicapped Austria of the early 1920's might go on to a University in an endeavour to improve their prospects. In 1927, the Minister of Education, Richard Schmitz, who had just secured Parliamentary approval for the "Mittelschulgesetz" and the "Hauptschulgesetz", issued "Directives for the Organisation of Teacher Training" (Richtlinien zur Regelung der Lehrerbildung), by whose adoption he hoped to create a modern and lasting system for the training of the country's elementary teachers. These "Richtlinien" envisaged the setting-up of six-year Training Colleges (Lehrersakademien) in which the
first four years would be devoted mainly to general education (Allgemeinbildung) and the last two to educational theory and professional training (pädagogisch-didaktische Ausbildung). Schmitz's Ministry thus showed their conviction that the best solution of this problem, as indeed of most educational problems, lay in evolution rather than in revolution, that organic development provided the surest way to meet the changing demands of the age. His proposals were, however, rejected by the provincial educational authorities of Vienna and of Lower Austria as well as by the teachers' associations (Lehrerverbände) and Schmitz proceeded no further with his attempt to solve the problem.

The economic situation of Austria in the next few years was such that any large scale expensive reform was out of the question. In 1932 the Minister, Czermak, issued a new modernised syllabus for the Training Colleges which helped end the uncertainty in which these institutions had been working, and which provided for the extra work in Mathematics and Foreign Languages (these latter on an optional basis) which had been introduced as a temporary measure.

Next, in 1936, the new Minister, Hans Pernter, brought forward a Bill, which was largely similar to that proposed by Schmitz in 1927. This passed through the various "Councils" of the "Corporative State" (Standesstaat) and was approved by Parliament in 1937. Session 1937-38 saw the entrance of the first students to the new "Lehrerakademien", and the syllabus for the whole proposed six-year
course was completed on the day that German troops occupied Austria. As in the previous proposals, the first four years of the course were to be devoted to "Allgemeinbildung", and the last two mainly to vocational training, with, however, continued instruction in the most important general subjects (Religion, German, Latin, Mathematics). The standard in the general subjects was to be approximately that of the "Mittelschulen", and the Leaving Certificate entitled its holder, not merely to enter elementary teaching, but to proceed to the Faculty of Philosophy at a University. Thus capable young teachers were enabled to continue their personal education with a view to becoming teachers in a Training College or to entering the Inspectorate. The way was also open to them to become "Akademiker", and possibly to aspire to the position of "Professor" in a "Mittelschule". Thus, by a lengthy and somewhat circuitous route, the boy who at the age of eleven appeared to have been excluded from the possibility of Higher Education, could eventually obtain it in this way.

In common with all other branches of the Austrian educational system, the preparation of teachers was, after the "Anschluss", immediately made subject to German regulations. The new "Lehrersakademien" were abolished and were replaced by five-year "Lehrerbildungsanstalten" which were organised on National-Socialist lines and according to that
philosophy. Firm centralised control from Berlin saw to it that little remained of the specifically Austrian, as opposed to German character of the institutions whose duty it now was to produce teachers to spread and consolidate the ideas of totalitarianism. Inevitably, here, as elsewhere, the political ideas and para-military activities of students were the things which mattered most to the authorities, whose own doctrine of expediency also helped to debase the system from an educational and ethical point of view. As the war progressed, the situation of the Training Colleges worsened until, as in Germany proper, the stage was eventually reached when they no longer were producing qualified and trained entrants to the profession. In the ultimate débacle of 1945, Teacher Training also collapsed.

In its post-war form, the Training College (Lehrerbildungsanstalt) is a five-year institution, the plan for six-year "Akademien" having been dropped, at least for the moment. The curriculum adopted was that of 1932, with increased attention paid to Foreign Languages. To meet the changing needs of the times, and, in particular, to cater for the increase in subjects in all schools, special courses (Sonderkurse) were added to the syllabus on an optional basis, a development viewed with disfavour by many, who consider that the "Lehrplan" of the Training Colleges, like that of the "Mittelschulen", is now overburdened and that drastic "pruning" is necessary.
In the year 1954-55 there were in Austria twenty-nine Teachers' Training Colleges, in which 378 full-time and 159 part-time teachers were responsible for the training of 3,925 students - 1,744 men and 2,181 women. Of these Colleges, nine were for men only, fifteen for women only, the remaining five being co-educational. The Catholic Church maintains just over half of the total, with three Colleges for men and twelve for women, but their Institutions are normally much smaller than the State-controlled Colleges, which are found most often in the Provincial capitals.

Entry to the Training Colleges today is open to candidates who have reached the age of fourteen and who have successfully completed their years of compulsory schooling (Schulpflicht). Most of the successful candidates come from the Junior Department of a Secondary School (Untermittelschule) or from a "Hauptschule", and all are required to sit an Entrance Examination (Aufnahmsprüfung). In addition to tests in the basic subjects, attention is paid to the musical and artistic ability of candidates, with a view to their possible future employment as sole teachers in country schools.

The five-year course of training provides for continued general education of the students in addition to professional training, the emphasis on which increases in the later years. The most important general subjects (allgemeinbildende Fächer), including Latin and a Modern Language - almost invariably English - in addition to Mathematics, German and Religion, are carried throughout the whole course as are
Art, Music and Gymnastics. Rural Science is provided for men and Domestic Science (optional) for women. Successful candidates in the Leaving Examination (Reifeprüfung) may, should they wish, go on to the "Hochschule" with the same rights as the leavers from the "Realgymnasium", the Secondary School whose course bears most resemblance to that of the Training College. Candidates, who, as is the rule, take up teaching posts, serve a probationary period of two years, at the end of which, if their service has been to the satisfaction of the District Inspector of Schools (Bezirksschulinspektor) they may present themselves for the examination (Lehrbefähigungsprüfung für Volksschulen) on whose result is awarded the certificate to teach in a Primary School. This examination consists of a thesis in a subject of educational interest, a written examination on the theory and practice of education, a demonstration lesson (Lehrprobe) and an oral examination in the form of a "Kolloquium". A candidate who seeks a certificate for the "Hauptschule" must serve an additional year after gaining his certificate for the "Volksschule" and then attempt another examination. This contains, in addition to the thesis and written examination in Education, tests, written and oral, in all three subjects of the group which the candidate hopes to teach in the "Hauptschule" (e.g., German, History, Geography or German, Latin, English or Mathematics, Science, Geometrical Drawing). There is also a "Lehrprobe" in one of the subjects of the chosen group.
Special examinations exist for smaller groups of candidates e.g., Secondary Teachers who wish to obtain the certificate for the "Volksschule" or "Hauptschule", - usually with a view to becoming Inspectors - teachers of Foreign Languages in extra classes of "Volksschulen" or in Language Institutes (Sprachschulen), teachers who wish to specialise in work with handicapped children in the Special Schools (Sonderschulen), lady teachers of Handwork etc.

We have mentioned several times the desire for legislative measures to give a fixed and modern form to the Austrian educational system. Probably it would be true to say that our present topic arouses more interest than, and as much controversy as any other aspect of the problems around which discussion has raged since 1945. Once again divergences of opinion tend to be on party-political lines. The Coalition Governments which have ruled Austria since the War have been unable, because of the equality of strength of the two main parties, to take any decisive step although all are agreed that change is necessary.

In 1954 one of the most influential Austrian weekly newspapers, the Catholic "Die Furche", devoted its attention to the question of the reform of Teacher Training. This "Enquéte", while giving most prominence to the arguments in favour of the conservative (Volkspartei) proposals, summarised finally by the Education Minister of the day, Dr Kolb,
included the main arguments of the Socialist faction, presented by the President of the "Stadtschulrat" of Vienna, Dr. Leopold Zechner.

In brief, the "Volkspartei" (and the Church) wish to retain the existing Training Colleges and to increase the length of the course of training from five to six years. Their opponents propose to abolish the present "Lehrerbildungsanstalten" and to set up in their place "Lehrerakademien" providing two-year courses for student-teachers who have already completed a full course of Secondary education. Both sides therefore agree that some reform is necessary but differ radically as to how this reform should be effected.

Kolb and his supporters wish to follow the traditional Austrian pattern of "organic development", of retaining as much as is still good in the existing system while improving it where necessary. They accuse their opponents of an irresponsible willingness to discard without discrimination and of a corresponding desire for change for its own sake, despite the lessons of the last thirty-five years. Only the existing type of Training College, they claim, can provide the necessary "feeling of vocation" (Berufsethos) and can nurture and strengthen the love for Austria and local loyalty (Heimatverbundenheit) which a genuine "Volkslehrer" must possess.

The present system of recruitment at the age of fourteen ensures the creation of a proper "educational atmosphere" (pädagogische Klima) which will permeate the entire course.
The Socialist alternative would merely create a new type of crammed vocational course. Present social conditions, they admit, make necessary a more comprehensive professional preparation for teachers but the best way to provide this is by extension of the present type of course. Accordingly they make the following detailed proposals:

1. The first four years of the course in the "Lehrerbildungsanstalten" shall be devoted to the same general subjects as in the "Mittelschule" but with a differing emphasis, that is, with some vocational bias.

2. There shall be an examination at the end of the fourth year. This shall be a "Reifeprüfung" on the lines of the Secondary "Matura", and shall include all subjects with the exception of Foreign Languages. Successful candidates may now, if they wish or are advised to do so, decide not to become teachers in Primary Schools, and may now take up other work. Their Certificate will allow them to go on to a "Hochschule", provided they pass the necessary examination in Latin during the next year.

3. The fifth year of the course shall be devoted to professional subjects and foreign languages and there shall be an examination in Languages at the end of the session. Success in this examination shall give unconditional right to enter Universities and it is envisaged that some candidates may now decide to attempt to become Secondary teachers and may proceed...
4. The sixth year shall consist entirely of professional training - theory and history of education, methods, practice in schools, music.

5. The course shall be crowned by a final examination deciding the right to teach in a Primary School. This "Lehramtsprüfung für Volksschulen" is to replace the existing "Lehrbefähigungsprüfung" at present attempted after two years probationary service as a teacher.

6. After some years service, teachers hoping to occupy posts of responsibility will be required to pass a "Leiterprüfung", in which they will be examined in matters of school administration, organisation, curricula etc.

Implementation of these proposals, claim the "Volkspartei", would give Austria Primary Teachers of the type required, by meeting the justified demand for better training while preserving the good aspects of the present system. They declare with emphasis that the "Lehrerbildungsanstalten" have been outstandingly successful institutions and, as such, must on no account be abolished. The competition between private and public Colleges, and the local nature of almost all of them, have been among the most important factors contributing to their success.

The Socialist supporters, wishing to set up two-year "Akademien" based on full Secondary education, claim that the present Training Colleges are now utterly unsuited to the task
they have to perform. They make this charge for the following main reasons:

1. The present number of "Lehrerbildungsanstalten" - twenty-nine, of which about half are private, confessional foundations - now train too many candidates for the available posts as Primary Teachers.

2. Their double function - general education and professional preparation - places too great a burden upon them and thus upon the students.

3. Gifted students who would not, however, make suitable teachers are not found out until the fourth year of the course, when the practical training begins. This is too late for such students to transfer to another "Mittelschule", and much disappointment and frustration is thus caused.

4. In recent years almost all good pupils, especially in towns, and especially boys, go to one of the "allgemeinbildende Mittelschulen" and make every effort to stay there, for obvious reasons. It is unrealistic to expect many such pupils to feel, at the age of fourteen, so strong an urge to become Primary Teachers that they will voluntarily transfer to a "Lehrerbildungsanstalt". Therefore there is now a shortage of boys as candidates for Teacher Training and the present basis of recruiting Primary Teachers is much too narrow.

5. The Training Colleges, in their present form, cannot be employed to train other types of teachers or to provide much worthwhile "Fortbildung" (further training).
Zechner, in his article in "Die Furche", considers some of the principal arguments of his opponents. In particular, while claiming to see the ideas of Rome behind the argument, he admits that the present Training Colleges create and successfully develop a "vocational ethic" and an "esprit de corps" which are absent in the normal Austrian "Mittelschule". Could it not, however, be created at least in equal measure, he argues, in an "Akademie" filled by "Maturanten" (Mittelschule leavers) who have, from personal conviction at the age of eighteen approximately, chosen to become teachers? He contends that the proposed addition of one year to the courses of the "Lehrerbildungsanstalten" would fail completely to meet his party's objections to these Colleges.

The Socialists accordingly propose -

1. the setting-up of Federal Teachers' Academies (Bundeslehrerakademien), providing courses of at least two years' duration and attended by students who have passed the Leaving Examination (Matura) of a Secondary School. These students must possess the necessary ability in Music, Singing and Drawing.

2. that, as not every Province would need such an "Akademie", some of the existing Training Colleges could be converted to "Reformrealgymnasien" or, better still, to a new type of Secondary School with a bias towards social studies (Sozialgymnasium), in which the desired "pedagogical climate" might well be developed.
3. the establishment, in University towns, of co-operation between the "Hochschule" and the "Akademie" in the professional training of Secondary Teachers.

The following advantages are claimed for these proposed reforms:

1. Unsuitable student-teachers would be discovered before they had wasted much time in the "Akademien" and, being in possession of a Secondary Leaving Certificate, they would have other academic courses open to them. Thus disappointment and possible bitterness could be minimised.

2. Training of teachers for all types of school could be more concentrated, and much money, time and effort saved.

3. The consequent creation of a new type of "Mittelschule" would make possible the introduction of Latin from the fifth class, instead of earlier in the course. This would enable gifted pupils from the "Hauptschule" to transfer to a full secondary course and, possibly, later to become teachers.

4. Graduates of the "Akademien" could later, while enjoying the economic security of their posts in Primary Schools, attempt University courses with a view to becoming teachers in "Mittelschulen", without the difficulty at present attached to such a procedure. This would contribute greatly to the bridging of the unfortunate gulf between Primary and Secondary Teachers.

The Socialists realise that their solution demands more courage and more imagination than the mere addition of
a year to the courses of the present "Lehrerbildungsanstalten". They claim, however, that the present time is most suitable for undertaking such reform - in the next few years, they anticipate, the demand for teachers of all kinds will be small and therefore experiment could be begun on a small scale and under careful observation.
(a) Pre-1848 - The Austrian Secondary Schools are "descendants" of the Latin Schools of the Middle Ages and of the various religious institutes of learning. Until the thirteenth century, the Benedictine Order had a monopoly of these schools - the first being probably the "Scuola St. Petri" set up in the Bishopric of Salzburg in 697 - but subsequently the Cistercians, the Dominicans and the Franciscans all entered the field. On the call of Martin Luther, a Protestant "Gymnasium" was established in Linz in 1550, the term "Gymnasium" having come into use at the time of the Renaissance in imitation of the ancient Greek Academies of learning and physical exercises. However, the Reformation was short-lived in the lands of the Habsburgs, although the schools in the important cities, at least, appear to have reached quite a high stage of development during the Protestant period. In the year which saw the setting up of the "Gymnasium" in Linz, the Jesuits were called into Austria and charged with carrying the Counter Reformation into Secondary and Higher Education. This task they performed with great efficiency, matching that of the imposition of the Counter Reformation in general in Austria, so much so that by 1600, having opened their institutions to lay pupils, as did the Benedictines also, they had
well-attended Secondary Schools in the main towns of the Habsburg territories. They established "Gymnasien" in Vienna (1553), Innsbruck (1562), Hall-in-Tirol (1573) and Graz (1573). In 1549, the Benedictines had transformed the Monastery School (Klosterschule) in Kremsmünster into a "Gymnasium". All these "Gymnasien" were characterised, as indeed they are today, by a cultivation of the ancient Classical Languages and were principally devoted to preparation for University studies. The Jesuits organised their schools on the basis of the "Ratio etque institutio studiorum societatis Jesu", according to which the "Gymnasien" were divided into the "Studia inferiores" - (Three Grammar followed by two Humanity classes) - and the "Studia Superiora" (two or three Philosophy classes). The main aim of the teaching was a thorough grounding in Latin and also, in the lower classes, in the Catechism and, to a lesser degree, in Greek. The Benedictines and the Piarists, whose influence increased at the beginning of the Eighteenth Century, followed rather similar lines and methods but they also included German, History, Geography, Mathematics and Physics in their curricula and devoted more attention to Greek.

However, general dissatisfaction with the narrowness of this religious education developed, in conjunction with the awakening recognition of the duties of the State in the field of education. These two factors were largely responsible for the issue by Emperor Charles VI in November 1735 of the Imperial Letter Patent "concerning the organisation and establishment of schools" (Über die Ordnung und Einrichtung der
Schulen). This was the first attempt of the State to bring education within its sphere of influence but, as so often has happened in Austria, the measure had for some time more theoretical than practical importance. It was not until after 1760 when, as we have seen earlier, Maria Theresa established the "Studienhofkommission" and, more particularly, after 1773, when the Jesuit Order was dissolved in Austria, that the State found itself compelled to take control of Secondary and Higher Education. The Jesuit funds were taken over and used for the improvement of the schools.

In 1775 a new syllabus was introduced, based on the Piarist methods. This retained the three or four Grammar classes and two Humanity classes, laying principal weight on Latin and with only a slight increase in attention paid to more practical (realistisch) subjects. Admission to "Gymnasien" was confined to boys who had reached the age of ten and had passed an entrance examination. The philosophy classes, which had to be taken by all these intending to proceed to Higher Education, were no longer to be part of the "Gymnasium" but were to become independent "Lyzeen" or, in University towns, they were to be incorporated in the Universities. New regulations issued in 1805 divided the "Gymnasien" into two types - six-year schools when attached to Universities or "Lyzeen", and five-year schools when separate institutions. This division lasted until 1819, when all "Gymnasien" became six-year
schools. In 1805, it was laid down that teaching was to be done by subject specialists instead of class-teachers as before - this ruling was reversed in 1819.

Just before 1848, State control was extended to cover private tuition. Private teachers had to be approved and private pupils, in a place where there was a "Gymnasium", had to present themselves at its general examinations. Authority to give private tuition to secondary pupils was granted to teachers only after examinations held annually in the Provincial capitals; it was granted for six years only and could be withdrawn at any time. Candidates for teaching posts, for whose training and preparation no particular arrangements had previously existed, had to sit a competitive examination for the post in question. This practice ceased in 1849.

The immediate control of the "Gymnasium" was in the hands of a "Prefect", generally chosen from among the Humanity teachers and, like his colleagues, usually a priest. Only in exceptional cases could a Grammar teacher occupy the post. The Prefect was responsible for the order and punctuality of all classes, for the maintenance of discipline, for religious supervision and for the holding of the regulation monthly examinations. He had to set the half-yearly tests which had to be taken in his presence. Above all, he was responsible for the detailed reports which had to be provided for the
superior authorities. These were in ascending order the "Direktor" (in many places with his own Deputy; or otherwise with the "Prefect" as Deputy), the Provincial "Direktor", the Provincial Government and finally the "Studienhofkommission". The "Direktor" of the "Gymnasium" in the chief town of the political District (Kreis) was the District Governor (Kreishauptmann), and his deputy was usually a priest or another suitable person. The "Direktor" of the "Gymnasium" in the Provincial capitals was at the same time the Provincial "Direktor" for all the "Gymnasien" in the Province. In Vienna, this function was carried out by the Deputy "Direktor", as the "Direktor" (Generaldirektor) was the representative of the "Gymnasien" on the "Studienhofkommission". The Provincial "Direktor" had to make periodic inspections of the conditions in the "Gymnasien" in his Province, holding oral examinations in every class and, in conference with the teachers, discussing all aspects of school life and endeavouring to put right any deficiencies. The activity of the Provincial Government and of the "Studienhofkommission" was usually limited to general administration - appointments, promotions, pensions, fees, bursaries etc. Most of the administrators were priests.

The belief that the "Gymnasium" could not offer the best preparation for practical life was already common in the period following the Thirty Years' War. At first practical
(realistisch) departments were created in the "Gymnasien" but soon there was a demand for independent "Realschulen". The first in Germany was established in Halle in 1706 and, in Austria, the idea found gradual recognition in the first decades of the eighteenth century when the State was occupied in promoting Trades and Crafts (Handel und Gewerbe). Indeed, as early as that period a "Handel und Gewerbe" school is said to have been planned. At the same time, it was laid down that the teachers in these schools should, as far as possible, be laymen rather than priests. It was not, however, until 1770 that the "Real-Handlungs-Akademie" was set up in Vienna, after it had been claimed in a memorandum to the Empress that education must meet the requirements of the various classes of the population. This school offered a two-year course directed at preparation for the upper levels of Trades and Crafts. Entrants, selected by means of an entrance examination, had to be fifteen years of age, and subjects taught included Arithmetic, Writing, German, French, Italian, Geometry, Physics, Drawing and Commercial Practice.

In the last years of the eighteenth century, special attention was paid by the central authorities to this problem of "realistisch" education. For the upper middle-classes (der höhere Bürgerstand), who did not wish or need to study Ancient Languages and University subjects, a four-year "Real- schule" was to be set up wherever a University or a "Lyzeum"
existed. Entrance to this "Realschule" required successful completion of "Hauptschule" studies and the school was to offer specialist courses for various occupations. Once again, however, intentions were only partly put into practice. Indeed, new regulations in 1804, while recognising the existence of the "Realschule", treated it mainly as a branch of Primary education. It was reduced to a three-year school and the number and content of the subjects taught were reduced. The teachers, however, remained specialists who had attended a "Realschule" with success and who had gained distinction in the course of preparation for teaching in a "Hauptschule." In 1809 the "Real-Handlungs - Akademie" in Vienna was transformed into such a "Realschule" but in 1815 it was incorporated in the newly-founded Polytechnic Institute (the later Technical College) and was reduced to a two-year school. It was to provide the necessary preparation for the two higher branches of "Technik" (Commercial - Technical) and was at the same time to give a general middle-class (bürgerlich) education. Entry to the "Realschule" being dependent upon the successful completion of the four classes in the "Hauptschule", the latter school came to be looked upon as a kind of Lower "Realschule" (Unterrealschule). The "Realschulen" which were later set up in various large cities throughout the Empire (only the "Realschule" in Graz, founded in 1841, is now in Austria) followed the pattern of the Vienna "Realschule", with modifications to suit local needs and conditions.
(b) 1848 - 1918 - It is not surprising that this year of political Revolution throughout Europe, and not least in Austria, should have brought educational reform also. It was against the background of the Habsburg Empire in that year that the great new steps forward in education were made. Indeed, it may be claimed that the outstanding educational problems from 1848 - 1918 had their origin in the happenings of the year of Revolution. The new relationship of the dynasty to the "nationalities", with whom the Habsburgs had to combine, although on a temporary basis, to maintain the integrity and even the continued existence of their Empire, led to an increased "nationalism" throughout the Empire.

The new feeling grew and with it the demands of the "nationalities" to have more influence in the educational systems of their homelands and in particular, to secure the introduction of their languages to the curricula of their Secondary schools. Successive Ministers of Education had to tackle this problem, and it more than once proved to be of outstanding political import.

The social upheaval of 1848, too, although reaction swiftly set in, played its part in the reshaping of the educational system. Some Reforms, as we have already noted, were in the sphere of Primary Education, but Secondary Education also received considerable attention.

1. Gymnasium: The newly-created "Ministerium für Kultus und Unterricht" issued in 1848 the "Entwurf der Grundzüge des
öffentlichen Unterrichtswesens in Oesterreich" (Basic plan for the public educational system of Austria) which gave a new organisation to the "Gymnasien". They were to become eight-year schools, taking over the two philosophy courses from the Universities and "Lyzeen". The causes of this reform were both social and pedagogical. The spirit of 1848 was expressed in the Universities by the desire for, amongst other things, a return to "Lehr- und Lernfreiheit", so long associated with German Universities, and which had been infringed by the compulsory (obligat) nature of the two philosophy Courses. These therefore, despite fears regarding increased difficulty with the discipline of the older boys, now were to form the seventh and eighth classes of the "Gymnasium", which was to be divided into the "Unter- und Obergymnasium" of four classes each, as was already the case in many schools.

However, this "Plan" of 1848 was merely the fore-runner of that of the following year, the "Plan for the Organisation of the 'Gymnasien' and 'Realschulen' in Austria" (Entwurf der Organisation der Gymnasien und Realschulen in Oesterreich). This new Plan is rightly looked upon as the "Magna Carta" of Austrian Secondary Education, and it is in many respects still its basis today. It was based upon the experience and wisdom of educators throughout the whole Empire, particularly from
the most progressive provinces, particularly Bohemia, and it was aimed at raising Austrian Secondary Education to a new high level. In this it was successful, so much so that the provinces of Prussia and Bavaria were soon to imitate it in some respects. The two officials of the Ministry whose names are associated with this measure are Professor Exner from Prague and Professor Bonitz from Stettin. The "Entwurf", with its Preface, 5 Sections (Abteilungen) and its numerous appended "Instruktionen" governing the details of many of its measures must now be considered at some length.

Preface: This section begins with an assurance that there is no intention of giving to the "Gymnasium" an over-rigid organisation. Rather must the organisation develop and grow with the schools. It is to avoid the delays and hesitations of such a development, or at least to minimise them, that the new "constitution" has been suggested, after careful consideration of all proposals and advice from "Gymnasien" and "Hochschulen". This insistence upon the necessity of "organic" growth we find repeated constantly in the next hundred years of education in Austria, and today it forms a large part of the argument of the opponents of insufficiently considered Reform. Throughout this period, however, the Reformers themselves have, in the main, come to respect its validity so that the differences between the serious advocates
and opponents of most suggested reforms are not usually so great as the more vociferous extremists would have us believe.

Next, the authors of the "Entwurf" declare their adoption of the proposal to promote the "Gymnasien" to eight-year schools by the inclusion of the two Philosophy Courses. They accept, too, the division of the "Gymnasium" into "Unter-und Obergymnasium". The former is to be "a relatively independent whole" preparing for the Upper Classes of the "Realschule" and for many occupations in practical life, as well as for the "Obergymnasium". The objection that the pursuance of such aims, important as they are generally recognised to be, may jeopardise the attainment of the previously accepted aims of the "Gymnasien", is met by the answer that the proposed "Lehrplan", if closely followed, can only improve the standard of "allgemeine Bildung", which is the important thing for all the pupils. On the question of the "Einheitsschule" after the Primary stage and the consequent possibility of the postponement of choice of career for some years, the authors accept the desirability of such a state of affairs but conclude that its practical feasibility remains to be proved. They find the stumbling block to be the Classical Languages, which not all can profitably study, and which not all should be forced to study, yet which, if to be learned satisfactorily, must be begun in the "Untergymnasium". There can be no intention, they state, of obliging all Austrian boys
who seek something more than a "Volksschule" education to study Latin even for three years. This problem has remained in the forefront of Austrian educational discussion and today, as part of the "allgemeine Mittelschule" argument, is as thorny as ever and probably little nearer solution. It is interesting to see that the first great document on Secondary Education, produced long before the birth of the Social Democratic Party, supports, if only in theory, the idea of the Common Secondary School, and expresses regret that, although the pupil of the "Untergymnasium" may later change to the "Realschule", the path in the reverse direction is almost completely barred.

The proposed syllabus (Lehrplan) embraces all subjects then recognised as coming under the heading of "allgemeine Bildung" and which, for this reason, were being taught in all well-organised "Gymnasien". These included Religion, "Unterrichtssprache", Classical and Modern Languages, History, Geography, Physics and Chemistry. The main aim of the study of Ancient Languages is considered to be the reading of Classical authors, "the unexhausted source of real humane education" (die unerschöpfte Quelle wahrhafter humaner Bildung). This reading is not merely to be made possible; the "Gymnasium" itself is to undertake it "in generous measure and with judicious selection" (in reichem Masse und guter Auswahl). A liberal time allowance to Classics is held to be essential, as being a real economy,
if the fruits of the labour expended are to be properly reaped, and this despite the recognition of the peculiar duty of the "Gymnasien" to teach their pupils most of the languages current in the Empire. This conception of the aim of the teaching of Classics has remained firmly before the eyes of the "Gymnasien" throughout their entire existence; the swing away from these subjects is reflected not in any great change within the "Gymnasien", but in the establishment and increased popularity of the rival "Realgymnasien" and "Realschulen".

Next is tackled the difficult problem of the Modern Languages to be taught. Obviously, the mother-tongue (Muttersprache) must occupy an important place in the curriculum but in the Austrian Empire this was not so simple as elsewhere. Another difficulty was the peculiar position of the German language. The "Entwurf" devises the following solution; every "Gymnasium" must teach all the languages current in the Province (Kronland) in which it is situated and, in addition, German, if not included in the other languages, but the pupils are to be obliged to attend instruction in their mother-tongue only: the other languages are to count as optional subjects. All compulsion, however well-intentioned, is to be avoided, and practical needs and local interests are expected to find a solution to any problem. If German seems to occupy a favoured position in relation to the other languages of the Empire in that it is to be taught in all "Gymnasien", this is
not a legal inequality but rather a difference of practical necessity. It is a requirement of "allgemeine Bildung" that, if time and trouble be spent in learning a Modern Language other than the mother-tongue, that language should be able to offer a literature, rich and imaginative and of great aesthetic as well as scientific value. In addition, in the Empire, it was essential that at least the educated people should be able to understand one another, by means of the most current language: it was the duty of the Government to make this possible. Thus the framers of the "Entwurf" dealt with the linguistic problem which was to bedevil politicians and administrators right up till the collapse of the Empire. To the outsider it seems, on the whole, a fair and enlightened conception which they held. When they were composing their plan, the "Gymnasien", located in large towns, were attended almost exclusively by boys from these towns, and in many of the towns these boys were nearly all Germans. They were the sons of the middle-class Germans who had built and developed the towns — merchants, judges, administrators, doctors, teachers, engineers, architects and the like. There had not yet really begun the bitter opposition between the German Nationalists and the other races of the Empire which was such a feature of the last fifty years of Habsburg rule. This being so, the provisions of the "Entwurf" with regard to
Modern Languages appear reasonable. It must be stated, however, that in 1854, when the Plan was given final approval, German was made the compulsory language of instruction (Unterrichtssprache) in the "Obergymnasien" throughout the Empire. This was obviously unjust in these schools in which Germans did not form the overwhelming majority of pupils - as time passed, such schools became more numerous.

The Preface now goes on to discuss "Erziehung" (character training) and to consider the most difficult pedagogical demand which can be made of education but which must be made: that all its elements should combine to produce an "educated, noble character". It is considered that this is more difficult to achieve in State than in private education - one of the arguments of the Catholics today. In the past, the method employed had been to make one subject, almost invariably Classics, "superior" to the others and to allot to it a large number of hours. The "Entwurf", recognising the claims of Mathematics and the Sciences, would not lay the main stress on any one subject, but rather on the interaction of all the subjects and with emphasis on the humanistic elements in each of them. It must be admitted that, in fact, the Classics continued to dominate the curriculum of the "Gymnasium"; as we have seen, the solution was eventually found in the creation of new types of school. However, it is interesting to find this early admission that the Humanities are not necessarily synonymous.
with the Classics. It could perhaps be maintained that the teaching of the Natural Sciences in Austria was to some degree affected adversely by this emphasis on the "humanistic" element of the Sciences - for a long time, and to a large extent even today their study has been almost exclusively theoretical, practical work occupying a very minor place at all stages of the course, including that of the Universities. There have been, of course, other reasons for this, in Secondary Schools at any rate - lack of money to provide expensive laboratory facilities and the already overcrowded curriculum in all types of school. Educators of other countries, particularly from America, have condemned this state of affairs, and no doubt rightly, to some extent; however, it is perhaps questionable how necessary and how educationally valuable is much of the practical work in the Sciences, especially in the lower classes of Secondary Schools.

The entry of new subjects into the curriculum and the increased attention paid to others make necessary an increase in the number of weekly periods, but this is no difficulty to the writers of the "Entwurf". They feel that the more complete curriculum will make private tuition unnecessary and reduce considerably the amount of homework. In addition, the increased interest in Gymnastics will help take care of the physical welfare of the pupils.

Now the authors come to consider the people upon whose
capabilities, as they state, the fruits of their suggestions will depend - the teachers. The re-introduction of a "specialist" system, with the modifications demanded by the need for a certain uniformity, will, it is confidently hoped, strengthen the enthusiasm of the teachers for their task. Every opportunity to give the desired "Erziehung" should be seized and utilised to the full - the young man, as he enters life, should possess self-control and know how to obey the laws, both internal and external. The greater the political freedom which awaits him, the more important and necessary is this aspect of his "Erziehung". Bitter criticism has been levelled at this education by those who "enjoyed" it in the second half of the last century. It was, however, a faithful reflection of the outside world of the time - the Habsburg Empire of old men - where the settled middle-aged man reigned supreme and in which youth, being "immature" (unreif), was not trusted. This, then, was the goal of "Erziehung" towards which teachers were to work, and two methods were to be employed - a good firm discipline throughout school-life and, secondly, the recognition of Religion and Morality (Sittlichkeit) as the common factor in and basis of all subjects taught. Much stress is laid on this "Erziehung". To avoid the dangers inherent in the system of specialist teachers, each with his own ideas and methods of discipline, the pedagogical direction of each class
will be entrusted to a Form Master (Klassenvorstand) who will provide, in the didactic as well as in the disciplinary sphere, the desired "uniform direction" (vereinigende und leitende Mittelpunkt) for pupils and teachers of the class. The "Ver einigungspunkt" for the whole "Gymnasium" is to be the Headmaster (Direktor), who will be given sufficient influence to carry out this function. Frequent staff-conferences are intended to keep alive in the teachers the realisation of their pedagogical responsibilities, to help solve their problems and to allow them to have a say in the general affairs of the School.

As the home influence is recognised as being of decisive importance, the school must establish a fruitful relationship with the parents. In doing so it must not attempt to substitute its own authority for that of the home but must inform the parents of every important incident affecting their child and make observations which will be of value to the parents. It must put forward its own point of view and yet take that of the parent into account, thus making possible a profitable co-operation between school and home, neither by compulsion nor entreaty but simply by providing the conditions for it. The home-school relationship in Austria is one of particular interest and importance, and in the "Entwurf" we have the first Statement of an official attitude to the problem.

The "Entwurf" also deals with the relationship of the school to the community in general: co-operation between the two was to be the task of a committee of Local Government
representatives, acting for the "Ortsgemeinde" (parish). This co-operation is to ensure the success of the social aspect of the "Erziehung" of the pupils and to produce in them the idea of a firm social order which must be respected.

Immediate control of the "Gymnasium" is, as we have seen, to be in the hands of the "Direktor". Justification of this is felt to be necessary and this is done by contrasting the task of the University, where the individual teacher has merely to ensure the dissemination of his own subject, and that of the "Gymnasium", where all the teachers must work together to promote the "harmonious intellectual education" (die harmonische Geistesbildung) of the pupils. For this latter task a unified permanent direction is considered necessary. The teachers themselves, when consulted, supported this view, although claiming that the influence of the knowledge and abilities of the individual teacher should be left unimpaired, so far as that is possible. This last viewpoint is borne in mind by the authors, who advise that Headmasters should be obliged to consult their staffs on important matters and, at least, to hear their opinions. The institution of the "Konferenz", at frequent intervals also, as we have seen, gives the individual teacher the opportunity to express his views on matters affecting the general welfare of the school. Teachers can also have their views and complaints speedily submitted to the Authorities. In the hundred
years which have passed since the writing of the "Entwurf" the hard facts of the increase of administration and the growing complication of running a "Gymnasium" have tended to reduce to some extent the independence of the individual teacher vis-à-vis his "Direktor". However, this independence of the teacher is still considerable and its continued existence owes much to the uncompromising statement of its desirability made by Bonitz and Exner. It is perhaps not too fanciful to see in this factor one of the most important reasons why the status of the Secondary Teacher in Austria has always remained high.

For the performance of the "Gymnasium" the "Direktor" is responsible in the first place, and, through him, the whole teaching staff. Therefore the school must be entitled, says the "Entwurf", to claim a certain independence and, in particular, the right to examine every candidate for admission - a very important point and a right which Austrian Secondary Schools continue to enjoy today despite the introduction in some cases of a uniform examination. Also, in matters such as division of work among teachers, organisation of subject-matter, choice of text-books within the limits of these approved by the Ministry, maintenance of discipline etc., the school must have the necessary degree of freedom of action to allow it to accept responsibility for the success of its education. The regular detailed minutes of Conferences, the annual reports, the visits of inspection by members of the Provincial School Authority,
all these will help reveal the state of any "Gymnasium". More
disclosing still, however, will be the results of the Leaving
Examination, the "Matura". This examination, it is thought,
should not merely prevent unfit students from proceeding to
the University but should also give the "Gymnasium" a regular
opportunity of demonstrating to the public how it is fulfilling
the tasks laid upon it. The first aim of the examination
should, therefore, determine its form and content, while the
second should decree that it should take place under the in-
fluence of the supervisory authorities, although conducted by
the school itself.

A country with free political institutions, say the
authors, cannot deprive its citizens of the right to educate
their sons privately, should they desire. However, it is
considered that such pupils should not be allowed to enter
Universities as regular students (ordentliche Hö rer) unless
they have first of all passed the "Matura" of a public "Gymnas-
ium". To provide a safeguard against superficial knowledge
gained as a result of cramming at home, such pupils must be
eighteen years of age before submitting themselves for the
examination or, alternatively, must attend for a year the
last class of the "Gymnasium", thus enabling the teachers to
form a more reliable opinion of their "intellectual maturity"
(Reife des Geistes) than would be possible in a single examina-
tion.
Having thus introduced their proposed Charter for the "Gymnasium", the authors proceed to the statement of the Regulations themselves. This part of the "Entwurf", as we have mentioned, is divided into five sections - 1. General Regulations (allgemeine Bestimmungen). 2. Syllabus (Lehrplan). 3. Pupils (Schüler). 4. Teachers (Lehrer). 5. Direction of the "Gymnasium" (Leitung).

Finally, there were issued with the "Entwurf" a considerable number of detailed "Instruktionen", which are given in the form of appendices, dealing with many of the points mentioned in the Regulations, and which were intended to help Headmasters and teachers to realise the aims of the "Entwurf".

Thus the Austrian "Gymnasium" was firmly established but capable of progressive development, and Austria had placed herself in the forefront of education in Europe. However, the opportunity was lost of creating, in the multi-national State, a Modern Languages School whose international outlook might well have had a beneficent effect. Also, in the German areas, the study of the Slavic languages was unfortunately neglected. It can be fairly stated that the work of 1848-49 was not only of very high administrative and organisational calibre - its basic structure withstood all attacks upon it for many years - but that it was from a didactic viewpoint, remarkably thorough and far-seeing.
To carry out the entire extensive reform it was necessary above all to create a teaching profession suited to the purpose. With this in view there was created in 1849 in the University of Vienna a Philological Seminar and in 1850 a Philological-Historical Seminar to help in the training of Secondary School Teachers. To these were soon added Seminars for other subjects in Vienna, and the system was adopted by other Universities also. In place of the former competitive examination for teaching posts, there was instituted the "Teachers' Certification Examination" (Lehrerbefähigungsprüfung) to administer which Commissions (Lehramtskommissionen) were set up, first in Vienna and then in the other University towns. As early as 1849 a provisional Act was passed governing the examination, and it finally became law in 1856. A probationary year (Probearbjahr) was also introduced - on passing the Certification Examination, intending teachers were attached for a year to the staff of a "Gymnasium" where they worked under observation. To facilitate the procuring of text-books suitable for the new curriculum and methods set down in the detailed "Instruktionen" governing the teaching of the individual subjects, the monopoly of their publication, held by the State since 1807, was broken. However, Ministerial approval was still required for text-books and other teaching material. With a view to facilitating the implementation of the new curriculum, and to allow and encourage a regular exchange of ideas among the teaching profession,
there appeared in 1850 the "Zeitschrift für die österreichischen Gymnasien". This magazine continued publication until 1919.

After this period of Reform which followed the events of 1848, the "Gymnasien" entered a stage of consolidation, during which the new methods were thoroughly tested and their efficacy appraised. It gradually became evident that, for all but the very best pupils, the curriculum was overburdened - this is another oft-heard criticism of the Austrian Secondary School, recurring as it did repeatedly and seldom expressed with more vehemence than today. Consequently, measures were taken to combat this "Überlastung der Schüler (le surmenage scolaire), and, to bring the somewhat idealistic and exalted demands of the regulations more into line with the real performances, a new Syllabus (Lehrplan) was issued in 1884. This cut down the reading in Classics, reduced written work to a quite considerable extent and also lightened the syllabus for Mathematics.

The next two decades, approximately, were comparatively free of change as far as the "Gymnasien" were concerned. In 1908, however, along with other larger reforms affecting Secondary Education in general - as we shall see, several new types of school were created - new regulations were issued governing the "Matura" examination and also governing the testing and placing of pupils at all stages of the Secondary course. In 1909, a new Syllabus was issued for the "Gymnasien", taking account, to some extent, of the progress in the
Sciences and also of the new psychological theories which were making an impact on the schools. Thus both content and methods were modified somewhat, although the essentially conservative nature and classical emphasis of the "Gymnasien" prevented any very rapid modification in either respect. The outbreak of war in 1914 saw the "Gymnasien" unchanged, as they were to continue until the military defeat and collapse of the Habsburg Empire in 1918.

2. Realschule: We left the "Realschule" in 1848, occupying a position of comparatively minor importance and considered more as a branch of Primary Education and a practical vocational school than as a "Mittelschule" in the full sense of the term. The history of the "Realschule" from that time has been that of a continued endeavour to secure its recognition as a proper "Mittelschule" providing "allgemeine Bildung" and not mere vocational training in practical subjects. Although progress was slow, success was ultimately attained and the passing of the "Realschulgesetz" of 1870 saw the "Realschule" emerge as an institution whose aims were declared to be the "preparation for higher technical studies with, however, the provision of general education of a high standard which laid particular stress upon Mathematics and the Sciences". The "Matura" was introduced to crown the seven-year course and to indicate fitness to proceed to a Technical College. It was now a seven-year school - as opposed to the two, three or four
year "Realschulen" envisaged in the relevant section of the "Entwurf" of 1849, whose proposed reforms, unlike these relating to the "Gymnasien", were put into force only partially, because of the lack of agreement regarding the purpose of the "Realschule". Purely practical subjects with a vocational bias (e.g., mechanics, engineering, commercial arithmetic, book-keeping) disappeared from the curriculum in which there were now two compulsory Modern Languages, the first (French) introduced in the First Class and the second (usually English) in the "Oberstufe" (Upper School). This "Realschulgesetz" found general application throughout the Empire despite the fact that legislation for the "Realschulen", unlike that for the "Gymnasien", was not in the hands of the central Imperial Parliament in Vienna, but had been handed over to the Provincial Diets. In practice, it would appear, the Imperial Ministry of Education had considerable influence and powers of persuasion. The general legal and administrative foundation having now been provided, the Ministry now proceeded to tackle the more detailed problems of curricula, teaching and inspection. A "Normallehrplan" (standard syllabus) was published in 1879 after a ten-year trial period in the schools, and at the same time instructions for teaching the various subjects, based on the opinions of experienced specialists, were issued to help the individual teacher in his task. As with the "Gymnasien", it was soon found that the demands made on teacher
and pupil were much too exalted and in 1898 a modified "Lehrplan" was introduced.

The first two decades of the Twentieth Century produced no great change in the "Realschule"; indeed the "Realschulgesetz" of 1870 remained valid in all important respects until 1927. As in the "Gymnasien", this period preceding the Great War, despite the political influences working to the contrary, was for the "Realschule" a time of consolidation, appraisal and gradual adaptation and improvement.

3. "Realgymnasium": We have seen how, at a comparatively early date, dissatisfaction with the "narrowness" and conservatism of the "Gymnasium" led to the birth and development of the "Realschule". In the second half of the nineteenth century, many people began to desire a "middle of the road" Secondary School, attendance at which would not narrow too soon the choice of subsequent careers. With this in view, there was established in 1864 a four-year "Realgymnasium" which was to prepare for the Upper "Realschule" as well as for the Upper "Gymnasium". Although this new school did not at first enjoy any great popularity it pointed the way for the organic progress envisaged in the "Entwurf". In 1908 the Reforms carried out by the Minister of Education, Marchet, in harmony with the new spirit of democracy included the creation of three new types of school. These were (1) the eight-year "Realgymnasium", which introduced a Modern Language in the Third Class, instead of Greek, as in the "Gymnasium", (2) the eight-year
"Reformrealgymnasium" which had an "Unterstufe" with no Classics upon which was built an "Oberstufe" with Latin and a Modern Language, and (3) the "Tetschen Type" (Tetschener Typus), authorised first in 1907, which from the Third Class had "Gymnasium" and "Realgymnasium" branches in the same school. These schools reflected the feelings of the times, which were characterised by the development of parental and public interest in education; indeed the public took the initiative in the new relationship. The dawn of the "Jahrhundert des Kindes" saw, too, an increase in the attention paid to the aptitudes of the individual pupil: the increased time allotted to "realistisch" subjects was not to result in the overburdening of the curriculum, so some older material had to be discarded. Modern Languages were to be accorded more importance. It was to endeavour to meet all these aims that the new types of school were created and the popularity they soon achieved showed that their introduction was wise and timely, and they continued to consolidate their positions up till the end of the Empire.

4. Girls' Education: The beginning of the Twentieth Century saw the incorporation in the State System of Secondary Education for Girls, which had previously been in the hands of "communes" (Gemeinden), associations (Vereine) or private individuals. The Catholic Church retained control of its
institutions. In 1900 a six-year Secondary School for Girls was established and given the title of "Lyzeum", which had been out of use since 1848. This new school was to provide a "general education suited to the nature of girls" (eine Höhere, der weiblichen Eigenart entsprechende allgemeine Bildung), with special attention devoted to Modern Languages. The course was crowned by a "Reifeprüfung", in which students were examined in German, French, English, Geography, History, Mathematics and Physics. Successful candidates might then attend the Philosophical Faculties and, after a six-semesters' course, sit an examination to become teachers in a "Lyzeum". The introduction of a new Syllabus in 1912 brought the "Lyzeen" more into line with the Boys' Schools, and they were in fact gradually transformed into "Reformrealgymnasien".

Summary: 1848-1918: Although educational activity was considerable and much progress was made, political and social factors were often hostile to such progress. The survival of absolutism, the parsimony of the Treasury, the predominance in the Authorities of administrative officials over professional educators, the seven-year "Sistierung" (suspension) of the Ministry from 1860-1867 all militated against rapid advance. "Nationality" problems, too, made legislation difficult; although the Government at times made genuine efforts to accede to the demands of the "nationalities", the situation grew steadily more difficult.
The social and political conditions of the age were reflected, for example, in the arrangements for and results of the selection of pupils for Secondary Education. These mirrored the social structure of the Habsburg Monarchy in that they were designed to meet political requirements rather than to conform to any psychological or pedagogical theory, or to satisfy any demand for social justice in the form of equality of opportunity. There was, too, a tendency towards over-severity, a perhaps rather unrealistic expectation of maturity from ten-year-old children. In practice the selection excluded, for the most part, all but the children of prosperous parents - peasants needed the labour of their children as soon as possible, and often distrusted what they thought of as "town" education, while industrial workers were too badly off to consider giving their children a Secondary Education.

The evolution of the schools was accelerated by the developments in the Natural Sciences and in Technology. The "Mittelschule" had to hold its doors open to these developments and thus had to introduce new subjects into its curriculum, so that less and less time could be allotted to individual subjects. The consequence was that the curriculum became overburdened and, for all but outstanding pupils, a superficial encyclopaedism often resulted. The growing emphasis on Science
and on "tangible reality" (greifbare Wirklichkeit) tended to weaken the humanistic ideals of 1849, and reflected to some degree the social background in which Rationalism and Materialism were pushing imagination into the background.

The loss in "depth" caused by the increase in the number of subjects taught was probably made all the greater by the rigid use of specialist teachers at all levels of Secondary Schooling. Their efforts were frequently dominated by the necessity of keeping to schedule in the diminishing time at their disposal. Preparation of teachers, too, laid much stress on subject-matter and little on the methods of presenting specialist knowledge - a criticism still heard today. Acquiring practical experience was often a long process in eight-year schools in which most teachers taught two subjects, but as teachers gained pedagogical skill, they were able to make important contributions, through the "Konferenzen" and professional periodicals, to the growth and development of the system.

The increased weight attached - although perhaps more in theory than in practice - to moral and physical, in addition to intellectual, training, was of significance, leading as it did to growing interest in, and use of Child Psychology and of methods recognising the importance of the individual child. The results - more Sport, more Modern Languages, more Art - all tended towards the promotion of the pupil's
self-activity, towards the "Arbeitsschule". Progress was made, although slowly, in the inculcation of Citizenship, which had previously been limited to the formation of loyal citizens of the Monarchy (Loyale Bürger der Monarchie). A few schools, before 1914, possessed "Freie Schüler-Sprechrunden", the predecessors of the post-war "Schulgemeinden" (Pupils' Committees) which co-operate with the teaching staff in the running of extra-curricular activities.

(c) Post - 1918:

1. Reform Period 1918 - 1927: After the defeat and collapse of the Habsburg Monarchy and Empire in 1918, the desire for political and social change, the re-examination of traditional values and institutions had their reflection in the educational system of the relatively tiny land which was now Austria. Paramount was the need to overcome separatist tendencies, to create an Austrian national feeling and, with this in view, "Heimatkunde" and the "Heimatprinzip" came into the forefront of the educational scene. The new state, too, needed the ability of all its citizens, so equality of opportunity was to be the aim of the Authorities, as well as the claim of the Peasants and Workers whose importance to the country had greatly increased. A scheme for Vocational and Educational Guidance was introduced in the larger centres.

Religious freedom, too, was reflected in the arrangements for religious education in the schools, which was to be voluntary. The war had left a legacy of shattered homes and
dispersed families, and the school therefore played a large part in the lives of many children. It ceased to be merely a place for the dissemination of facts to be learned and its teachers assumed more and more the role of "character builders" (Erzieher). In this direction, the social purpose of the Ministry was made evident by the creation of the "Staatserziehungsanstalten" (in the premises formerly occupied by the military "Kadettenschulen"), where gifted children of limited means were to receive a residential education on a Secondary level.

The democratic ideas of the age were shown, too, in the desire of the authorities to enlist the co-operation of all in the work of educational reform. Parents' Associations were set up and fostered; advisory committees of teachers and officials were created; the new educational periodical "Volkserziehung" (1919) encouraged free and full discussion of all problems; by the "Kollegiale Verfassung" and the frequent Conferences teachers were allowed more say in the organisation of their schools; they were invited, through promoting close and friendly relationships with pupils and their parents, to co-operate in the general task of "Volksbildung" (popular education). For the pupils this emphasis on democratic ideals was not lacking - "Schulgemeinden" were encouraged more than ever before, and senior pupils were allowed to join outside societies, although badges were not
to be worn in School and the staff were instructed to ensure that no religious or political campaigning took place in the schools.

Under the new Ministry and with the approval of very many teachers there was a reaction against the cramming "Wissens-und Lernschule" which had been the result of the progressive overburdening of the curriculum since the days of the "Entwurf" and its humanistic ideals. Contemporary psychology was turning from the intellectualism of Herbart towards the belief in the importance of the individual child and of his activity (Selbsttätigkeit). Although questioned by many older teachers, the methods of Child Psychology (Jugendkunde) found much support, and more stress was laid on the pedagogical and psychological training of future Secondary teachers.

These tendencies were seen at work in the selection of pupils for Secondary schools. The Entrance Examination was to stress "natural ability" (Begabung) rather than "acquired facts" (erworbene Kenntnisse), and candidates were now allowed two attempts at the examination, failure in July now meaning a "resit" in September. The report on the pupil from the Primary School (Schülerbeschreibung) was now to be based on his entire career in that school (Erprobungsverfahren) and attained more importance than before. Similarly, the Leaving Examination from Secondary Schools (Reifeprüfung;
Matura) was reconsidered and altered. Here, too, the emphasis was no longer to be placed on accumulation of knowledge but on "allgemeine Durchbildung und Reife" (general culture and maturity). New Regulations, issued in 1924, introduced as the main part of the examination a dissertation, to be written at home on a subject chosen by the candidate. The Oral examination was to be limited to two subjects: one on the subject of the "Hausarbeit" (home thesis) and the other from a different group of subjects. As in the Primary School, an "Erprobungsverfahren" was to be instituted and the teachers' opinion, based on several years of observation, was to carry great weight. All the new ideas, of course, were not unanimously accepted, their obvious weaknesses, especially their vagueness and impracticability, being attacked by the more conservative teachers, officials and politicians. As so often in Austria, the argument largely resolved itself into a struggle between the Social Democrats, led in this field by Otto Glöckel, the Under Secretary for Education, and the Christian Socialists of Seipel and, later, of Dollfuss and Schuschnigg. The former, in favour of the new ideas, were at first in the majority in the country, and remained so in Vienna, while the latter, who were largely conservative in their outlook, had gained control by 1927, when the Reform Period came to an end, but were obliged to accept some of the new ideas.
Physical Education received more attention in the new régime, a weekly "open-air afternoon" (Freiluftnachmittag) and a monthly excursion (Wandertag) being introduced. By choice of occupation and destination in these excursions the "homeland principle" (Heimatprinzip) was encouraged. The training of teachers of Physical Education was extended to cover eight semesters and the attempt was made to put them on an equal footing with the teachers of other subjects.

The Republic's general recognition of the equal rights of women led the Authorities to make Secondary Education available to girls on the same conditions as to boys. Where no Girls' schools existed, boys' schools were instructed to accept girls and, although the State was not yet financially able to nationalise the existing Girls' Schools, it gave aid to them. In 1921 a syllabus was issued for a four-year "Frauenoberschule", built upon the first four classes of a "Lyzeum" or another "Untermittelschule". This new school had a Leaving Examination, conducted in accordance with regulations of 1924.

While all the smaller reforms were being discussed and introduced, large-scale reform of the types of school was being planned. It was proposed that there should be a three-fold division of Primary and Secondary schooling, as follows:

1. Four Year "Grundschule" (6 - 10)
2. " " "Mittelschule" (10 - 14)
3. " " "Oberschule" (14 - 18)

The general aim was two-fold - to obtain Secondary
Education for the maximum number of children, and to allow choice of career to be postponed until the age of fourteen. The eventual target was the Common Secondary School (allgemeine Mittelschule) which was to form part of the compulsory educational system (Pflichtschulwesen) and was to give a general education, in two "streams, to all its pupils, who, if suitable, would then proceed to the "Oberschule", of which there were to be four types: (1) Classical, (2) Modern Languages, (3) Mathematic and Scientific, (4) German. Experimental classes of "allgemeine Mittelschule" type under enthusiastic teachers, were introduced into some "Bürgerschulen" (Junior Secondary Schools) in Vienna and their protagonists claimed much success for these experiments.

In the province of Secondary Education proper, a new type of uniform Junior School (Unterstufe) was proposed and tried out (Deutsche Mittelschule). This did not introduce the study of a Foreign Language until the Third Class; a sub-type (Grazer Typus) experimented with its introduction in the Second Class. The "Staatserziehungsanstalten" were chosen as the site of this experiment and classes following the syllabus of the "Deutsche Mittelschule" were instituted and carried through to their conclusion. The pupils were later expected to proceed to one of the four types of Upper School. The results of this and other experiments were taken into consideration in the framing of the Law of 1927.

Summary: 1918 - 1927 was a period of furious and, in some respects, fruitful discussion, political as well as
Although the eventual consolidation in 1927 was of a conservative character, Reforms had nevertheless taken place and valuable experimental work had been done. More equality of opportunity now existed, the "Erziehungsschule" had gained in importance, school-parent relationships had improved, girls' education was now on the same basis as that of boys, teacher training was more satisfactory, the place of physical education had obtained more recognition, and the way was now open for the development of the "Hauptschule", which was to cater for such a large proportion of the school population in the future.

2. 1927 - 1938: In 1927 the Ministry put forward the "Mittelschulgesetz" (Secondary School Act), which was passed unanimously as a compromise acceptable to both large political parties, and in the next year Syllabuses were issued for the various types of school. These were now all eight-year institutions and were organised as follows:— "Gymnasium", "Realgymnasium" (A.B.C.), "Realschule" and "Frauenoberschule". As additional experimental types there appeared the five-year "Aufbaumittelschule", for pupils who were able to begin Secondary Education only after completing the eight-years of compulsory schooling, and the "Arbeitermittelschule" (Workers' Secondary School) an evening school of Secondary Status. There was also instituted a one-year
Transition Course (Überleitungskurs) for pupils who wished to transfer from the new "Hauptschule" (Junior Secondary) to the "Mittelschule". All "Mittelschulen" now introduced a Modern Language or Latin in the second class; the second language was begun in the fifth class, except in the "Gymnasium", where Greek was begun in the fourth. The "Frauenoberschule" had only one modern foreign language.

Since 1919 there had been a great increase in the number of Teachers' Associations, pedagogical and scientific as well as "professional" (standespolitisch) and the Ministry discussed problems with them. The further education (Fortbildung) of the teachers, too, received much attention - ambitious conferences were held, bursaries were made available for teachers who wished to study abroad or were chosen as delegates to international meetings and an educational Quarterly "Österreichische Vierteljahhrhefte für Erziehung und Unterricht" was brought into publication. Special efforts were made to make facilities available to teachers working in the remoter country districts. In 1928 the new regulations governing the training and examination for Secondary teachers laid down compulsory lecture courses in "Pädagogik, Psychologie und Unterrichtslehre" (Education, Psychology and Theory of Teaching).

In more material respects progress was made. School buildings, scientific equipment and gymnastic apparatus were
all improved, libraries were assisted. Radio and Gramophone methods made possible. The new "Text-Book Commission" (Lehrbücherkommission) accelerated the publication of approved text-books.

Behind all the purposeful educational activity, the political scene was darkening steadily. In the early 1930's Pan-Germanism and, in particular, the ever-increasing menace of Nazism on the one hand and the rift between the Social Democratic and Christian Socialist parties on the other, culminating as it did in the short but bitter fighting in Vienna in 1934, had created a most difficult situation. The Christian Socialist Government's decision to abolish Parliament and to govern by decree in order to protect Austria, as they thought, from both Nazism and Communism, had its repercussions in education. The legislation of 1934 and 1935 was characterised by its conservatism and also by its emphasis on Austrian culture and traditions - the pupils were to receive a "Christian-Patriotic" education, the importance of an independent Austria was stressed, "Vaterlandskunde" became a compulsory subject in the Leaving Examination and a pre-military training course was established in the schools. That all these efforts proved unavailing is now history and much has been written attacking and defending the actions of the Government of the time. It would be wrong to regard the Christian Socialist leaders as other than sincere patriots - their fate at the hands of the Nazis in
1938 gave proof of that - nor were they inimical to internationalism as such. Indeed their new syllabuses in 1934 increased the importance of Foreign Languages in the Secondary Schools. Thanks to the improved work being done in the "Volksschule", a first language could now be begun in the First Class, a second in the Third, and a third in the Fifth. The culture of foreign lands, particularly France and Italy, received more attention, the exchange of teachers and pupils was promoted.

A Girls' "Realgymnasium" was created under the title of the "Oberlyzeum", the "Aufbaumittelschule" and the "Arbeitermittelschule" were retained, but the transfer from "Hauptschule" to "Mittelschule" became more difficult.

3. 1938 - 1945: The "Anschluss" in 1938 brought the immediate dismissal, and in some cases the imprisonment, of almost all the officials of the Secondary Department of the Ministry, all Provincial School Inspectors for Secondary Schools, almost all Headmasters and many teachers. The Nazis saw in the "Mittelschule" a most effective instrument for the implementation of their plans. After a short period the Austrian Regulations and Syllabuses were replaced by the German (Erziehung und Unterricht in Höheren Schulen) and the schools were organised as in Germany. The "Mittelschulen" were now called "Höhere Schulen" and were of the following types:

1. Boys: (a) "Oberschule für Jüngen" (Upper School for Boys) in which English was taught from the first and Latin from the third Class. There was a division (Gabelung) in the
two highest classes into a "language" and a "mathematics-science" section.

(b) Oberschule für Jungen (Sonderform i.e., Special Type). This corresponded to the former "Gymnasium", with Latin from the First, Greek from the Third and English from the Fifth Class. It was usually found in towns in which at least one "normal type" (Normalform) existed. This school was, to some extent, a concession to Austria's feelings, to her pride in her classical "Gymnasium" (mit Rücksicht auf eine ehrwürdige Überlieferung).

There was now no "Realschule". Latin was needed for all "Hochschulen".

2. Girls - "Oberschule für Mädchen" - This was the only Girls' Secondary School. It taught English throughout and there was a bifurcation in the three highest classes into (a) a domestic (hauswirtschaftlich) and (b) a language section, in which were introduced Latin and a second Modern Language - one compulsory, the other optional.

Although there was now only one type of Girls' Secondary School, the Nazis did create State Secondary Schools for Girls - for obvious reasons.

Private Schools, particularly Monastery Schools (Klosterschulen) were closed and these latter, along with the "Staatserziehungsanstalten", became "Napolas" (Nationalpolitische Erziehungsanstalten), the famous residential schools in which the
élite of National-Socialist youth — its future leaders — were trained.

Co-education was not favored — it "contradicts the Nazi spirit of education" (widerspricht dem nationalsozialistischen Erziehungsgeist). Teachers in Secondary Schools, who since 1866 had possessed the title of "Professor", were now called "Oberlehrer" and the more senior "Studienrat" (adviser of studies).

The Austrian Secondary school was transformed, then, into a National-Socialist German institution with the same aim as its German equivalent — "to produce the National-Socialist man" (den nationalsozialistischen Menschen zu formen). Party policy took precedence over education in any normal sense of the word, and the Austrian "Bildungsschule" apparently ceased to exist. Examination success depended largely on party expediency and by 1945, with all the additional material difficulties of wartime — destruction and requisition of buildings, lack of men in teaching staff, absence of many senior pupils — Secondary education in Austria had almost completely collapsed. That there were still working in the schools many teachers who, as far as was possible, offered a silent mental resistance to the ideas of the Nazis and who looked forward to the day when Austrian education would be free again — of that there is little doubt. For an outsider, however, without detailed political information at his disposal, to attempt to assess their numbers or their influence is an impossible task, and
one of doubtful value today. At the end of the war, one-third of the teachers were stated to be members of the National-Socialist Party (Springer - 'Das Mittelschulwesen' - Vienna 1948) but this figure probably gives an inadequate idea of the hold which the Nazis had over the schools.

4. Post 1945: When, on 13th April, 1945, the Red Army occupied Vienna, some of the former officials of the Secondary Section of the Ministry of Education immediately resumed office. The difficulties of all kinds were enormous. The legal position of the new Austria was still obscure, for some time the capital remained isolated from the Western Provinces and later the Zonal System of occupation made for complications. There was of course a shortage of buildings and the staffing problem was considerable - many teachers had to be dismissed, "screening" and de-Nazification were carried out - but former members of teaching staffs returned from exile and from concentration-camps, eager to resume duty. In addition there was available a number of younger teachers who, during the War, had not been able to begin work.

On 22nd June 1945 the Ministry ordered the resumption of studies in the "Mittelschulen". The pupils were to be taught once again how to study properly (die Schüler wieder in ernster Arbeit das Lernen zu lehren) and, as far as could be done, the Nazi influence was to be eradicated. Therefore, for this first post-war session, in addition to Mathematics,
Foreign Languages and Geography (Erdkunde), a course of Austrian Studies (Österreichkunde) was to be given in order to "impress upon the pupils the Austrian tradition and way of life and to fill their hearts with love for their regained homeland" (den Ausdruck österreichischen Wesens der Jugend zu erschliessen und damit ihre Herzen mit neuer Liebe zur wiedergewonnenen Heimat zu erfüllen). This course embraced German, History, Art Appreciation and Music, the use of text-books was to be avoided and only teachers of undoubted patriotism were to be entrusted with it.

Attention was now turned to the making of plans for the future, and steps were taken to fit the Secondary Schools for their task under new and very different conditions. Inter-party co-operation made possible an agreement concerning the lines of future development; although there must have been many doubts as to whether conditions would allow an eight-year school system to attain full development once again. The general aims were clear - a Secondary School must be created in which would be fostered a genuine, healthy Austrian patriotism which was in no way inimical to the internationalism which was to a great extent traditional in the old Austria and which was obviously essential in the situation in which the country now found itself. The Educational Branches of the Occupying Military Governments on the whole were constructive in their attitude towards the problem and were in a good position to
foster the desired internationalism - by visits, exhibitions, contributions to libraries and similar activities.

The four school types of 1927-Gymnasium, Realgymnasium, Realschule, Frauenoberschule - were chosen as the basis for reconstruction and the educational legislation of that year was reinstated. This ensured the close connection of the "Hauptschule" with the "Mittelschule", a point for which the Socialists have always striven. Temporarily, the Syllabuses of 1934-5, with their emphasis on Foreign Languages, were adopted, except in the "Realschule" which, with two foreign languages, rested on the foundation of 1928. In 1946 provisional Syllabuses (provisorische Lehrpläne) were issued for all Secondary Schools - these are still in force, having recently been reissued. In 1946 the Ministry re-opened two "Bundeserziehungsanstalten" one for girls and one for boys - to carry on the work and the ideals of the former "Staatserziehungsanstalten". Located in Vienna and Graz respectively, they follow the Syllabus of the "Realgymnasium". A specially chosen staff, selected for their qualities as "Erzieher" as well as for their more formal teaching ability, attempt to give a sound character training to their pupils, who are all boarders and usually the gifted children of poor parents.

ii. The Present Situation.

(a) Statistics: In 1954-1955 there were in Austria 176 academic Secondary Schools (allgemeinbildende Mittelschulen),
of which number 134 were State Institutions, 39 maintained by the Catholic Church - these included 6 Monastery Schools (Klostergymnasien) - and 3 by private bodies. Of these 176 schools the "Realgymnasien" were by far the most numerous, with 118 schools as against 49 "Gymnasien", 24 "Realschulen", 16 "Frauenoberschulen", 4 "Arbeitermittelschulen" and 3 "Aufbaumittelschulen". These numbers show the general desire of parents to postpone as long as possible the choice of careers for their children, the "Realgymnasium" with its general course allowing the greatest number of subsequent possibilities. The relatively large number (49) of "Gymnasien", with their Classical syllabus, is partly explained by the fact that almost half that total (21) are Church foundations and also, perhaps, by the tendency in some areas for the best pupils, traditionally, to enter the "Gymnasium". Peasant children too, whose parents have probably been advised by the local priest, very frequently choose this school.

In the session mentioned approximately 77,000 pupils (49,000 boys, 28,000 girls) attended these schools. This attendance figure has yearly shown a rise since the end of the Second World War, in 1946/7 - 49,000; in 1951/2 - 60,000. Many parents are anxious to have their children attend Secondary Schools as a kind of insurance policy as more and more employers are demanding Secondary Education when selecting
staff. 60% of these pupils attend a "Realgymnasium", 19% a "Gymnasium", 15% a "Realschule", 5% a "FrauenoberSchule" and 1% an "Arbeitermittelschule". 87% of all Secondary Pupils were in State Schools, 12% in Church Foundations and 1% in schools maintained by private bodies. The schools maintained by the Church and its religious orders include some of the most famous and most influential in the country; for example, the "Schottenstift" in Vienna, established by Irish Monks in 1775, the "Stella Matutina" in Feldkirch in Vorarlberg, a Jesuit school well-known in all German-speaking Central Europe, and the ancient "Stiftsschulen" at Kremsmünster in Upper Austria, Seitenstetten in Lower Austria and at Melk on the Danube.

With the exception of the "Aufbaumittelschule", which is a Five-year school, and the "Arbeitermittelschule" (9 semesters) all the Secondary Schools are Eight-year schools, the usual entrance age being just over ten, after four years Primary schooling. Fees are paid - about 90 schillings (under £2) per year, but reductions are made according to the means of parents. They are, with the exceptions stated, all "zweistufig" i.e., they are divided into a Junior and Senior Department each with four classes (Unterstufe and Oberstufe), the Junior Department, as far as the curriculum is concerned, being to some extent an independent entity. So it is that today the "Unterstufe" is used by many pupils as a preparation for work
other than that of the "Oberstufe" - they leave the "Mittelschule" at the end of the Fourth Year and enter Vocational or Technical Schools or the Training Colleges for Primary Teachers. Statistics indicate that, of every hundred pupils who enter the "Mittelschulen", eighty-seven complete the "Unterstufe", only fifty-four go beyond it and, of these, only nineteen complete the eight-year course. There is thus a great "weeding-out" (Auslese) before the Leaving Examination is reached, which explains to some degree the phenomenally low number of failures in it.

(b) "Unterricht". The aim of the Secondary Schools is firstly to give their pupils a general education of a high standard which at the same time fits them for study at the "Hochschulen". (Zweck der Mittelschulen ist es, ihren Schülern eine höhere Allgemeinbildung zu vermitteln, die sie zugleich zum Studium an den Hochschulen befähigt - Mittelschulgesetz 1927). The second part of this stated aim is clear and definite - it means that the pupils must be brought to the standard of the Leaving Examination, successful completion of which allows entry to the "Hochschulen". The "general education" (Allgemeinbildung) mentioned is to be attained by different types of school in different ways:

1. "Gymnasium" - by an intensive study of the literature, history and culture of antiquity, and of the light which this throws upon the contemporary world. In particular,
attention is to be paid to the interplay of Greek, Roman and German civilisations.

2. "Realgymnasium" - by the study of the languages and cultures of other modern states in conjunction with the study of German culture and, in particular, of Austria's contribution to it. The study of Latin is designed to provide an historical basis.

3. "Realschule" - like the "Realgymnasium" by the study of the languages and cultures of other modern states along with that of Austria and Germany. More stress is laid on the scientific aspect of these cultures and on more modern developments.

4. "Frauenobergschule" - on the one hand, by the study of modern foreign languages, with the picture this provides of foreign cultures, and, on the other hand, by the emphasis on domestic subjects, taking into account the nature of girls and the future careers of most of them.

This "Allgemeinbildung" has been the watchword of Academic Secondary Education in Austria since 1849 and the proud boast of her teachers and educationists. The term "Bildung" suggest a "forming", a general intellectual forming of the pupils into a pattern dictated to a great extent by the Authorities by means of the Syllabus and curriculum of studies. The large number of subjects studied throughout the school shows how this "Allgemeinbildung" is to be achieved.
This conception of "general education" has always been challenged, even in the days when Classics reigned supreme, and the critics have increased in number and influence with the scientific and technical development of society. The gradual increase in the number of "necessary" subjects - subjects of which the "educated" (gebildet) man should have a fair knowledge - has given added weight to the accusation that the famous "Allgemeinbildung" had degenerated into a superficial, meaningless accumulation of a huge number of facts learned by heart in order to pass examinations. Experience in the higher classes of the schools suggests that this criticism is very largely justified - for all but a very few highly-gifted pupils. Knowledge of American ideas and school methods, gained since the war - although very few Austrians would agree with the claim that all subjects have equal educational value - has contributed to the desire for a reconsideration of the accepted views, and many teachers as well as parents are of the opinion that some limitation of the number of compulsory subjects is now overdue. The situation in the schools, they claim, is such that only lip-service can be paid to the idea of "culture générale" - the fact that, in the two highest classes, there are only two lessons per week in many important subjects, means that it is already difficult to hold on to what has been taught before, quite apart from providing anything new other than dictated facts. The Nazis allowed
some specialisation in these last two classes and, although acceptance of their ideas is to many an unpopular doctrine, it may well be that something similar to their methods will be adopted. Many teachers in the "Hochschulen", too, would support such a change, as they find students arriving from the "Mittelschulen" often most inadequately equipped for the usually highly-specialised studies which lie ahead of them.

The actual teaching of the various subjects is governed by "Lehrziele" (Teaching Aims) and "Lehrpläne" (Syllabuses) laid down by the Ministry of Education. The "Lehrziel" sets out the general aim of the subject - usually in two parts: the aim for the "Unterstufe", and that for the "Oberstufe" - the "Lehrplan" prescribes the detailed work to be done in each class. For instance, in History, the "Lehrziel" for the "Unterstufe" is: "The awakening of interest in and understanding of historical development; introduction to a knowledge of the past, with special attention paid to the history of Austria and the democratic institutions of this country. Awakening of respect for the great creative works of the nations in all aspects of culture, for important men and deeds, and of love for our people and our native land". The "Lehrziel" for the "Oberstufe" reads: "A survey, from a present-day viewpoint, of the course of general historical development; knowledge of the most important historical facts in their original context and in their dependence upon geographical and economic factors, with special emphasis upon the historical development
of Austria and the States of Europe. Consideration of other historical development, such as that of India, of China and of the U.S.A., along with Colonial history. Introduction to the understanding of the structure of our economic, social and political life (Citizenship). Some knowledge of the main aspects of our Legal System.

The "Lehrplan" would then go on to prescribe the periods, topics etc., to be studied and, sometimes, the books to be used. To many, such detailed instructions appear as a strangling imposition and, in contrast, the "Lehrziele" are described as vague and impractical. To others, however, especially to young teachers, such instructions provide a very useful foundation on which to base their teaching - this being important, too, because there is no equivalent to our Principal Teacher of a subject (Head of Department). The political events of Austria's past, also, have no doubt led to the conclusion that it is necessary to lay down in some detail just what shall be taught in schools, although it must be stated that there is very little possibility of control, except by parents, as the system of inspection of established Secondary teachers is very loose indeed.

In many subjects the teaching is, from an early stage, on a lecture and note-taking basis, and there is consequently a great deal to be learnt at home. Traditionally the Secondary Schools are in session for half a day only, including of course
Saturday, thus much time is left for homework. Many of the lessons, especially in Literature, History etc., in the Upper Classes, are most meticulously prepared and reach a very high standard. One has, however, the feeling from time to time that only the very best pupils are following the lessons with real understanding - the rest are furiously taking the notes which will enable them to remember the salient facts with a view to examination success. As in France, very little responsibility rests with the teacher to ensure that the pupils have really grasped his lesson - the possibility of failure in tests, and its repercussions in the family, are usually considered sufficient to keep the pupil steadily learning his work. The periodic - usually weekly - "Sprechstunden" (times when teachers are available for interview by parents) are used by teachers to warn parents of pupils whose progress is unsatisfactory that improvement is necessary. It is a somewhat strange and very interesting experience for a British observer to hear an eleven-year-old boy being accused of "a lack of the ability to concentrate" (Mangel an Konzentrationsfähigkeit), and then to hear the harassed parent, who has probably been summoned to this interview, protest that the youthful delinquent has already been deprived of Ski-ing trips and visits to the cinema, and go on to promise that in future the Opera and Sunday afternoon excursions will also be banned. All this very often without the teacher's ever having attempted
to deal with the pupil himself.

Great stress is laid on the value of thorough preparation of lessons by the teacher. This is promoted, too, by the fact that, as on the Continent in general, Secondary Teachers in Austria have a relatively small number of lessons per week. Teachers of Mathematics, Science and practical subjects may have up to twenty-five, teachers of other subjects about twenty-two. In particular, teachers of Modern Languages, where much oral work is done, should usually have only about twenty. Teachers have normally the opportunity of relaxation and preparation between lessons and the amount of weekly correction is low, being confined in most cases to revision of Tests (Schularbeiten).

Progress Testing is done in two ways:

1. School Tests (Schularbeiten): These are done at intervals throughout the session. Where possible, they are in Essay form and they are corrected by the teachers. A special book is kept for these tests, so that parents may see what work is being done and what progress their children are making. Marking of these tests is on the usual Austrian five-point scale. These marks are taken into account when the final "Zeugnis" (Yearly Certificate) is issued to the pupil.

2. Oral Testing (Prüfen): This plays a most important rôle in the evaluation of a pupil's progress - more than the written "Schularbeit". It is carried out in class without
prior warning. At the beginning of most lessons - especially if the class is a big one - a few pupils are tested, orally, on the work recently covered in class. Teachers are careful to follow no set order, so that the pupil is never able to guess when his next turn will come. Such a form of testing is inevitably subjective and arbitrary to a considerable degree; pupils are not examined in the same topics and there is certainly great variation in the standard of difficulty of the questions which different pupils receive. The examinee is frequently given very little time to think and a shy, nervous pupil is at a great disadvantage in this position of prominence in which he so often finds himself. In a large class, where time is already short, it is also time-wasting but it does admittedly compel pupils to work steadily and not leave preparation to the last minute before examinations. Such testing is in harmony with the traditional kinds of examination in German Europe and with the present Leaving Examination, as indeed it is with very many University examinations.

Certificates (Zeugnisse) are issued at the end of every session. The marks awarded are based on the "Schularbeiten", the "Prüfen" and the general estimate made by the teacher of the pupil's ability in the individual subject in question. A final overall mark is also given after discussion in "Konferenz" among the various teachers responsible. Outstanding pupils are classed as "Vorzugaschüler", according to
a very definite procedure based upon the marks gained in all subjects. These Certificates are anxiously awaited at home, and are treated with very great seriousness. The average Austrian parent, in practice, does not appear to be interested in "allgemeine Bildung" as such; what he wants are good examination results.

Special Examinations:

1. **Entrance Examination** (Aufnahmsprüfung). This decides which children are fitted for Secondary School education in the school of their - or their parents' - choice. The examination is conducted by the individual Schools; there is no uniform standard even for Secondary Schools in the same town. The teachers are grouped in pairs, each of which examines a number of candidates, one teacher being responsible for Arithmetic and the other for German. The examination comprises Written and Oral Tests in both subjects and for each candidate there is a Report from his Primary School Teacher. In theory this last item is very important but it is doubtful if in practice it carries anything like the same weight as the other parts of the examination. Normally, all candidates in the same school attempt the same written papers but there is no standardised correction procedure and there is very great discrepancy in the Oral part of the examination. To meet such criticisms, and also the reproach that the content of the Examination bore no relationship to the curriculum of the
Fourth Class of the "Volkschule" and hence what the normal candidate might reasonably be expected to know, an attempt was made in some Provinces in 1956 to introduce some uniformity of standard of questioning and marking and also to base the examination on the work of the Fourth Primary Class. However, the arrangements seem to have been made by Secondary Teachers alone, without consultation with the "Volkschulen" and there were loud protests from the latter over the inclusion of "unfair" questions. At all events, many people are pressing for more uniformity. There is as yet no Intelligence Test for such Secondary candidates, although the progress being made by the psychologists in the realm of compulsory education is possibly an indication that their services will soon be requested for the "Aufnahmsprüfung" also.

The right of the individual school to hold its own entrance examination is founded firmly upon the "Entwurf" of 1849 - if a school is to be responsible to the public for the successful education of its pupils it must have the right to choose these pupils. This independence of the school and its "Direktor" has clearly many advantages - its status, and his, are raised in the eyes of the public. The teachers should know what kind of pupil is likely to be successful in the Secondary school, but, there is an obvious danger of over-severity, and of unintentional unfairness.

2. **Leaving Examination**: (Reifeprüfung: Matura). This crowns the eight-years of "allgemeine Bildung" and success in
the examination carries with it the right of entry to the "Hochschulen". It is not a compulsory examination; those who do not wish to attempt it receive instead a Certificate covering their work in the Eighth Class.

The "Reifeprüfung" is conducted by a "Kommission" under the chairmanship of the Provincial School Inspector for Secondary Schools (Landesschulinspektor für Mittelschulen), or of a deputy named by him, and is held three times a year - the main "session" (Haupttermin) at the end of the school year, in June or July, and subsidiary "sessions" (Nebentermine) in September and in February or March. Pupils who wish to enter must complete successfully the work of the Eighth Class.

For the "Gymnasium", Realgymnasium" and "Realschule" the examination consists of:-

(1) **Written Tests**: - 4 papers.

(2) **Oral Examination**: - in 3 subjects.

and, for the "Frauenoberschule", of

(1) **Two Practical Examinations** -

(a) Child Care (Kinderpflege und Erziehungslehre)
(b) Domestic Science (Hauswirtschaft)

(2) **Written Tests** - 3 papers

(3) **Oral Examination** - in 3 subjects.

For the "Haupttermin" the written examinations normally begin about six weeks before the end of the summer term and there must be an interval of at least three weeks between the
last written and the first oral examination. The practical tests in the "Frauenoberschule" take place in the course of the last school session.

Written Examinations (Clausurarbeiten) - These comprise for:

(a) "Gymnasium"
1. Essay in language of instruction (Unterrichtssprache) 5 hours
2. Translation from Latin to German 4 "
3. Translation from Greek to German 4 "
4. Mathematics 4 "

(b) "Realgymnasium"
1. Essay in language of instruction 5 hours
2. Translation from Latin to German 4 hours
3. Translation from 1st Modern Language to German; or not too difficult essay in Modern Language 4 hours
4. Mathematics 4 hours

(c) "Realschule"
1. Essay in language of instruction 5 hours
2. Translation from 1st Modern Language to German; or not too difficult essay in Modern Language. 4 hours
3. Mathematics 4 hours
4. Descriptive Geometry 5 hours

(d) "Frauenoberschule"
(1) Essay in language of instruction 5 hours

(2) Translation from 1st Modern Language to German; or not too difficult essay in Modern Language 4 hours

(3) Mathematics 4 hours

The essay in the language of instruction must offer subjects within the scope of the candidate's interests and which are on the standard of the "allgemeine Bildung" expected of him. There is a choice of three subjects.

The essay in modern foreign languages can be either (a) a free "re-telling" (Nachzerzählung) of a text read aloud to the candidates, or (b) a free composition giving a choice of three subjects.

The translation passages are usually chosen from authors studied in class or from those of a similar standard. They are "unseen".

In written examinations in foreign languages a dictionary may be used.

The Mathematics examination consists of two Geometrical and two Arithmetical examples of Eighth Class standard.

In Descriptive Geometry three examples are given, designed not so much to test knowledge of formulas as grasp of principles.

The questions and essay subjects for the various examinations are chosen by the Provincial School Inspector (Landesschulinspektor) from suggestions made by the individual
subject teachers, as follows:

(a) Essay questions - the teacher submits two sets of three "different-type" subjects, of which one set is chosen by the Inspector.

(b) Translation questions - the teacher submits three texts of which one is chosen.

(c) Mathematics - the teacher submits two sets of four "different-type" questions of which one set is chosen.

(d) Descriptive Geometry - the teacher submits two sets of three examples of which one set is chosen.

The Inspector, if dissatisfied with the questions submitted, may ask the teacher to send other suggestions. The questions and essay-topics chosen are sent to the Headmaster in envelopes which are kept sealed until the day of the examination.

**Correction and Marking:** All papers are corrected by the subject teacher, mistakes marked and one of the usual five marks awarded. The papers are then inspected by the "Direktor" and other members of the Examination Commission — low marks and those not in keeping with a candidate's normal class-work being carefully considered. Next the President inspects the papers and ensures that the marks are just and correct. He may, after hearing the relevant evidence, alter a mark with which he disagrees. As soon as the final marks are decided upon, they are announced to the candidates.
Failure in one or two subjects does not prevent the candidate from going on to the Oral Examination; failure in three subjects obliges him to repeat the whole examination at the next "Termin", failure in all four subjects compels him to wait till the next-but-one "Termin".

The way of submitting and choosing questions is open to criticism. In practice the teacher knows the small number of possible subjects which his candidates will be asked to tackle, and it is a simple matter for him to prepare his pupils in them, and he often does so. This appears to have very little to do with the "allgemeine Bildung" which the examination is supposed to be testing. The Inspector is not an expert in every subject and is, in general, rarely qualified to reject proposed questions as unsuitable.

Correction of papers is done by one person only - the teacher - and must, especially in the essays and translations, be far from objective. The claim that the President and Headmaster can provide a check is largely specious, as they are specialists in one or, at the most, two subjects and not in a position to criticise the marks of the Specialist teacher.

There is a wide discrepancy in the standard of difficulty in the possible questions in Modern Languages, and it is an inadequate test. A Free Composition, even when the probable topics have been discussed in class - although not, of course,
under that heading - offers much more difficulty and opportunity for errors than either of the other two options. (It should be interpolated that the individual candidate does not have the choice here - the teacher decides in advance which of the types of question his class will attempt). The "Nacherzählung" becomes largely a memory test and the outside observer cannot fail to be impressed by the feats of memory of which Austrian pupils, well-trained in this activity, are capable. The translation into German, with the help of a dictionary offers a comparatively slight and superficial test of the candidate's knowledge of the foreign language. It tests rather his intelligence and his German style. University teachers of English, for example, find their students poorly prepared, in very many cases, in the fundamentals of correct written English as tested by an unseen translation from German into English. The same criticism could well be levelled at the examinations in Latin and Greek.

The speedy marking and immediate announcement of the results to the candidates are an undoubted advantage of the system.

Oral Examination - In all schools, candidates must sit oral examinations in three subjects, one chosen from each of the following groups:-

(b) Compulsory and optional foreign languages.

(c) Geography, Natural History, Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, Descriptive Geometry.

Candidates are free to choose their subjects, provided that, at the Mid-Year Conference in the Eighth Class, they had a mark of at least "befriedigend", the third on the five-mark scale, in these subjects. They are thus examined in their best subjects, within the limits imposed by the groups.

In addition to these three subjects, candidates who have failed in one or two subjects in the Written Examination, must sit Oral Tests in them, if they are not already included in their three chosen subjects.

The Oral Examinations are held for four hours in the morning and four hours in the afternoon. One group of candidates is tested in all subjects in the morning, another in the afternoon, and the marks are announced as soon as they are agreed upon by the Commission. Candidates are tested individually, but, to save time, two or three pupils may be given questions to prepare while another is being tested.

The Examination Commission consists of the President - either the "Landesschulinspektor", or a University Professor, or a Secondary School Headmaster - the "Direktor" of the school, the teachers of all the compulsory subjects of the Eighth Class, and the teachers of all compulsory subjects completed before that Class. In addition, the Ministry of
Education and "Hochschulen" in the area may send observers. Representatives of bodies interested in the maintenance of the school and also, if they wish, parents of the candidates, may attend the Oral Examination. Other pupils of the Eighth Class may also be present, and the presence, so far as their duties permit, of teachers who are not members of the Commission is officially considered desirable, but they rarely attend.

The President decides the order of testing, and each candidate must be tested long enough for a sound judgment to be formed - this time is given as a maximum of fifteen minutes. Usually the questions are handed in writing to the pupil, who is allowed a short time to prepare his answers. The subject teacher does the questioning, but the Chairman and Ministry Official have the right to take part.

At the end of the Oral Examination, all who are not members of the Commission leave the room, and the members then discuss the candidates just tested. First, marks are awarded in the subjects in which a candidate has taken the Written or Oral Examination or both. The subject teacher proposes a mark, taking into account the candidate's general record in the Senior School as well as his performance in the Examinations. Although it is seldom challenged, this mark is then voted upon, perhaps after discussion, by all members of the Commission. In a similar manner, marks are then awarded for all the other compulsory subjects, and optional ones in which
marks are given (e.g., an additional foreign language). The final marks are then awarded and the candidates classed as "Passed with Distinction" (Reif mit Auszeichnung), "Passed" (Reif), "Failed" (Unreif). Distinction is awarded on the basis of a complicated system of marking, the essentials of which are that the candidate may not score below "befriedigend" (3) in any subject, and must score "sehr gut" (1) in at least half of his fourteen or fifteen subjects. For a simple "Pass" (Reif) all subjects must be at least "genügend", the fourth mark on the scale.

The Oral Examination is much more important than such examinations usually are in this country, not being used as a mere check on written performance, and is carried through with considerable ceremony, including semi-formal dress on the part of the candidates.

Once again, the fact that the teacher carries out the testing makes it possible for him to have his candidates well prepared. It is probably true to say that the reputation of a teacher in Austria does not depend, quite to the same extent as it does in Scotland, on the examination results he achieves but the fact remains that these results are important to him and it is natural that he should be anxious that his pupils appear to do well. This being so, it is common for the few weeks preceding the Oral Examination to be devoted to a consideration of topics which are likely to prove
useful to the pupils in that examination, and the teacher knows precisely what these topics are.

The presence of the President is designed to be a check on questions and answers, but it is very common for him to have no knowledge whatever of the subject in which a candidate is being tested. Despite this fact, Austrian educationists cite his presence as a proof of "fair play", in answer to any criticism. It is evident that control in this direction is slight and anomalies do most certainly arise.

If we consider this whole examination in relation to the stated intellectual aims of the "Mittelschule", we find food for thought. The "Mittelschule" has, for example, the task of preparing its pupils for the Universities and other institutions of similar rank, and the "Reifeprüfung" is the test which decides its success in this task. Yet there is little or no uniformity of standard in the difficulty of this examination and in the award of the Certificate. Each individual school holds its own examination and, in practice, sets its own standard both in its demands and in its awards. It is common knowledge that, within the same town, one "Mittelschule" is "stiffer" in this respect, either altogether or in certain subjects, than its neighbour. The importance of this for the individual pupil, and his career, is obvious, as are the probable consequences in the Universities.

We have seen, too, how this examination, in conformity
with the other aim of the "Mittelschule" - to provide "culture générale" of a high standard - must not merely test acquisition of facts and knowledge, but intellectual maturity and sound judgment. A closer study of the examination regulations, quite apart from the problem presented by the large number of subjects for which marks are awarded, may cause some doubts on this score. It is difficult to see how such an examination can really test profundity or judgment to any great extent. The fact that the performance of Girls in the same examinations - in the same school - has tended to be rather better than that of boys suggests that what is essential for success is a conscientious acquisition of detail in the subjects of examination.

Another point which strikes the British observer as, in some ways, a disadvantage is the all-important rôle played by the teacher in the examination. He is simultaneously Counsel for the Defence, Counsel for the Prosecution, and, in practice, Judge and Jury. While it is a healthy sign that the individual teacher should be important - and nothing that has been written must be taken as suggesting that there is frequent abuse of this important position - it can and frequently does have an unfortunate effect on his relationship with his pupils. Unsuccessful candidates, and their parents, claim that teachers were unsympathetically disposed towards them and there arises a feeling that it is necessary to curry favour with this powerful figure, who may well be responsible
for the class in any one subject for all eight years of the course. This in turn leads to a fawning, over-servile attitude which continues into University studies and into other aspects of ordinary life - an attitude which is as unpleasant as it is potentially dangerous. It is easy to exaggerate the importance of this factor and, with the younger generation of teachers, the danger is probably less than in the past, but it is real.

In 1954, 3,118 candidates (2,089 boys and 1,029 girls) sat the Leaving Examination. Of this number 558 passed with distinction, 2,303 passed, 196 were requested to re-appear at the next "Termin", 53 at the next-but-one "Termin", and 6 in a year's time. 2 pupils failed altogether. It must be borne in mind that a large number of the pupils who entered the "Mittelschulen" eight years before had not completed the course, which partly explains the high percentage of success of those who sat the examination. The selection process had already "weeded out" most of the pupils who were considered below standard. Of the 3,118 candidates 328 sat the examination from "Gymnasien", 1,760 from "Realgymnasien", 259 from "Realschulen", 159 from "Frauenoberschulen", 25 from "Arbeitermittelschulen" and 34 from "Aufbaumittelschulen". The remaining 53 were "Externisten"; candidates who were not ordinary pupils in any of the types listed above and who were admitted to the "Reifeprüfung" under special regulations.

(c) Erziehung: So far we have been considering what
we have called the "academic" aims of the "Mittelschule" - preparation for the "Hochschulen" and the provision of "allgemeine Bildung". But the stated aim of such schools is completed thus - "As educational institutions they are to develop the intellectual, moral and physical powers of the youth entrusted to them and to bring up the young people in a social, civic, national and ethical-religious spirit."

(Als Bildungsanstalten sollen sie die geistigen, sittlichen und körperlichen Kräfte der ihnen anvertrauten Jugend entwickeln und die jungen Menschen in sozialem, staatsbürgerlichem, nationalem und sittlich-religiösem Geiste erziehen).

The curriculum is the first instrument to be used in the attainment of these aims. The moral as well as intellectual training derived from the conscientious study of well-chosen subjects is frequently stressed - both the content of the subject and the effort required in the study and understanding of it have considerable moral value to the student. The treatment of the various subjects by the teachers should be such as to serve the stated aims as far as this is possible. Religious instruction is of course of very great importance in this moral training - it is voluntary and carried out by priests or ministers of the religions represented in the schools. Nowadays, it is predominantly Catholic (90% approximately) with a Protestant minority, but before the war many schools had Jewish religious instruction included in their curriculum and, in some areas, Greek Orthodox also.
The physical welfare of Secondary pupils, as we have seen, has received increasing attention with the passage of time, and there is much athletic activity in the schools. Gymnastics is compulsory - the Gymnastic equipment varies considerably in quality and quantity - and "fresh-air afternoon" (Freiluftenachmittage) and "Wanderungen" now play an important part in school life; at any rate so far as time is concerned. It is a commonly heard criticism that these "Freiluftenachmittage" are a waste of time and a bore to all concerned, and certainly the expressions often seen on the faces of pupils and teachers alike as they march rather aimlessly around the suburbs of a town, or through a park, lends some weight to the criticism. From the pupils' point of view by far the most popular sporting activity is ski-ing and most schools run training courses for one or two classes in the Spring Term. Several teachers go off into the country with a group of pupils for perhaps a fortnight at a time, much ski-ing is done, some school work goes on and the advantages of communal life and the lessons to be learned from tasks performed for others are stressed. Team-games are not very popular and there is, on the whole, little inter-school competition - it can be alleged that an opportunity is missed here for some moral and civic instruction. The belief in the possibility, and indeed the advantage of sporting activity going hand-in-hand
with study is not very widely held in Austrian schools and Universities. People who play games tend to be a race apart, and the "average performer" is rarely found.

The institution of the "Schulgemeinde" (School Council) in many schools is designed to promote civic, and to some degree, moral education. This Council usually consists of representatives from each class and a representative of the teaching staff. It may be responsible for some internal discipline, such as corridor supervision during intervals, and may also organise School Concerts, Parents' evenings and charitable activities such as collections for areas hit by avalanches - in this it is often assisted by the Junior Red Cross Association, strong in many schools. Through its Staff Member it may make representations concerning minor matters affecting the organisation of the school. In theory, therefore, it could be quite a powerful body but in practice it is rarely so. This is once again largely due to the intrusion of politics into so many aspects of life in Austria. The "Schulgemeinde" was chiefly a scheme of the Socialist reformers and, as such, is looked on with suspicion by teachers and parents of other political opinions. Today such School Councils are found mainly in "Red" schools - schools with Socialist headmasters - and they lack the common support necessary to make them really effective. The presence of a teacher at all their deliberations is, too, perhaps a contributory factor in their frequent weakness.
The activity of the Form Master (Klassenvorstand) is also intended to serve the interests of "Erziehung" as well as of "Unterricht". In addition to attempting to co-ordinate and supervise the work of his form, he is expected to look after their general progress and well-being, to maintain contact with parents and to be largely responsible to the Headmaster for any troubles or disciplinary difficulties which affect members of his form. Along with the various subject-teachers concerned, he will take charge of the "cultural" side of the pupils' schooling - visits to theatre, opera, cinema, excursions of all kinds with educational aims, historical, geographical, linguistic and scientific. In most schools such activity is considerable - often with excellent results.

One other institution - many claim it to be the most important - whose purpose is moral, civic, physical and ethical education is the "Schullandwoche". This is the system which, in summer, takes whole classes out into the country for some weeks, usually to "homes" (Schulheime) belonging to the individual schools, or, in other cases, to "homes" under the control of the Provincial Authority. Enough teachers accompany the pupils to allow at least a fair amount of instruction to continue, and, as in the ski-ing courses, stress is laid on communal life and physical welfare. The system has its critics who allege, amongst other things, that very
little real work is done and that the teachers look on these "Schullandwochen" as additional holidays, which have the advantage of being free; indeed, in many cases, the teachers receive extra pay for their added responsibilities.

So far we have not considered one very important word in the stated aim of the "Mittelschule" - the word "national", which is perhaps best translated here as "patriotic", although it also means "nationalistic". In the Austria which remained after the collapse of 1918 it was essential that this spirit should be stressed and the conditions after 1945 have not, it is felt, lessened this need. Almost all the activities we have mentioned, including the subjects of the curriculum, have to be used, with good sense and in moderation, to serve this aim. Excursions, cultural activities, sport are all to help develop a true knowledge and love of Austria and to create a national solidarity.

It is exceedingly difficult for a foreigner to attempt to pass judgment on the success achieved by the Austrian Secondary Schools in this side (Erziehung) of their activity. The danger of one's own personal and national prejudices outweighing objectivity is very great.

We have already discussed the physical and intellectual aspects of the question and indicated what is meant by a "national" spirit and what has been achieved in this direction. The religious aspect is reasonably clear - the Churches
take charge of this part of education according to their doctrines, the schools merely providing the facilities for them to do so. We are therefore left with the "social" and "civic" (sozial; staatsbürgerlich) sides of education in the "Mittelschulen", and the results attained. In so far as these results are to be judged by day-to-day observation of life in Austria, it is not easy to be impressed. One sees little sign of social sense or voluntary civic discipline, manners, while often impressive, are formal, stereotyped and rather empty, and there appears to be little consideration for others, unless these others are friends or obviously people of importance.

How far are the schools responsible for this? Clearly the main training in this direction comes from the home, and the school can normally only modify the situation to some degree. Much is attempted, but usually only by precept - this is not to minimise the very genuine practical efforts we have discussed - and the pupils do not often enough, either in school or outside, see these precepts put into practice.

It must be borne in mind that this lack of regard for, and frequent distrust of one's neighbour has very deep roots. So often in recent Austrian experience, the stranger, and often even the acquaintance, was someone not to be trusted or, at least, to be watched with suspicion. With our more
fortunate historical experience we have not in Britain had to reckon with this problem and our criticism is perhaps superficial and unkind. The Continental - despite his outward show of carefree welcome to the obvious tourist - distrusts the stranger and withdraws into the safety of his own circle, which then assumes such importance to him that his consideration for others is slight.

That the Austrian Schools have as yet made little progress in improving this situation is probably not their fault, as outside influences have been so strongly against such progress.

(d) Internal Organisation: "Direktor": As head of the school he is responsible for its efficiency to the Federal Ministry of Education through the Provincial Education Authority (Landesschulrat). He usually does six - seven hours of teaching per week, and, in addition to secretarial staff, he has as administrative assistant (administrative Hilfskraft) a teacher who also teaches his subject for a few hours each week. Although the teachers, individually and as a body, possess a considerable influence through the "Konferenz" system, the Headmaster's position is increasing in authority with the immense growth of administrative work now done in Austrian, as in other schools. In many matters centralised administrative control is such that the teachers have comparatively little power.
The appointment of the "Direktor" is now, to all intents and purposes, a political one. The relative strength of the political parties determines the number of Socialist and People's Party headmasters in each province. These arrangements are made by the parties and reviewed every five years in the light of any political change. In Styria for example, the recent arrangement was that, of the sixteen Secondary Schools, eleven should have "Black" (People's Party) and five should have "Red" (Socialist) Headmasters. It should not be assumed, because of this, that politics are brought into the schools to any large extent - the teaching is usually comparatively unaffected by the political background; the outside activities which are encouraged in the school may, however, tend to reflect the political views of the staff in general and of the headmaster in particular.

What is more serious is the criticism that headmasterships are awarded, not to outstanding educational figures who happen to be "Black" or "Red" as the case may be, but to active political workers who are also teachers. Since the war particularly, as in France, political activity has meant very rapid promotion to many men, who are not all proving successful in the more responsible posts they now hold.

"Konferenz": Conferences - staff meetings - of various kinds are an official part of the life of all Austrian "Mittelschulen" and are held at definite times for specific purposes.
In addition to the general conferences presided over by the "Direktor" - at the beginning of term to discuss arrangements for the weeks ahead, at the end of term when marks are finally awarded - there are other smaller meetings. For example all the teachers of one class under the chairmanship of the Form Master meet to decide how to avoid any "overlapping" of their subjects, to arrange a scheme for homework, to decide on times for "Schularbeiten" (Class Tests), to discuss possible excursions and such activities, or to consider individual pupils who may require some special attention. In addition there is the "subject conference" (Fachkonferenz) which meets to consider and discuss problems and new ideas concerning the teaching of each subject. It could be maintained that much of this work might well be done informally among the teachers but this system ensures, or should ensure, that such necessary arrangements are in fact made, which is by no means always the case when they are left to informal contact between the members of the teaching-staff concerned.

"Jahresbericht" (Annual Report): Every "Mittelschule" produces an Annual Report giving an account of the Year's work and activities. It is prepared under the direction of the Headmaster and, in addition to providing very detailed information about all aspects of the life of the school, it contains each year an article by a different member of the staff. This is traditionally a short scholarly treatise on a subject of
interest to the author, although some reports have in recent years published articles of topical, sometimes controversial, educational interest, such as an attack on, or a defence of the idea of the Common Secondary School (allgemeine Mittelschule).

These reports are designed to give all interested in the school a comprehensive idea of its work and they are interesting documents, although perhaps, for many, rather unnecessarily detailed, being replete with references to official documents of all kinds.

Pupils have to buy their own books, although provision is made for children of parents who are not in a position to do so. Usually, one teacher is responsible for collecting and organising books which can be used to help pupils in this way. School-funds, parents' contributions, former pupils' interest all combine with some official help to make this activity a success.

In a somewhat similar manner, but mainly by official allocation of funds, collections (Sammlungen) of useful equipment and exhibits are made, normally under the direction of a senior teacher, for subjects such as Natural History, Zoology and Geology. Full details of what is held in these "Sammlungen" is given annually in the "Jahresbericht".

Most Secondary Schools possess a well-filled Staff Library (Lehrerbibliothek) in which are to be found books of
value for the various subjects but which are too expensive for the individual teacher to buy himself. This is of course a welcome institution especially since 1945 when book prices have risen so much. The money is once again provided by the State.

(e) Teachers: Like all teachers in state educational institutions in Austria, Secondary Teachers are Civil Servants (Beamten). Teachers of academic subjects, after a full Secondary course, attend a University or Technical College for a minimum of eight semesters, after which they present themselves as candidates for the "Lehramtsprüfung für Mittelschulen", the State-conducted examination which governs the right of entry to the profession as a teacher in a Secondary School. In addition to the candidate's specialist subjects - usually two - the examination contains tests in Education, Philosophy and Psychology in which the candidate has attended compulsory lectures. One interesting aspect of the Austrian system is that prospective teachers of Physical Education have as their second specialist subject an academic one - a foreign language or geography for example - thus at the same time ensuring equality of "status" with their colleagues and providing an insurance, as it were, against the time when they will no longer be able to give instruction in Physical Education.

While attending University the prospective teacher
may - and very frequently does - prepare for a Doctorate in one or other of his subjects. This is an internal University matter and possession of the degree is not a condition of appointment to a post in a Secondary School, although it may frequently be of assistance.

After successfully completing the "Lehrämterprüfung", the candidate serves for a year as a "Probelehrer" (probationary teacher) in a Secondary School. He is normally assigned to the care of a senior teacher of his subject. Simultaneously he attends occasional lectures and demonstration lessons, and visits various schools, as a member of the "Seminar für Mittelschulpraxis", the study group of "Probelehrer" which is conducted normally by a Senior Headmaster who is a specialist in the particular subject.

On completion of this "Probajahr" the teacher is then appointed on a contractual basis (Vertragslehrer) to a post in a Secondary School. After a further period his appointment is made permanent and pensionable (Pragmatisierung). In the past this period as "Vertragslehrer" has lasted a minimum of four years - the proportion of permanent to "contractual" posts being sixty-eight to thirty-two, decided on a Provincial basis, but attempts are being made to increase this ratio to ninety to ten, and thus to shorten the time spent as "Vertragslehrer".

Secondary teachers are placed on the highest of the
three salary scales for teachers, receive marriage and children's allowances and contribute 4% of their salaries for pension purposes. The many and complicated regulations governing allowances, grants and taxes make it very difficult to arrive at the exact salary of a teacher, but it would probably be correct to estimate it at perhaps two-thirds of the salary of his Scottish counterpart. Salary arrangements in Austria appear to be in a permanent State of flux, so that it is dangerous to make any too definite comparison with other countries.

We have mentioned that the Secondary Teacher in Austria has what seems to us a very small number of teaching periods per week - twenty to twenty-five of forty-five minutes each according to his subjects. Correction is also considerably less than in the normal Scottish school. Much more time is therefore left for lesson preparation, for continued study and other interests especially as, unlike the Scottish teacher, the Austrian is not obliged to remain in school when he is not actually teaching. As a result quite a large number of Austrian Secondary teachers carry on some other work - as University lecturers, as private tutors or homework supervisors in their own homes. This latter type of activity is not normally very satisfactory or rewarding but at least the teacher has the time to undertake it without its becoming a considerable burden and fatigue.

As far as working conditions are concerned, the "Mittelschullehrer" is most often, despite lack of School buildings, comparatively fortunate. Sometimes class-rooms are old
and inadequately equipped but staff-room accommodation is spacious, airy and superior to the normal equivalent in this country. The fact that the Conferences are held in the Staff Room, which is in fact called the "Konferenzzimmer", give some indication of the space available. Cultural and recreational interests are catered for - newspapers and periodicals being made available through the use of school funds, and a member of staff (Kulturreferent) having the duty of ensuring that his colleagues are kept informed about theatre, opera and concerts and usually undertaking booking and other arrangements.

As was suggested when we were considering the "Sprechstunde", the status of the "Mittelschullehrer" is still high, despite his modest salary. In a country which so loves titles and which is so punctilious in their use, that of "Herr Professor" occupies a lofty place in the hierarchy. Despite frequent grumbles, the parents rarely question his decisions and authority and may still stand rather in awe of him.

(f) Problems: Secondary education in Austria faces many problems, some of which appear on the way to solution while in others little, if any, progress is made.

One difficulty which has arisen since the war is of course lack of accommodation - in the first place shortage of buildings, through war damage and creation of new schools,
and, in the second, lack of rooms in existing schools due largely to the steady increase in the number of children attending "Mittelschulen". Especially acute is the shortage of rooms equipped for Science. In Vienna, two years ago, there were in the fifty-one Secondary Schools, forty-five Physics and thirty-four Chemistry Laboratories. Progress has on the whole been slow in providing new Secondary Schools - "Hauptschulen" have been built more quickly as the need for them was usually even more pressing - and the consequences have been serious. Buildings designed to serve as one Secondary School frequently now house two, although not at the same time. The custom of half-day secondary schooling makes it possible for one school to occupy the building in the morning and another to do so in the afternoon and early evening. This presents difficulties, especially for the "guest" school, which has to improvise administrative and staff-room accommodation as normally they have the right to use only the class-rooms. "Optional" classes which formerly could be held in the early afternoon must now meet either early in the morning (7.15) or at about the same time in the evening as all class-rooms are full at other times. From early morning till late evening children can be seen going to or coming from school.

Until very recently there was no lack of teaching staff in the Secondary Schools, once conditions had become
settled after the war. Indeed, some years ago young teachers had to wait a considerable time before posts were available for them. However, various factors are now causing education authorities to view the staffing position with some concern. As was noted, the number of pupils in "Mittelschulen" has increased considerably and is still increasing, more teachers are being withdrawn into administrative jobs as the centralisation tendency gains momentum, and, partly as a result of official policy, the number of graduates from the Universities and Colleges is decreasing. Industry, too, is drawing to itself some students who might otherwise have become teachers, especially of Mathematics and Science, and here it should be remembered that the Federal German Republic with its prosperous industrial conditions, acts as a powerful magnet. Students of modern foreign languages, also, are finding careers in business which is once again expanding in the new "free" Austria, and they and other graduates of the Faculties of Philosophy and of Law have also the possibility now of obtaining appointments in the reborn Foreign Branches of the Civil Service. The consequence of all this is that many teaching posts in Secondary Schools are becoming more and more difficult to fill but the probability is that, in Austria, with its relatively large proportion of Secondary pupils anxious to go on to University, the position will soon right
itself. Political factors are not absent here, either, and one not infrequently hears expressed the view that it is more worth-while to obtain early favour with a Party, while in some comparatively Junior Local Government post, than to expend time, effort and money in a course of University studies. Against this must, however, be set the great desire for the title of "Akademiker" and the status it brings.

One great problem which has continued to beset Secondary Education - we have already noted its presence in the Compulsory Schools - is that of the "Überlastung der Schüler" (surmenage scolaire) and its attendant evils. The main factors contributing to this difficulty have been mentioned - the inclusion of more and more subjects in the curriculum, and the presence in "Mittelschulen" of pupils who are apparently not of the desired calibre, due mainly to the determination of many parents to give their children a Secondary education at all costs. We have noted that a move is being made towards a reduction in the number of compulsory subjects, though not, it should be emphasised, in order to aid indifferent pupils so much as to improve the education offered and avoid superficiality. Acceptance of these ideas may well militate against the chances of the mediocre child. At present many pupils succeed in entering the "Mittelschule" and in staying there, usually very precariously, largely because of the special private tuition they receive. The
percentage of pupils who receive this additional help is not certain - estimates range from 66\% to 33\% - but their number is very large, as is proved by the existence of many "Nachhilfe" (coaching) institutions, usually conducted by Secondary teachers themselves in their spare time. Teaching methods, too, contribute to this state of affairs - the large amount of homework given and the absence, on the part of the teacher, of the responsibility of ensuring that lessons have been understood. Bitter critics among the parents claim that not enough real teaching is done in the schools and some even go so far as to allege that this situation is intentionally contrived by many teachers so that there will be an opportunity for them to add to their salary by undertaking private tuition and the "expert" supervision of homework. The teachers defend themselves by attacking the parents who, through over-ambition, are sending unintelligent children to the "Mittelschule", or who are not creating a good, happy home atmosphere, free from distractions of little cultural value. They claim, too, that the present generation of children are nervous, unable to concentrate on school work, and have not been taught - in the "Volkschule" - how to learn by themselves. Finally they cite the lack of accommodation, the oversize classes, the overburdened and underpaid teachers. It seems clear that there is right on both sides. Parents are sending to the Secondary Schools children who are unsuitable intellectually - and, as we have noticed, that is really
all that counts in Austria - while teachers, despite their typically Austrian claim that they are overworked, probably do less than they could to ensure the success of their work in school. One frequently has the impression that the Secondary teacher credits the small boy or girl with the thoughts, wishes, values and stamina of an adult, that he looks too early for that maturity (Reife) which is the avowed ultimate aim of Secondary schooling. The teacher's preoccupation with and often genuine enthusiasm for his subject may tend to make him lose contact with the pupils he is instructing. Whatever the final judgment should be, this is a problem which causes great dissatisfaction and over which much ink is spilt annually. One thing can be said, I think, without fear of contradiction, and that is that, in the "Mittelschule" as it now is, a child of poor parents, or parents who are not "Akademiker", has to possess outstanding ability to hold his place. In a class in which many pupils receive private tuition or supervision it must be very difficult for the others to compete successfully.
CHAPTER VI.
THE AUSTRIAN "HOCHSCHULEN".

i. Introduction.

The term "Hochschule" is used to cover the Universities and the other institutions of higher education which enjoy University status. Since 1918 the Republic of Austria has three Universities, situated in Vienna, Graz and Innsbruck; two Technical Colleges (Technische Hochschulen) in Vienna and Graz; a College of Agriculture and Forestry (Hochschule für Bodenkultur), a College of International Commerce (Hochschule für Welthandel), a Veterinary College (Tierärztliche Hochschule), an Academy of Arts (Akademie der bildenden Künste), an Academy of Music and Dramatic Art (Staatseakademie für Musik und darstellende Kunst), and an Academy of Applied Art (Akademie der angewandten Kunst), all of which are in Vienna, a College of Mining (Montanistische Hochschule) in Leoben in Styria, and a Divinity College (Theologische Fakultät) in Salzburg. The two Art Colleges are usually referred to as "Kunsthochschulen", to distinguish them from the other more academic establishments, the "wissenschaftliche Hochschulen".

Imperial Austria of Habsburg days had, of course, other "Hochschulen" within its boundaries. The University of Prague, founded in 1348, was the first Austrian University - in 1882, in face of the rising current of Czech nationalism, it
was split into two virtually separate institutions, the German University (Deutsche Karl-Ferdinands Universität) in which German was the Language of instruction, and the Bohemian University (Böhmische Karl-Ferdinands Universität) a Czech-speaking establishment. In 1364, a year before the foundation of the University of Vienna, there was set up the Jagellon University of Cracow in which Polish was the Language of instruction. The Jesuits in 1661 established a University at Lemberg (Lwow); this became a State institution in 1781 with German as language of instruction until 1867 when Polish was adopted. The Catholic Church was represented by the Faculty of Theology at Olmütz (Olomouco) in Moravia which, like its counterpart in Salzburg, was a relic of a former University. The Imperial Government under Franz Josef founded a University in Czernowitz (Cernauti) in Rumanian Ukraine; this institution was incomplete in that it did not possess a Faculty of Medicine. Its Theological Faculty was in the hands of the Greek Orthodox Church.

ii. Universities:

The University of Vienna is the oldest of the present-day Austrian "Hochschulen". It was founded in 1365 by Duke Rudolf IV and has since then enjoyed a dominant position in Higher Education in the country. Although possibly best known abroad for the work of its Faculty of Medicine, all its other faculties have consistently maintained a very high
reputation throughout Germany and Central Europe while at the same time attracting large numbers of students from the Balkans. Recent political developments have reduced the numbers of students from the Succession States but it is interesting to note the presence in Vienna since 1945 of many from Greece and the Near and Middle East.

In 1583 the University of Graz was set up by the Archduke Karl, and, although between 1782-1787 it was relegated to the status of a "Lyzeum", it was subsequently re-established by Imperial Decree as the "Karl-Franzens Universität Graz". Although not enjoying the status of the University of Vienna, it has served the needs of Styria and Carinthia in particular and earlier of that part of Habsburg territory which is now incorporated in Jugoslavia.

The University of Innsbruck was founded in 1665 and, like Graz, was reduced to a "Lyzeum" (1782-92 and 1810-25) before being re-opened in 1826 as the "Leopold-Franzens Universität". Like Graz, too, it is of course largely a "regional" University, catering chiefly for the requirements of Tirol and Vorarlberg and parts of the Province of Salzburg. By its position it suffered from the earlier political controversy over South Tirol and from the pressure brought upon it before 1918 to provide courses in which Italian was to be the language of instruction. Now it is an undisputedly German-speaking University.
The Austrian University has four Faculties:

i. Divinity, Theology (Theologische Fakultät)

ii. Law and Political Science (Rechts- und Staatswissenschaftliche Fakultät)

iii. Medicine (Medizinische Fakultät)

iv. Philosophy (philosophische Fakultät).

The Faculties of Divinity are Catholic. The University of Vienna has also, however, a Protestant Faculty (Evangelisch-Theologische Fakultät). This was opened in 1819 as the Evangelical College of Theology (Evangelisch-Theologische Bildungsanstalt), an independent institution of University rank, and as such it continued until 1922 when it became part of the University.

The Faculty of Philosophy comprises the humanities as well as the sciences, combining, as it were, our Faculties of Arts and Science.

Courses:

i. **Divinity:** (a) Catholic: Students in this Faculty follow a course of from ten to twelve semesters. They are examined throughout the course in all compulsory subjects. To obtain the degree of Doctor of Divinity (Dr. Theol.) they must submit a Thesis and present themselves at three Oral Examinations (Rigorosen) in which their general level of performance is assessed.

   (b) **Protestant:** The course is of eight semesters, after seven of which students attempt the first
part of their Professional Examination (Kandidatenprüfung). The second part is attempted at the end of the course. For the Doctor of Divinity in this Faculty, success in both parts of the "Kandidatenprüfung" is essential, a Thesis is submitted and two "Rigorosen" have to be passed.

ii. **Law and Political Science:** (a) **Law** (Rechtswissenschaft) - This is a course of eight semesters, divided into three sections, at the end of each of which there is a State Examination (Staatsprüfung). Success in all of these gives right of entry to higher posts in Justice and Administration and also admission to candidacy for the position of Notary (Notar) and Solicitor (Rechtsanwalt). To obtain the degree of Doctor of Law (Dr. jur.) students must also pass three "Rigorosen".

(b) **Political Science** (Staatswissenschaft) - This is an eight-semester course, after which the degree of Doctor of Political Science (Dr. rer. pol.) is awarded on submission of a Thesis and successful presentation at two "Rigorosen".

(c) **Course of International Studies** (Lehrgang für internationale Studien) - This course, held in Vienna only, is of two semesters' duration and is open to all students. The Diploma Examination which crowns it may be attempted only by those who have completed the Law course or those who possess the degree of Doctor of Commerce (Handelswissenschaften), from the "Hochschule für Welthandel".

iii. **Medicine:** - This is a ten semesters' course, divided
into pre-clinical and clinical divisions. The degree of Doctor of Medicine (Doktorat der gesamten Heilkunde - Dr. med. univ.) is awarded on the basis of success in three "Rigorosen". Three years' practice in a public hospital is then necessary before the doctor can establish himself in private practice.

iv. Philosophy: - The Faculty offers the subjects usually found in the Arts and Science Faculties in this country. The University of Vienna also includes a course in "Theatre and Newspaper Science" (Theater-und Zeitungswissenschaft). Award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Dr. phil.) is made after a minimum of eight semesters' study upon submission of a Thesis and success in two "Rigorosen".

Students who wish to become teachers in Secondary Schools must sit a State Examination (Lehramtsprüfung) at the end of their course of eight semesters. This examination consists of tests, written and oral, in the two subjects which the student proposes to teach; in philosophy, (teachers of philosophy sit an extra examination in this subject); in Pedagogy and Psychology.

This Faculty provides two courses in Pharmacy. The first, of six semesters crowned with two "Rigorosen", leads to the degree of Master of Pharmacy (Mag. pharm.), and the second, of nine semesters and terminated by presentation of a Thesis and including two "Rigorosen", to the Doctorate
Interesting courses also conducted by the Faculty of Philosophy are those in which Interpreters and Translators are trained. The course for Translators lasts five semesters and is terminated by a Professional Examination (Fachprüfung), written and oral, in the languages studied. Success brings the right to the title of "Academically-tested Translator" (akademisch geprüfter Übersetzer), and also the right to proceed further with a view to becoming an official Interpreter. For this a further course of two semesters is necessary, followed by a Diploma Examination (Diplomprüfung), similar in form to but higher in standard than the tests for Translators. Successful completion of the course entitles the student to style himself "Certificated Interpreter" (Diplom-Dolmetscher).

iii. Technical Colleges: (Technische Hochschulen)

1. Vienna: - This school was founded in 1815 as the "Imperial-Royal Technical Institute" (Kaiserliches-Königliches Technisches Institut) and, unlike its predecessor in Paris, "l'Ecole Polytechnique" (1794), it enjoyed University status from the start of its career, being thus the first such institution in Europe. Initially it consisted of two independent departments - technical and commercial - and had attached to it a two-year "Realschule" as a preparatory school. In 1851,
however, this "Realschule" was separated from the "Institut" and, in 1865, shortly after the establishment in Vienna of a Commercial Academy (Handelsakademie), the commercial department was dissolved. The "Institut" in 1872 assumed the title of "Technische Hochschule" and received a new statute which is valid to-day.

The Technical College is at present divided into five Faculties as follows:—

i. Civil Engineering (Bauingenieurwesen) — 9 Semesters.
ii. Architecture (Architektur) — 8 Semesters.
iii. General Engineering (Maschinenwesen) — 9 Semesters.
   a) Mechanical Engineering (Maschinenbau)
   b) Electrical Engineering (Elektrotechnik)
   c) Marine Engineering (Schiffsbau, Schiffsmaschinenbau).
iv. Chemistry (Chemie) — 9 Semesters.
   a) Technical Chemistry (technische Chemie)
   b) Heating Engineering (Feuerungstechnik: Gastechnik).
   a) Technical Physics (technische Physik) 8 Semesters.
   b) Surveying (Vermessungswesen) — 7 Semesters.
   c) Actuarial Mathematics (Versicherungsmathematik) — 6 Semesters.
All main courses in the "Technische Hochschulen" are divided into two parts, with a State Examination at the end of each. Success in both of these examinations brings the right to the degree and title of "Certificated Engineer" (Diplomingenieur - Dipl. Ing.). The Doctorate in Technology (Dr. techn.) requires successful presentation at the first State Examination, submission of a Thesis, followed by two "Rigorosen", the first of a general nature covering the various branches of the subject or subjects professed and the second (Haupt rigorosum) an intensive oral examination in a specialised field of knowledge.

As has already been indicated, aspiring teachers of Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Descriptive Geometry (darstellende Geometrie) in the "Mittelschulen" may choose to study in a "Technische Hochschule", in which special courses, similar to those given in the Universities, are provided for them.

2. Graz: - The second Technical College in modern Austria developed from the "Joanneum", the institution presented to Styria in 1811 by the Archduke John. In addition to housing collections and libraries, it provided courses in various scientific subjects. By 1850 it had become notable for its courses in the exact and applied sciences and especially in mining engineering. In 1865 it gained University status, while remaining a Provincial institution, but in 1872 it
received a statute like that of Vienna and it was taken over by the State two years later.

The Graz Technical College has four Faculties, as compared with Vienna's five, there being no separate Faculty of Chemistry, which is included in the Faculty of Science (Naturwissenschaften). Otherwise there are only minor differences in the courses offered by the two Colleges. Graz has no Department of Marine Engineering - a remarkable subject to find in land-locked Austria, whose only shipping is on the Danube and on some of the lakes - but possesses a Department for the study of the techniques involved in paper-making and cellulose manufacture (Papiertechnik, Zellstofftechnik).

iv. Other "Hochschulen"

1. College of Agriculture and Forestry (Hochschule für Bodenkultur): The first move towards the foundation of such a "Hochschule" was made at the Agrarian Congress (Agrarkongress) in Vienna in 1868, when the opinion was expressed that an Agricultural College should be established to serve the western half of the Empire. Although it was held by some that this College should be affiliated to an existing University or Technical College, it was finally decided that an independent institution be created. Early in 1872 a Bill to this effect was put before Parliament and
later in the same year it was approved and a Statute for the College was drawn up. It was resolved that the new College should not confine itself to Agriculture (Landwirtschaft) but should include a section devoted to the study of Forestry (Forstwirtschaft). Hence the general title of "Hochschule für Bodenkultur" (cultivation of the soil) was adopted. In October of 1872 the Agricultural Department was opened, to be followed three years later by the Forestry Department, which replaced the Forestry Academy (Forstakademie) that had been in existence for sixty years at Maria-Brunn. Initially the College was under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture (Ackerbauministerium), but in 1877 it was brought under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. In 1905 the length of the course of study was increased from six to eight semesters and the College obtained the right to award Degrees (Promotionsrecht). Little change was subsequently made in the organisation until 1945 when a Faculty of Fermentation Technique (Gärungstechnik) was introduced, replacing the former "Austrian Academy of Brewing" (Österreichische Brauakademie) in Vienna.

The College offers expert help and advice to those practically engaged in Agriculture and Forestry throughout the country. In Imperial days this help largely took the form of providing skilled stewards and factors for the large
estates of the Habsburg aristocracy, but now this has given place to the staffing of, and co-operation with the State Forestry Service and to the provision of information and assistance to the peasant farmers and their associations. In addition, the College is responsible for the preparation of teachers for the country's various lower schools of Agriculture and of Forestry and for the undertaking of scientific research which is likely to be of value in its own particular spheres of interest.

Courses, all of eight semesters, are now provided in the four main Faculties -(1) Agriculture, (2) Forestry, (3) Agricultural Engineering (Kulturtechnik): including irrigation, (4) Fermentation Technique. There is also a two semesters' course in Gardening and Landscaping (Landschaftsgestaltung). The Diploma (Dipl. Ing.) is awarded on the results of three State Examinations, while the "Doktorat in Bodenkultur" requires, in addition to the Diploma, a Thesis and a "Rigorosum".

2. College of International Commerce (Hochschule für Welthandel): - Founded in 1898 as the "Exportakademie", the College did not assume its present title until 1919, and it remained under the Ministry of Trade and Commerce (Ministerium für Handel und Verkehr) until 1945, when it was taken over by the Federal Ministry of Education. Its greatest step forward in public esteem was made in 1930 when the
College was granted "Promotionsrecht" and when recruitment of its teaching staff was governed by regulations similar to those in force in other "Hochschulen". The College offers a six-Semester course leading to the degree of "Diplomkaufmann" (Dkfm.), which is awarded on the results of three examinations and which corresponds approximately to our Bachelor of Commerce. Candidates for the Doctorate of Commerce (Doktorat der Handelswissenschaften) must first obtain the Diploma and then complete a further course of two semesters, submit a Thesis and pass two "Rigorosen". Teachers in the Commercial Schools of Secondary level (Handelsakademie, Handelsschule) are also trained in the "Hochschule"; they must follow a special course of two Semesters' duration after obtaining the Diploma. In addition to the usual Commercial Subjects - Economics, Economic History and Geography, Finance, Banking, Commercial Law etc. - tuition is provided in five languages, English, French, Russian, Spanish and Italian, two of which are compulsory in the Diploma Examinations. Special account is taken of the country's geographical position by the inclusion of intensive courses on Eastern and South-Eastern Europe, and of her economic situation by the attention paid to the economics of tourism (Fremdenverkehr).

3. Veterinary College (Tierärztliche Hochschule): - The forerunner of this College was the "Training Establishment for Military Farriers" (Bildungsanstalt für Militär -
Fahnschmiede), founded in 1767 on the outskirts of Vienna by the Empress Maria-Theresa. Since then its progress has been characterised by the gradual change towards the training of Veterinary Surgeons in the fullest sense of the term rather than of Army "tradesmen", and a widening of the curriculum from the original single emphasis on the horse. Two members of its first teaching staff were almost at once sent to Lyon and Paris to obtain experience and more advanced ideas and, shortly after their return, the original Training School became, in 1778, the "Imperial-Royal Hospital for Animals" (Kaiserliches-Königliches Tierspital), under the War Council (Hofkriegsrat). From 1812 to 1852 the College, now in Vienna itself, was affiliated to the University, reverting on the latter date to the control of the War Ministry (Kriegsministerium). Its gradual rise in academic status was marked in the usual ways - in 1897 it became a "Hochschule", in 1903 it gained the right to award degrees (Promotionsrecht) and in 1909 the right to elect its "Rektor" in the normal "Hochschule" manner (freie Rektorswahl). The College finally came under the control of the Federal Ministry of Education in 1920. Austrians make the claim that it provides probably the most comprehensive course of studies of all Veterinary Colleges in Europe and recall with pride the fact that in its one hundred and eighty years of existence, its teaching staff has been increased
from four to sixty and the subjects offered from four to thirty-four.

The course of 9 Semesters is governed by three State examinations, success in which entitles the student to the "Diploma in Veterinary Studies" (Diplom. Tierarzt) and to entry into practice. Before entering for the second State Examination, he must, however, have had satisfactory practical experience under a "Diplom-Tierarzt". The Doctorate (Dr. med. vet.) in Veterinary Science (Tierheilkunde) requires, in addition to the Diploma, the submission of a Thesis and success in a "Rigorosum".

4. Academy of Arts (Akademie der bildenden Künste): In 1812 the "Akademie", divided into an Art School (Kunstschule) and a Society of Arts (Kunstgesellschaft) received a Statute from the Emperor Franz I. It was thereby declared to be the "Artistic Authority of the Country" (Kunstbehörde der Nation), and an independent institution whose Curator (Kurator) was responsible directly to the Emperor himself. Until 1848 the "Kurator" was in fact the Chancellor, Metternich. In 1849, however, the "Akademie" was placed under the authority of the Ministry of Education and became an Art College in the normal sense of the term; it lost its position as an official "Authority", but at the same time gained in academic status by the removal from its
curriculum of the elementary courses it had hitherto provided. It was now able to assume a certain artistic ability on the part of entrance candidates and to demand from them a fair standard of general education.

Under present regulations, the "Akademie" conducts its own Entrance Examination (Aufnahmesprüfung) to select its students. Aspiring architects and Art Teachers must possess a Secondary Leaving Certificate (Matura) before being accepted for training. The course for the College's Diploma lasts eight Semesters.

In 1941, the former National School of Arts and Handicrafts (staatliche Kunstgewerbeschule), which had been created in 1865 in an attempt to raise the standards of taste and artistry in many fields of craftsmanship and industrial production, was elevated to the status of a "Hochschule". Now called the Academy of Applied Art (Akademie für angewandte Kunst) it awards Diplomas after a course of eight Semesters.

5. National Academy of Music and Dramatic Art (Staatsakademie für Musik und DarstellendeKunst): - In 1815 the "Society of Friends of Music" (Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde) in Vienna, distressed by the fact that their city, unlike Paris and Milan, possessed no "Conservatoire" began to make plans to found a school of music. From modest beginnings
and with voluntary support the new school soon grew rapidly and, from 1843, it was granted some financial assistance from the State. The events of 1848 caused its closure for three years but subsequently it resumed its activity and by 1860 began to show signs of assuming its present form, with Departments of Music, Dance and Drama (Musik, Tanz, Schauspiel). In 1862 it was granted the right to act as an Examining Body (Prüfungskommission) to test future teachers of music and to award certificates (Zeugnisse). Further progress in this direction was marked by the opening of courses for the training of teachers (Lehrerbildungskurse), a move which increased the amount of supervision exercised by the Ministry of Education. It was not, however, until 1909 that the College, under the name of "Imperial-Royal Academy of Music and Dramatic Art" (Kaiserliche-königliche Akademie für Musik und Darstellende Kunst), was finally taken over completely by the State. By this time it was an institution employing about eighty teachers and catering for almost nine hundred students. The later history of the College is concerned very largely with the attempt to acquire for it a status comparable to that of the "Hochschulen". For some time it was conducted in two divisions - an "Akademie" giving practical instruction to intending musicians, actors, singers and dancers, and a "Hochschule" providing advanced theory and "background" to more able students. Finally, while
"Hochschule" status for the College was retained, the separate "Hochschule" was abolished and a return was made to a single establishment under unified control and with its present title.

Courses offered by the "Akademie" vary in duration from four to twelve semesters, according to their aims and standards. Those students who wish to become teachers of music in the schools require the Leaving Certificate of a Secondary School before applying for entry to the College.

6. **College of Mining (Montanistische Hochschule):**

Unlike the Colleges just discussed, this "Hochschule" is situated not in Vienna but at Leoben in the Province of Styria. This location was an obvious choice for such a College, being in the iron-mining and steel-manufacturing district containing the large works at Donawitz and Kapfenberg and close to the famous Ore Mountain (Erzberg). The first move towards the creation of a school of mining was, however, made in Graz, the Provincial capital. In 1814 the Professors of the recently founded "Joanneum" asked the Emperor to establish a Chair of Mining in their College and this request was eventually granted in 1829. The movement to the mining area took place in 1840 when a "Styrian Mining Institute" (Steiermärkische Ständische Montanenstalt) was set up in Vordernberg, then the main centre. After 1848 a similar school of mining in Schmnnitz in Hungary was virtually closed to German-Austrians,
so, in face of the consequent increased demand, the Vordernberg provincial school was replaced by the "Imperial Royal Mining Academy" (Kaiserliche-königliche Bergakademie), which was established in the District Capital (Kreisstadt) Leoben in 1861. It attained University status as the "Montanistische Hochschule" in 1904 and continued its independent existence until 1934 when it was for a short time combined with the Technical College in Graz to form the "Technische und Montanistische Hochschule Graz-Leoben". This change meant that the College, formerly under the control of the Ministry of Trade and Commerce, now came under supervision of the Ministry of Education, an arrangement which continued in force when the "Montanistische Hochschule" regained its independence.

There are three courses provided in the College - (1) General Mining (Bergwesen), (2) Mining Surveying (Marktscheidewesen), (3) Metallurgy (Hüttenwesen) - all of eight Semesters. Success in the two State Examinations ensures the Diploma in Mining Engineering (Dipl. Ing.), six month's practical work being required before each examination. The Doctorate (Dr. Mont.) is awarded, on the basis of a Thesis and a "Rigorosum", after the Diploma has been obtained.

In 1954-55 the number of students in attendance at all the "Hochschulen" was just under 20,000 (19,954) of whom 4,027 were women. The "wissenschaftliche Hochschulen", i.e., the Universities, Technical Colleges, the Colleges of
Mining, Agriculture and Forestry, Veterinary Science and International Commerce, and the Theological Faculty of Salzburg, accounted for the vast majority (18,394) of these students, the remaining 1,560 being in attendance at the Colleges of Art and Music.

This all-over total of 19,954 is in conformity with the fall in the number of students which has been apparent in recent years, a fall not to be explained merely by the fact that the large numbers of returning ex-service students, who swelled the student population between 1946 and 1949, when the total reached over 35,000, have now passed into the professions and into industry. Nor is the decrease simply due to the additional fact that the generation born between 1933-1939, a period of very low birth-rate in Austria, is now entering the "Hochschulen". Austrian newspapers in 1954 were drawing attention to the situation and pointing out that the number of students in attendance at the University of Vienna during the Winter Semester was under 6,000, the lowest since 1885. Between the wars the numbers varied between 9,500 and 12,000. Taking the attendance figures for all the "Hochschulen" in the capital, those in 1954 were the lowest (11,997) since 1904; even in the difficult economic situation in and around 1934-35 the numbers rarely sank below 15,000. Comparison with the days of Habsburg are of course of little validity, as Vienna was then the cultural and
educational centre for a vast area, but it is remarkable that
recent figures compare unfavourably with those of the First
Republic. It would appear that, despite the Austrian be-
lief in academic education, for the reasons discussed in
our introductory chapter, and despite, too, the consequent
crowding of the "Mittelschulen", many young men and women,
and their parents, no longer feel that higher education at
"Hochschule" level is worth while. By a great number it
is now considered that earlier entry into Government Service
followed by considerable political activity offers better
financial prospects than do the professions, reached through
higher education. Many posts, formerly reserved for grad-
uates, are now open to others whose experience is practical
rather than academic.

The tendency just discussed is not to be observed
in all branches of "Hochschule" education. The largest
fall in numbers since the Second War is in the Medical Fac-
ulty - in the years immediately following 1945 there were
over 6,000 "medicals" in training, whereas the 1954-55
figure was 2,190. Medical students were in a privileged
position during the war, of course, and now the prospects
for entrants to the profession are sufficiently grim to
discourage many students. The Faculty of Medicine now con-
tains about 10 - 11 per cent of the total student population,
as compared with 23 per cent just after the war. The Faculty
of Philosophy and the Technical Colleges now each provide about 20 per cent of the total attendance figure, but this situation represents for the former a decline from 27 per cent and for the latter a rise from 14 per cent since 1946. Between the years under consideration the Faculty of Law has increased its representation from 15 to 18 per cent, possibly as a result of the increasing complexity of government and industry, while the Faculty of Theology has raised its figure from 2 to 5 per cent of the total, due presumably to the defeat of National Socialism. The College of Mining at Leoben has almost trebled its attendance figures — from 211 to 601 and from 1 to 3 per cent of the total — a sign of the activity of that branch of industry, where the existing processes are in full operation while much new work, as, for instance, in oil prospecting and drilling, is being undertaken. The other Colleges have shown little marked change, if the abnormal "bulge" years are left out of account, but it is interesting to note that the "Hochschule für Weltwirtschaft", after a decline around 1950, is now reflecting the improving economic situation of the country by a steady rise in numbers over the last few years. It now accounts for 10 per cent of the total figure, the College of Agriculture and Forestry for 3 per cent, the Veterinary College for 1 per cent and the Colleges of Art and Music for 8 per cent. Technology and Arts were, therefore, in 1955 approximately equal in numerical strength, closely followed by Law. Since that
year Technology will almost certainly have taken the lead, to judge from information available regarding the intentions of pupils leaving the "Mittelschulen".

Relationship with the State: When discussing the history of the individual "Hochschulen" we made mention, in many cases, of the date on which they came under the control of the Ministry of Education. For the first State intervention in Higher Education, however, we must go back to the reign of Marie Theresa, who, as we have elsewhere seen, extended the influence of the Government in this direction. The process was completed under the Ministry of Graf Thun, who took up office in 1849. With the help of Franz Exner and Hermann Bonitz, fresh from their efforts in Secondary School reform, he undertook the nationalisation of the "Hochschulen", which became State institutions, formed, equipped and maintained by the Government, through the Ministries concerned. To guard against the dangers inherent in such a situation, the necessity for "Lehr-und Lernfreiheit" was proclaimed and this was assured by Law in 1867, although this cherished freedom had really been in existence for twenty years. Before 1848 there was little freedom even in Universities, where teachers had to use text-books prescribed by the Government. Many of the conditions necessary for its maintenance were given legal expression in the "Organisation Law" (Organisationsgesetz) of 1873, which is valid to-day. It assured the autonomy of the "Hochschulen"
by leaving in their hands the election of their academic authorities, the control of their own internal examinations and of the awarding of degrees, the co-opting of "Dozenten" and, to a great extent, the appointment of Professors. The State has financial responsibility, has control of the various "Staatsprüfungen", and acts as supreme advisory body and arbiter in the case of disagreement or complaint. The "Hochschulen" are in every case responsible directly to the central Ministry, the Provincial Political and Educational Authorities having no jurisdiction over them. On the whole this academic-state relationship has been successful, a fact reflecting considerable credit on the administrators. Political considerations have no doubt been important in the making of many decisions but, as we have mentioned earlier, the party situation has in recent years normally been such that no very radical moves could be successfully attempted.

The period between 1933 and 1945 was of course quite a different matter. The National Socialists pursued a policy designed at killing all Austrian patriotic feeling, abolishing all Austrian administration and introducing Prussian methods and ideas. The "Hochschulen", which from 1934 had already begun to suffer under an authoritative régime, quickly lost all traces of their autonomy, their officials were nominated by the Party and confirmed National-Socialists were appointed as Professors, "Dozenten" and as student officials, their non-Party predecessors being dismissed and often imprisoned or exiled. "Lehr-und Lernfreiheit" were
swamped by "Nazi" ideology, bringing about the complete isolation of Austria from foreign ideas and progress. To ensure the success of this policy, "Supervisors" (Kuratoren) were appointed in Vienna, Graz and Innsbruck to enforce the edicts emanating from Berlin.

"Hochschule" Authorities: The Principal of a "Hochschule" is the "Rektor", who is elected for one year only. The choice is made by electors representing the Faculties, these electors in turn being chosen from among their number, by those members of the teaching staff entitled to vote in such matters. These are all "full" (ordentlich) Professors, half that number of "associate" (ausserordentlich) Professors or Readers and two elected representatives of the "Privatdozenten". This voting group has also the title of "Fakultät" (Faculty) rather in its American sense. In these elections party politics are frequently important but the non-voting professors and lecturers, when deciding upon their electors, do not know for certain which potential candidate these electors would support. The post of "Rektor" carries with it great status and the title of "His Magnificence" (seine Magnifizenz) but it is a very exacting one, so much so that many possible holders of the position do not wish to assume it. This is particularly so in the case of busy Professors in charge of large Departments, especially members of the Medical Faculties of the Universities. The "Rektor"
is assisted in his routine administrative work by a permanent official (Universitätsdirektor), usually a lawyer, who corresponds roughly to our University Secretary.

At the head of each Faculty is the "Dekan" (Dean) who is elected, also for a year, by his teaching colleagues in that Faculty. Once again this is a post of recognised dignity and influence, conferring upon its holder the title of "His Respectability" (seine Respektabilität).

The governing body of the "Hochschule" is the Senate (Senat) which is made up of the Rector, the Rector of the previous year (Pro-Rektor), the Deans and several Professors who are elected Academic Senators. In administering the individual Faculties, the Deans are assisted by their own "Fakultäten", in the other sense of the word. In the Universities, the four Faculties have complete autonomy in all matters not affecting the University as a whole. They need not consult the Rector or the Senate but deal directly with their "parent" Department in the Ministry of Education. Indeed, it is to be noted that the Faculties are not all administered by the same Ministry Department. Section I of the Federal Ministry has control of the "Hochschulen", but the Faculties of Theology and Law are administered by Department I, Medicine by Department II and Philosophy by Department IV.

Teaching Staffs: The senior members of the teaching
staffs of the "Hochschulen" are the "full Professors" (ordentliche Professoren), who are assisted in the first instance by Readers or Lecturers (ausserordentliche Professoren). Honorary Professors (Honorarprofessoren) are also a feature of the "Hochschulen"; these are usually men of distinction with outstanding achievement in some particular branch of learning. In Modern Language Departments foreign assistants with the title of "Lektor" are appointed, to help chiefly with the more conversational and oral work. The last large group of teachers are the "Privatdozenten", who, while not official members of the staff of the "Hochschule", have obtained the right to teach there.

The "Professoren" are appointed by the President of the Republic - formerly by the Emperor - on the recommendation of the Minister of Education. The Faculty members have, however, the right to nominate several candidates for such posts. Normally, they put forward three names (Terna- vorschlag) and, although the Minister is not legally bound to choose one of them, he almost invariably does so. Such appointments are for life, with pensioned retirement at the age of seventy. As in France, many of the more junior Readers and Lecturers simultaneously hold teaching appointments in Secondary Schools. The "Privatdozent", before obtaining the "Venia legendi", the right to teach at a "Hochschule", has to fulfil certain requirements. He must submit,
for inspection by the Faculty, a publication (Habilitations-
schrift) containing the results of some original research,
must pass an oral examination before a committee appointed
by the Faculty and, lastly, must deliver a "probationary lec-
ture" (Probenvortrag).

In 1954-55 there was a total of 2,078 teachers of
all kinds at the "wissenschaftliche Hochschulen" and 303
at the "Kunsthochschulen".

Students: To obtain admission as a student pursuing
a full course of studies (ordentlicher Hörer) at a Univer-
sity or other academic "Hochschule", candidates must possess
the Leaving Certificate (Reifezeugnis; 'Matura') of a full
Secondary School (Mittelschule). As we have indicated prev-
iously, the "Kunsthochschulen" (Art Colleges) may themselves
test the fitness of candidates for admission to their courses,
except in the case of intending teachers and architects who
must have a "Reifezeugnis". Although not considered an
"allgemeinbildende Mittelschule", the Teachers' Training
College (Lehrerbildungsanstalt) awards a "Reifezeugnis" en-
titling its holders to proceed to a "Hochschule", almost
invariably to the Philosophical Faculty of a University.

Students at the "Hochschulen" are divided into three
main categories. The "ordentliche Hörer" are those follow-
ing a recognised course with a view to graduation or to pass-
ing a State Examination; the "ausserordentliche Hörer"
attend some classes only, to suit their special purpose; the "Gasthörer" are those, normally graduates of the particular "Hochschule", who visit some lecture or course of lectures in which they are especially interested. Unlike the other groups, the "Gasthörer" pay no fees, which are, in any case, relatively low in the Austrian "Hochschulen". In recent years various degrees of exemption from payment of fees (Halbbefreiung, Vollbefreiung) have been granted to those students unable to pay the full amounts, provided they obtain from their teachers certificates that their work is satisfactory. Foreigners are admitted, usually as "außerordentliche Hörer", without any real formality but on the payment of higher fees, often three times the normal figure, although the familiar Austrian mixture of red-tape and "Schlamperei" results in many apparent anomalies.

There is now, of course, no discrimination of race or religion in the "Hochschulen" and the sexes have equal rights. The entry of women to Higher Education took place gradually. In 1878 the Ministry reminded the Universities that there could be no question of admitting women to the "Hochschulen", except in most exceptional cases, where separate lectures were provided and with special permission of the Ministry. By that year, however, women were occasionally admitted to lectures as "Hospitantinnen". About the turn
of the century the Ministry relaxed - in 1896 women were admitted to the Faculty of Medicine, in 1897 to Philosophy. After 1918 they were allowed access to the Faculty of Law and now they enjoy complete equality with men.

Organisation of Studies: The Academic Year at the "Hochschulen" runs from 1st October till 30th September and consists of the Winter Semester, usually till the end of January, the Semester Holidays until mid-February and the Summer Semester till the end of June. These approximate dates, decided upon by the Ministry, vary slightly in different "Hochschulen". There are, of course, other holidays - usually about three weeks at Christmas and a month at Easter, in addition to legal holidays and a "Rectorial Holiday" (Rektorstag) in the Summer Semester on a date decided by the "Rektor" himself.

Teaching is carried on in a variety of ways. Firstly, in all important subjects there are lectures (Vorlesungen) officially of one hour's duration but in reality lasting forty-five minutes; the institution of the "akademisches Viertel" means that the lectures are conducted "cum tempore" and begin fifteen minutes after the advertised time. In subjects where this is possible there are practical lessons ("Übungen"); and finally there is the Seminar, the advanced group working under the Professor, very often on some form of research.

Examinations for the various degrees awarded by the
"Hochschulen" - details of which have already been given - are conducted according to the old German tradition. After completing the statutory number of semesters, the student may, when he feels ready, present himself for examination, submitting his thesis to his Professor and facing the "Rigorosen" as laid down in the regulations. The thesis is normally on a very narrow, specialised topic, the student's knowledge of his subject in general being tested by oral methods in the "Rigorosen". (The State Examinations for entrance to the various professions test the student's capabilities rather more systematically in the subjects in which he presents himself.) In conformity with the principle of "Lernfreiheit", the student prepares himself for these examinations in the way he thinks best and the wisdom of his choice is not proved or disproved until his final Degree examination as there are no intermediate tests.

The fact, however, that today so many students receive from the State financial help which is dependent upon their making progress certified as satisfactory by their teachers means that "Lernfreiheit" is not really complete. In addition, its desirability has frequently been called in question and never more so than at the present time, when moves are afoot to introduce at least one intermediate test for students aiming at a Doctorate. This
would take place after half the necessary number of Semesters had been completed and would, claim its advocates, do much to reduce the time and effort at present vainly expended by students who do not possess the required ability, and would eliminate subsequent disillusionment, thus benefiting both students and society. The opponents of "Lernfreiheit" in its extreme form advance the argument that, in their failure to give advice and guidance to students, especially to the younger ones, the "Hochschulen" are losing valuable opportunities of "Erziehung" as well as of "Unterricht". The possibility of establishing fruitful contacts and co-operation between staff and student is neglected with the result that the "Hochschulen" are inefficient in two of their main functions. This view perhaps receives added force from the fact that students enter the "Hochschulen" with a Certificate awarded by individual "Mittelschulen"—as we have seen—and consequently with widely-varying conceptions of the standards they should have attained. The radical change, too, from the often superficial study of a large number of subjects to the extreme specialisation of the normal "Hochschule" course must often make for difficulty of adjustment. Against all this, the supporters of "Lernfreiheit" point out the fact that the entrants to "Hochschulen" are often slightly older than in many other countries, and emphasise the character-building value of the exercise of such freedom. The wide
choice of lectures open to the German student, they claim, is much more likely to fire his intellectual imagination than is official guidance, however well-meant and understandingly provided. On the question of more frequent examinations, they protest against the introduction of too much cramming of facts at several points throughout the course, as being likely to militate against the acquisition of depth and breadth of learning. Passing of judgment on the situation is exceedingly difficult. The present system produces some magnificent students, who are able to utilise their "Lernfreiheit" to the greatest possible advantage, but it is also true that very much time and effort goes to waste, in a sense. As in the Secondary Schools, the outstanding student appears to be provided for, while the less well-endowed may meet with much difficulty and eventual frustration, most of which could have been averted under a different system. It seems probable that the expected new legislation concerning the "Hochschulen", when it emerges, will take account of the fact that, in practice, "Lernfreiheit" is now limited for most students, and will introduce, where needed, some form of test mid-way through the course, for the reasons given. There is also the possibility that alterations may be made in the duration of some courses - an increase in the minimum number of semesters
is anticipated. This will take into account, particularly, the growing complexity of modern Science and Technology, and the need for more practical work in such subjects, a side of their presentation which many critics have long held to be shamefully neglected.

The increased attention being devoted to Science and Technology has, in Austria as elsewhere, given rise to the fear that the average student of the future will be lacking in that general liberal education of which Austrian "Akademiker" have in the past been so proud. It is felt that extreme specialisation in a branch of Science cannot provide the "allgemeine Bildung" which such specialisation in literature, or history, or philosophy can confer. Therefore there is much discussion concerning the need for, and possibility of, the introduction of a "studium generale", but no real agreement about the actual procedure to be followed. A general course of compulsory lectures is suggested but such an innovation is considered by many critics to be of doubtful value and unlikely to be effective. They point out that such a course of compulsory lectures, instituted during the authoritarian régime from 1934-1938 with a view to strengthening Austrian national feeling in the face of the German threat, was a dismal failure, disliked by both teachers and taught. The British idea that the desired "general education" can, and perhaps should, be obtained largely through
the social and other leisure-time activities of the student would find little acceptance in Austrian "Hochschulen" today. Such activities are unlikely to do much to solve the problem. There is more hope in the alternative solution, according to which the "humane" elements in each specialised course of study should receive the maximum emphasis compatible with a balanced and useful presentation of the subject. Here the Austrian's love of theory, often to the neglect of practice, may prove to be an advantage rather than a handicap.

In the true German tradition, research has always occupied an important position in the work of the Austrian "Hochschulen". There are critics who allege that it has maintained this position only at the expense of the parallel function of a University, that of teaching and training students. The "Hochschulprofessor", these critics claim, is virtually unworried if he is a failure as a teacher, but failure as a "Forscher" is quite unthinkable, and much more serious even than failure as a citizen, as, for example, when taking the line of least resistance in the early days of National Socialism. This is a criticism by no means confined to the Austrian and German "Hochschulen", but the emphasis on the research work performed in the Seminar suggests that it is perhaps rather more well-deserved in these countries than in many others. The Professor who is a scholar alone, and no teacher, may be an inspiration to that
minority of his students who are themselves by nature "Forscher", but his influence on those who are seeking general education and a professional qualification is much less beneficial. The pursuit of knowledge for its own sake has always been considered important in Austria, as has the training of a select group of students to continue this search for truth, and these principles are still unchallenged. It is, however, held by many that the time has come to consider more sympathetically and with more enlightenment what are held to be the needs of the majority of students. One step in this direction would be the placing of much more emphasis upon teaching. The "Staatsprüfungen", which constitute the goal for most students, to some extent provide a counter-weight to the excessive, meticulous specialisation of the Seminar, by forcing the candidate to cover a wider field. In many cases, however, he covers it alone, without the intellectual stimulus provided by well-delivered lectures or skilfully conducted tutorials. Finally, too, the State Examinations are conducted for the Government by the "Hochschulen", that is, by these same Professors whose strength is research. Professors themselves are, of course, frequently aware of the difficulty and many make determined efforts to deal with it. Their time is, however, obviously limited and consequently, even with the best will in the world, they find themselves unable to do much to improve the situation. Others, it must be added, do not recognise the existence of any problem.
The "Hochschulen" are almost certainly the most "German" of all Austrian educational institutions. Their traditions, organisation and nomenclature differ little from those of the German Universities. There has at almost all times existed great mobility of both teaching staff and of students within the University life of German-speaking Central Europe, that is, Germany, Austria, part of Switzerland and, during the Empire, Bohemia also. In earlier days the typical wandering student would as easily move from Leipzig to Vienna, for example, as from Heidelberg to Göttingen, while Professors, too, moved freely within the area mentioned. Political and other difficulties may sometimes have curtailed this freedom of movement but had remarkably little effect, at any rate till the First World War, shortly before which, for instance, we find Thomas Masaryk teaching in Vienna. This traffic with Germany herself was maintained after the collapse of the Empire in 1918 and has continued up till the present day, although in recent years almost exclusively with the Federal Republic. Such contacts with Eastern Germany have been few, and restricted, in the main, to the departure from Austria to the German Democratic Republic (Deutsche Demokratische Republik) of individuals whose political views met with the approval of their new hosts after experiencing the opposite reception in their own country.

It is obvious that, in many ways, this mobility was
beneficial to the "Hochschulen" of Austria. Horizons were widened for staff and students alike, the exchange of methods and ideas was facilitated and the sphere of possible employment was greatly enlarged. The element of "competition", too, which existed in the days before the process of German unification had begun, was not without its advantages. It was not until this stage of historical and political development that the danger, which had long been inherent in the situation, became real and grew steadily more immediate. In the days prior to the emergence of Germany as a political entity, fashioned largely on Prussian lines, Austria was under no threat of domination — indeed, until supplanted by Prussia in 1866, it was Austria herself, with her Empire, who played the leading rôle in the affairs of the German states. From that date onward, however, her influence waned in face of the rise of the new Germany and she later proved unable — or was not allowed — to develop her Danubian Empire in a manner which would have ensured its continued existence, thus enabling her to maintain her independence. The "Hochschulen" which, in all this, might have done much to foster the Austrian ideal, did precisely the opposite. They remained, for the most part, uncompromisingly German in their outlook, and German in the new "greater-German" sense of the term. The violent Pan-German irredentism which existed in Austria after 1866 was most marked in the "Hochschulen", surviving the disasters and largely ignoring the lessons of the First War to culminate in
the "Anschluss" in 1938. This Pan-Germanism was shared by teachers and students, the latter, through their often aggressive associations (Burschenschaften), doing much to further its cause. It is interesting to note that these "Burschenschaften" were, ironically enough, dissolved by the National Socialists immediately after the "Anschluss". Their Pan-Germanism had been gratefully utilised by the Nazis who had, however, no intention of permitting their internal policy of extreme class-consciousness to find continued expression in the new "Ostmark". This "Germanism" in the "Hochschulen" has not, of course, been accepted without criticism or opposition but seems to have possessed a strength which enabled it to maintain itself in face of attack. Its opponents, too, were frequently disorganised, voicing their protests as individuals, in many instances, and consequently were in no way able to combat the compact and disciplined Pan-German faction. Professor Ludwig Adamovich, President of the Austrian Constitutional Court (Verfassungsgerichtshof), writing on the "Hochschulen" roundly condemns them for their failure to give a positive lead to the country. Far from doing so, he claims, they "even took up a position of deliberate and emphatic opposition to this duty" (...ja stellten sich......in einen bewussten und betonten Gegensatz zu dieser Aufgabe. - Adamovich. "Hochschulverwaltung und Universitäten" - Österreichischer Bundesverlag, Vienna - 1948.). To the German character of
the "Hochschulen" can certainly be attributed the justice of much of the other criticism which is levelled at them.

High on the list of such criticisms is that which claims that the "Hochschulen" have been and, in many ways, still are "volksfremd", isolated from and out of touch with the rest of the population. This was traditionally and inevitably the case in Germany and German-speaking "Mittel-europa" where the Universities had no real contact with the local communities in which they were located, in contrast to our Scottish Universities and the "Redbrick" foundations of England, to say nothing of the State Universities of the United States. The wandering student, too, contributed to this state of affairs, so that a nation-wide academic community was created, frequently with little in the way of local loyalties. As Professor Ashby declares: "The whole pattern of German Universities ........conspired to insulate them from local responsibilities and regional interests ..... They prided themselves on being academic ivory towers." (British Universities - Listener - March 17, 1955). We have elsewhere discussed the special position of the "Akademiker" in Austria, of his fears for his tenaciously preserved status and of his feeling of superiority to the other members of the community. It is probably true to claim that the gentler elements in the Austrian's nature - his over-stressed but none the less frequently possessed "Gemütlichkeit" - may often have softened
this division of the community much more than was the case in Germany proper. When dealing with the Secondary Schools of the country we saw how the child of well-to-do parents has always seemed to have too great an advantage over his less fortunate companions. Those pupils who survived the Secondary course frequently did so — and do today — only with the aid of considerable, and expensive, private tuition, so that, in this way also, the normal student population of the "Hochschulen" may tend to be "volksfremd".

In recent years, however, it is certain that the reproach has become less well-merited. (We are not here concerned with the possibility that freedom from regional interests may well have its advantages. The dangers of "lay" control of Universities is well-known.) The increase in the work being done in Science and Technology has brought the "Hochschulen" and, in particular their teaching staffs, into much closer contact than before with the outside world of industry and trade. Since the Second World War, too, the advent of the "Werkstudent", working his way through the "Hochschule", has had the same effect of bringing the two worlds together, in this case by forcing the students to mix with the rest of the community. Along with the system of exemption from class-fees, already mentioned, the institution of the "Werkstudent" — now an accepted social phenomenon, although not always approved — has taken much of the force from the claim that the "Hochschulen" are "volksfremd" in our
second sense, that they are accessible only to the sons and daughters of the well-to-do. Those students of limited means who can, by virtue of their scholastic ability, survive the stern competition of the "Mittelschule" and obtain a "Matura" have probably already overcome the major obstacle in their academic course.

It would be wrong to assume that the "Hochschulen" themselves have done nothing to meet the reproach we have been considering. For many years now University staff have given their services in adult educational bodies of various kinds. Indeed the "Volksübliche Universitätsverträge" - roughly the equivalent of our University Extension courses - which were instituted, with ministerial approval, by some Professors in the University of Vienna, have now had sixty years of most successful existence and have been imitated in other centres.

The Romantic "nimbus" which, as is often claimed, has always surrounded German-Austrian student life and which is a relic of the medieval student community of Europe, with its special privileges and code of honour, has also helped to isolate the "Hochschulen" from the community at large. Many of these old ideas and traditions have of course disappeared but the process was more rapid elsewhere in Europe than in Germany and German-speaking Austria - areas where, as Stefan Zweig says in his autobiography, "class-consciousness always
pre-dominated over the democratic idea", and where "the students stubbornly clung to these long outdated privileges". (The World of Yesterday - Cassell, 1943 - page 93.) After 1945 the programme of "re-education" in Germany and Austria of course included the aim of eradicating what was felt to be bad in the traditions of the "Hochschulen". In the first few post-war years, the return of many ex-service students, who had neither time nor taste for adolescent "Studentenleben", and the work, as Rectors and Deans, of democratically-minded Professors did much, or appeared to do much, to suggest that the "re-education" process was, in this at least, well on the way towards success. More recently, however, the return to the teaching-staffs of all but the most rabid National Socialists and the replacement of the older ex-service students by the new generation from the schools, themselves often the sons of "Akademiker" of the old type and imbued with the same ideals, have weakened the grounds for optimism. The activities of the Student Corps (Burschenschaften) and the attitude of the authorities towards these activities are of outstanding importance in this question, and, on both counts, there would appear to be cause for concern. A re-emergence of the Student Corps in their old form, allied to the return of professors of the former type who, in the words of the correspondent of the "Times Educational Supplement", (October 12, 1951) "despise parliamentary democracy and are arrogant in
their national, racial and social outlook" would clearly be a danger, and not to Austria alone. Much will depend on the speed at which the danger is realised by the rest of the student community and, even more, on the extent to which prevailing apathy and cynicism can be overcome. The efforts being made in the schools to foster a healthy feeling for Austria may prove to be the saving of the situation.

We have seen how the post-war generation of students were not interested in the old type of student corporate life, and, while this was welcomed to some extent, their lack of interest was found to extend more widely than was expected. Other kinds of student society - sporting, political, literary and scientific - were established on what it was hoped would be healthier lines, but these also very largely failed to attract members. Distrust and suspicion of clubs of all kinds was strong and this, combined with a general cynicism and, frequently, the difficult financial conditions which created the "Werkstudent", negated to a large extent the attempt to create a new kind of corporate life. Time and settled social and economic conditions may bring an improvement and, once more, the success of such attempts lower down the educational ladder will perhaps prove decisive. At present, it is very difficult to find students willing to do the work and assume the responsibilities which would make possible the existence of flourishing clubs and
societies. This is not to suggest, of course, that no such societies are to be found - sport is finding its way more and more into the life of the Austrian student, despite the scorn heaped upon it by those whom it does not attract, and other "Vereine" (clubs) exist. Chief among these are the religious and party political organisations, prominence in which is often held to be an important step towards success in later life.

There exists an official body which represents the interests of the student. This is the "Hochschülerschaft", which performs many of the functions exercised by our Scottish Students' Representative Councils. Foremost among these functions since the war have been those of a social and "welfare" nature - classification and inspection of lodgings, provision of information concerning spare-time and vacation employment, relations with foreign student bodies, buying and re-selling of text-books, duplicating of lecture notes and the like. The limits of the functions of the "Hochschülerschaft" are laid down in legal form by the Ministry of Education and it is clear that, although doing much valuable work, they have little voice in matters of official University policy.

Of staff-student relationships it is difficult to write without danger of generalisation on the possibly insufficient basis of personal experience. The British observer is struck by the formal and the authoritarian nature of
most such relationships. To the student the "ordentlicher Professor" is usually a remote and lofty being, to be approached with subservience and no little trepidation, and then only after convincing the various lesser luminaries that such an approach is in fact necessary. At the eventual interview the Professor is of course "Korrekt"; but there is little sign of human warmth in the atmosphere, which remains stiff, formal and almost completely impersonal.

Such formality is not confined to the relations between student and teacher but is found in the relations among the students themselves. The Austrian "Hochschüler" assumes an air of gravity and self-importance which is not without its attractiveness but which frequently degenerates into a tiresome pomposity. He takes himself with very great seriousness indeed and seems to exclude from his mind the possibility that learning need not always sit heavily upon its possessor. The form of address used by one student to another - "Herr Kollege" - is in itself significant, as is the punctiliousness with which such formality is practised. An atmosphere of dignified maturity - although a maturity often more apparent than real - is thus created, to be dissipated only on set occasions, when such relaxation of formality is traditionally expected, as, for example, at parties to celebrate graduation.

The "Hochschulen" in Austria are non-residential, although some possess hostels for a small minority of their students. The conditions under which many students live
and work are far from easy, especially in the post-war period of desperate accommodation shortage. In many cases, overcrowding and under-heating are the rule, and students, far from possessing luxury, are without even the elements of comfort. The "Werkstudent" may well consider himself fortunate to obtain a post as assistant in an "Internat" (small boarding house for Secondary School pupils) where, in return for long hours of supervision, he will receive food and a bed in a box-room or cloak-room. Other students are often huddled together, several in a single room, under conditions which must make study extremely difficult. Very great courage and strength of character are clearly necessary to obtain success in such circumstances, but the genuine love of learning found in Austria, allied to the social and economic incentives at work in the background, have so far ensured that there is no shortage of young people willing to undertake the task, although we have noted the emergence and growth of doubt as to the "worthwhileness" of such sacrifice.

Reference should be made to a particular type of "Werkstudent", whose financial and lodging conditions are more favourable than those discussed above, but for whom University study is by no means easy. This is the teacher in the "Volksschule" or, more often, the "Hauptschule", who is anxious to obtain the state qualification to teach in a "Mittelschule". Like his French counterpart, he must work
almost entirely on his own resources, although the rather "elastic" time-tabling, which we noted as a feature of the Primary Schools, enables him, often with much effort, to attend University classes more frequently than would be the case in this country. Such students are relatively numerous in the Philosophical Faculties, to which they possess the right of entrance in the form of their Leaving Certificate from the Teachers' Training Colleges. Those who received their earlier education in a "Hauptschule" provide the only really important exception to the rule that, in Austria, the way to the University is either opened up or barred at the age of ten.

In the years following the end of the last war, too, the "Flüchtlingstudenten" (Displaced Persons or Refugees from Eastern Europe) were a feature of the Austrian "Hochschule". Coming from many countries, they were housed, like other refugees, for the most part in hutted camps in which conditions were depressing, to say the least. Most of them were "Werkstudenten" and received assistance from one or other of the welfare organisations which were attempting to cope with the problem presented by the Displaced Persons. Their ages varied considerably and they included in their number many who were old, even by Central European ideas of the normal age of students. Frequently, they had elected to finish, if possible, their courses of study in Austria as their homes were
in areas which had once formed part of the Habsburg Empire, so that, despite all that had happened since 1918, they considered that they would be more "at home" in Austria than elsewhere. Study for them presented many problems, especially if their knowledge of German was inadequate, but most continued their courses with great determination in the hope that, when they finally moved on to America or to a British dominion, they would do so as qualified members of the professional classes. Among the older of such students there were many who viewed this eventual departure from Europe with great misgiving and who postponed it as long as possible, even after the Refugee Organisations had ceased to help them. They tended to become perennial students, living on a bare level of subsistence, but preferring the familiar life and status of students and "Akademiker" in Central Europe to the unknown conditions and uncertain social standards of a newer land.
Table 1.

Organization of Elementary and Secondary Schools until 1919.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>School year</th>
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<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
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<td>IV</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
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- **Volksschule**
- **Gymnasium**
  - **Realgymnasium**
  - **Reformrealgymnasium**
  - **Realschule**
  - **Lyzeum for Girls**
  - **Reformrealgymnasium Division**
  - **Bürger schule**
  - **Higher Vocational School**
  - **Lower Vocational School**
  - **Continuation School**
### Table 2.

**Proposed Organization of Elementary and Secondary Schools 1922-27.**

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<th>Modern Language School</th>
<th>Maths-Natural Science School</th>
<th>German Upper School</th>
<th>Upper School for Girls</th>
<th>4-year Higher Vocational School</th>
<th>Allgemeine Mittelschule</th>
<th>Division I</th>
<th>Division II</th>
<th>Lower Vocational School</th>
<th>Continuation School</th>
<th>Lower Vocational School</th>
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Table 3.

Organization of Elementary and Secondary Schools
1927 - 1934 and after 1945.

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Higher & Lower Vocational Schools

Continuation School

Lower Vocational School

Continuation School
Table 4.

"Stundentafel" for Volksschulen.

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<th>Religion</th>
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<th>Religion</th>
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Note: Where one teacher is in charge of more than one class, some modifications may be made.

Elementary Geometry is frequently introduced in the higher classes.
Table 5.

'Stundentafel' for Hauptschulen.

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1) Pupils choosing Latin drop Geometrical Drawing and Handwork (boys), and Art and Handwork (girls), thereby increasing by 1 the number of weekly periods in Classes III and IV.
Table 6.

"Stundentafel" in Teachers' Training Colleges.

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) Optional subjects.
### Table 7a.

"Stundentafel" for Mittelschulen.

#### Untertufe.

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1) Choice between French and English.

G - Gymnasium
Rg- Realgymnasium
R - Realschule
FO- Frauenoberschule

N.B. Gymnasium shown is that of Vienna, Lower Austria, Burgenland and Carinthia.
In remaining Provinces the Gymnasium has, as obligatory language subjects, Latin, classes 1 - VIII
Greek, classes V - VIII
English, classes V - VIII
### Table 7b.

'Stundentafel' for Mittelschulen.

#### Oberstufe.

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Total periods weekly

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1) Choice between Art and Music.

G - Gymnasium  
Rg - Realgymnasium  
R - Realschule  
FO - Frauenoberschule  
M - Mädchenrealgymnasium (Realgymnasium for girls)

N.B. The Frauenoberschule has additional periods of Domestic Science, Psychology and Child Care.
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   - "Times"
   - "Spectator"
   - "Times Educational Supplement"
   - "Scottish Education Journal"

2) **German**:
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   - "Erziehung und Unterricht".
   - "Der Student"
   - "Wiener Zeitung"
   - "Die Österreichische Furche"
   - "Die Presse"
   - "Arbeiter Zeitung"
   - "Wiener Kurier"
   - "Süd-Ost Tagespost"
   - "Das Steirerblatt"
   - "Die Neue Zeit"
   - "Die Kleine Zeitung"
   - "Salzburger Nachrichten"
   - "Neue Zürcher Zeitung"
   - "Die Weltwoche"
   - "Der Monat"

   Graz

   Salzburg.

   Zurich.

   Munchen.