1966

A Study of the Revival and Suggested Reforms of the German School System since World War II (Emphasis at the Secondary Level)

Wilbert A. Young
Central Washington University

A STUDY OF THE REVIVAL AND SUGGESTED REFORMS OF THE GERMAN SCHOOL SYSTEM SINCE WORLD WAR II (EMPHASIS AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL)

A Thesis

Presented to

the Graduate Faculty

Central Washington State College

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Education

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by

Wilbert A. Young

August 1966

APPROVED FOR THE GRADUATE FACULTY

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Dean Stinson, COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN

_____

Melvin L. Norris

_____

Dohn A. Miller

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

For the assistance given during the planning and writing of this study, the writer wishes to express his sincere appreciation to Dr. Dean Stinson, Committee Chairman, and Dr. Dohn Miller and Mr. Arley Vancil, Committee members.

Acknowledgment is extended to Herrn Herbert Eschner for his friendly aid and advice.

Special thanks go to my wife, Anne, who spent many long hours translating vital information for me.

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THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Two experiences developed the writer's interest in the structure of the school system(s) of Western Germany. First, participation in a comparative education course stimulated his interest in education practices throughout the world (and Germany in particular), and second, his position in American overseas teaching allowed him to observe differences between German and American educational structures.

Preliminary investigations revealed that the educational system in Western Germany was much more complicated than that of the United States. Some German educators state it is very difficult to explain the complete educational structure of their country, especially to those who have not been schooled by some of its processes (2;8;10;27;32). This becomes understandable as one looks for material and information to build an image of the "typical" school operation in Germany. Even though a strong thread of similarity exists between the systems of the various states, there is no simple way to describe a characteristically German educational plan.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study is to (1) investigate what influences the American Military Government had on the German education system after World War II, (2) develop an understanding of the general structure of the German school system, and (3) analyze some of the forces affecting changes in the German educational philosophies, practices, and curriculum.

Importance of the study. Much pressure for improved programs is being applied to educational systems all over the world. One should be able to learn how other countries attempt to solve problems in this area. It is not so important to compare the educational systems of two countries as to understand differences in the backgrounds and structures of their systems of education. This paper provides part of the investigation needed for such an understanding.

Limitations of the study. Materials considered date from the end of World War II (1945) until the present time (1966), and structural characteristics will be emphasized at the secondary level.

Procedure. The procedures followed in this study were as follows. The writer (1) made a review of selected literature pertaining to the revival and reorganization of the German school system since 1945; (2) asked for assistance from the Minister of Education Office in Munich, Germany; (3) conducted personal interviews with professional German educators and lay people who have been trained in the German systems; and (4) made personal visits to several German schools to observe physical facilities, attend classes in session, and talk with individual students.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

Because this is a study of a foreign education system, the following foreign terms must be defined.

Abitur. This is a comprehensive examination given at the end of Gymnasium studies.

Berufsfachschule. This is a full-time vocational school.

Berufsschule. This is a part-time vocational school.

Fachschule. This is a full-time vocational school of advanced standing.

Grundschule. This is the first four grades of the elementary school.

Gymnasium. This is a traditional secondary school which prepares students for the university.

Hilfsschule. This is a special school whose purpose is to teach slow learners or those who have particular deficiencies.

Hochschule. This is a school beyond the secondary school level, usually a university, college or advanced technical institution.

Kultusministerien. This is the group of state Ministers of Education who meet as a collective body to discuss education problems of common interest.

Land (Länder-pl.). This is the name given to a political subdivision comparable to a state in the United States.

Lehrer. This is a title given to a teacher, primarily in the elementary schools.

Rahmenplan. This is the name given to a recent reform plan for school reorganization in Germany.

Sonderschule. This is a school with a special purpose such as teaching the deaf, blind, retarded, etc.

Volksschule. This is an elementary school.

III. ORGANIZATION OF THE REMAINDER OF THE STUDY

The remainder of the paper will be divided into two chapters. Chapter II will review literature dealing with four main ideas: the general character of the German school system, the influence of the American Military Government activities on German education from 1945-1955, an overview of the German school structure at the present time, and a study of recent reform proposals.

Chapter III will summarize the findings connected with this study and state the writer's recommendations for securing further information related to this topic.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To review the literature pertaining to all levels and phases of German education is beyond the scope of this paper. Current English materials relating to activities in German education are limited. The writer has chosen sources which describe in more detail the secondary schools. Literature concerning recent reform proposals has been reviewed to determine feelings for change at all levels of German education in Western Germany.

I. GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE GERMAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

Schools in Germany came into existence about 1100 when monastery schools were set up to educate people for church activities (20:5). In the 17th and 18th centuries more universal elementary schooling was started. The main objective of this universal movement was to give all children a more basic knowledge for playing an efficient part in the national community (25:35). Rules were established which called for compulsory education controlled by the state (25:403).

About 1919 compulsory education for all of Germany was extended to 18 years of age (20:6). The possible alternatives of this requirement will be discussed later. Because of this compulsory education law, almost all citizens have the reading, writing and arithmetic basics (20:6).

The public school system in West Germany does not originate from a centralized, but regional source. The eleven states (Länder) are responsible for their individual school systems at elementary, secondary and university levels. The federal government has no direct obligation to the school structures; however, federal support does find its way into research projects and in the form of monetary assistance to capable students (20:7). There is neither a Federal Ministry of Cultural Affairs nor federal legislation regarding school matters (21). Nevertheless, the school systems throughout West Germany are fairly uniform in their principles, organization, and curricula. The certificates, examinations, and privileges are mutually recognized in all states (20:7).

The similarity of the various state school structures results in part from their common traditions. Also, the systems are coordinated by a group of educators called the

Kultusministerien, with its own secretariat in Bonn, whose members are the individual Cultural Affairs Ministers from each state. A conference of these ministers is held about every two months (2;7;9). Although operating without legislative authority, this group, along with an advisory committee of school experts, has been instrumental in assuming the standard approach to a wide range of common problems (21).

Perhaps, contrary to the beliefs of many people outside of Germany, one of the main tenets of German educational philosophy is to maintain public school control at a regional level (7;8;32). The jurisdiction of the states over school processes checks a centralism which Germans generally feel would be harmful to educational aims (21). Then, to have vigorous schools, sufficient leeway is left for teachers' associations, parents and school committees to get in direct contact with supervisory offices (20:9). Granted that a Federal Ministry of Cultural Affairs could promote greater unification in the German education system, it would necessarily take administrative priority over local actions. In addition, central control would place the school policies more in the political arena than at present. Since State

Cultural Affairs Ministers belong to different political parties dependent on the political compositions of the individual states, their discussions and joint decisions are free from political controversy (21:101).

II. ERA PRECEEDING AMERICAN MILITARY GOVERNMENT CONTROL

In the early part of Hitler's regime, the Nazis changed the spirit rather than the structure of German education (4:201). However, at the beginning of the Nazi period, German education came under federal control for the first time in German history. A National Ministry of Education and Youth Welfare was established which issued instructions about courses, textbooks, and general procedures (4:201). Coeducation was discouraged and there was a return to the practice of stern discipline. The emphasis on intellectual learning suffered in favor of Nazi objectives. New textbooks stressed racial purity and the great future awaiting Germany as a world power. A more detailed description of activities at this time may be found in Cramer (4:200-4).

Upon the unconditional surrender of Germany to the Allies in May, 1945, the Potsdam Agreement of 1945 provided

for separate administrations of the four zones by the occupying powers (36:6). These administrations were to deal with problems affecting the country as a whole through a Control Council made up of representatives from these four powers. Clause 7 of this agreement called for a redirection of German education in order to eliminate Nazi and militaristic doctrines and to make possible the successful development of democratic ideas. (19).

When Germany surrendered, educational facilities were in a state of chaos. Thousands of schools were destroyed, students were displaced from their previous home areas, and there was a great shortage of teachers and materials. These were some of the major problems facing American authorities as they prepared to find a way to reopen German schools. The writer was involved in a small way, working on local population dislocations in 1945, and appreciates the above situation from personal observation.

III. INFLUENCE OF THE AMERICAN MILITARY GOVERNMENT BETWEEN 1945-1955

General. Controversy as to how the occupying forces should revive the German education system after World War II

ranged over a widespread area. Some idealists imagined a program that would completely reorganize the curriculum and philosophy (39:193-214). Supposedly this would result in correcting all of the misguided standards and values set up under Hitler. At the other extreme, some American educators considered the old German education standards superior to any other in the world. This last group believed that American education could borrow many German ideas for its own system rather than engage in the unnecessary act of reconstructing the German institution (13). Between these two extremes were dozens of compromise points of view. As a result of these divergent ideas, the attempts at educational re-planning for West Germany were not very united (39:193-214).

The more realistic problems that plagued revival of German schooling after World War II involved (1) a high rate of turnover in personnel handling education in the Office of Military Government, (2) many supervisors on the education staffs without fixed ideas as to what might or should be tried, and (3) education being given third or fourth level priority in the early planning of Office of Military Government councils, behind economic, political, legal affairs and public relations (39:193-214).

As a result of widespread criticism in education circles in the United States, education became a major division of the Office of Military Government, and during 1947-49 was able to command somewhat more attention than before. However, by the end of 1949, through the loss of staff, cut in funds, and the general attitude of other allies that education was something to be left in the hands of German authorities, American education activities were greatly curtailed (39:193-214). The following paragraphs will give reasons for many of these general statements.

The pre-1947 period. After the surrender of the Germans in May, 1945, a small group of officers and enlisted men headed by captains John Taylor and Marshall Knappen found themselves in charge of the education activities in the American Zone. Taylor, who had been trained at and later served on the staff of Teachers' College (Columbia University), brought to his job a considerable familiarity with German education as well as expert knowledge of systems in the United States. Knappen had been a Rhodes scholar and a professor of modern European history at Chicago and Michigan State Universities (39:196).

This small group did not waste its time on elaborate paper plans which had little chance of being put into effect. It recognized some of the objectionable weaknesses in the German education system, especially those resulting from the Nazi infiltration of the schools and universities. This group decided the immediate need was to set up emergency services to make possible re-opening of the school system in a manner reasonably satisfactory to American responsibilities (39).

The most pressing problem facing the Education staff during the early days of the occupation was to expedite the opening of elementary and secondary schools. At this time surveys revealed that 80 per cent of the German school staffs had been Nazified to the extent of belonging to the National Socialist Teacher's League, and many were active members of the party itself (39:193-214). This situation necessitated the gigantic task of screening all teachers and deciding which ones were good risks to employ in the new system. The American educational group followed what seemed a moderate policy of eliminating about half the German teaching staff. Mistakes were no doubt made in screening the teachers, but generally military circles feel that the job was done as

well as could have been expected under the confused conditions (39:193-214). To supplement the acceptable screened candidates, vigorous efforts were made to set up emergency training facilities for supplying additional teachers (39).

Because the old textbooks and teaching materials were virtually 100 per cent National Socialistic, the American education group saw little or no purpose in re-opening the German schools until reasonably satisfactory textbooks could be provided. A second problem involved obtaining authorization, funds, and paper for printing enough of these texts to supply the German school children. When the time came to re-open the schools, the printing was behind schedule, but some 5,328,616 copies of textbooks were available to 1,849,206 children enrolled the first year (39:199).

A large proportion of the German school buildings had either been completely destroyed or badly damaged by bombings and fighting. Housing was a major problem for the education group. On October 1, 1945, the schools re-opened, and with fuel supplies very low it was often impossible to provide heat during the cold of winter (39:193-214).

There was some feeling that schools in the American Zone should have opened earlier because children were roaming

the rubble filled streets, playing in dangerous places, and getting into trouble with the police. But the American education group resisted pressure to re-open prematurely, maintaining that the disadvantages were greater than possible gains (39).

The original plan of the education staff was to get the elementary and secondary schools operating first and then concern themselves with the universities. However, some limited university activities opened in November, 1945, before the education group had given much thought to this area (39:193-214). Later evidence reveals that it was a mistake to yield to such pressure since it established a pattern of letting higher education begin before the Office of Military Government had a chance to screen some of the worst kind of Nazism (39). The foregoing is a brief sketch of the early revival of post war German schools.

The writer was in Germany between December, 1944, and February, 1946, and was able to observe many of the problems facing this original education group. They should be given credit for being able to re-open schools as quickly as they did under such adverse conditions.

By 1947 the four occupying powers felt that sufficient progress had been made in all zones to justify the Allied Control Council issuing Directive 54, which attempted to consolidate educational thinking for all of Germany. Its most important sections were as follows:

1. Care must be taken to ensure equality of educational opportunity for all.

2. The elementary and secondary stages in schools should not overlap or be competitive; one should follow the other.

3. The democratic way of organizing government and civil life must be stressed in schools.

4. Compulsory attendance to the age 15 should be aimed at, followed by a part-time attendance to 18.

5. Teachers should be given training at university status.

6. There will be free textbooks and free tuition to all with maintance grants in needy areas.

Although this is one of the few times that the four members of the Control Council actually reached agreement, the directive became interpreted in different ways in the East and West zones.

The period 1947-1949. "The present policy of the United States in the reeducation of Germany is based on the

Potsdam Agreement. Therein the victors decreed that German education shall be so controlled as completely to eliminate Nazi doctrines and to make possible the successful development of democratic ideas" (19). This statement seems to illustrate much of the idealistic thinking of some educators in America after the German schools were re-opened in 1945. The problem of reeducation was not merely one of eradicating Nazism but also of eliminating authoritarianism, militarism, Junkerism, and racism (16:181).

During this period, through pressures placed on Washington by American education groups, school activities were taken out of the hands of the original military government operation and turned over to big name educators. Although some believe that these men did as well as could be expected of anyone in the short time available, programs were planned that had no chance of success (39:193-214). It has been suggested that a main weakness of their programs was the general tendency to see German educational problems in terms of American structures.

At all levels of German education, the most acute problem encountered was the shortage of acceptable teachers.

In the U.S. Zone there were about 36,000 elementary teachers, of whom 65 per cent were eliminated under the denazification policy (16:194). On the secondary level the situation was worse, and the universities presented a problem of their own. Members of university faculties failed to pass denazification requirements in greater numbers. To help relieve this shortage of teachers, the military government had encouraged teacher-training in more than forty colleges and institutes in the American Zone.

To continue meeting the pressing problem of textbooks noted in the pre-1947 section, authorities instituted a three fold program (16:194-5):

1. Emergency reprinting of elementary school texts from the Weimar period employed until new and better materials were available.

2. German school leaders were ordered to search for texts that might still have value and submit for inspection by the military government people.

3. Ministries of Education were directed to create committees for producing new texts (4:206).

Toward the end of 1949 the occupation forces became more convinced they could neither make the Germans democratic nor peaceful. The Germans would accept these ideas only

through their own efforts in changing cultural and political institutions (25:545). The United States accepted the position of aiding the Germans to make these changes in a self-respecting way.

The period 1950-1955. The termination of the Office of Military Government authority and the establishment of the Allied High Commission of Germany in 1949 caused a major shake-up in the American education planning for Germany. The Occupation Statute, which listed the powers to be returned to the West German Republic, placed education in the hands of the Federal Republic (39). A small control of education was retained by the HCOG but on a second priority basis.

Hence, in this final period of occupation, efforts to reorganize the structure of the German school system were dropped. The chief emphasis by American interests after 1949 was placed on sending German teachers to the United States and other democratic countries for the purpose of observation; making available books, periodicals, and other educational materials from the U.S. to German school staffs; and some financial grants in D-Marks for carrying on research, experiments, and conferences (39).

During this five year period, some observers felt that more progress could have been accomplished if there had been less feuding within the American staff (39:208). These internal difficulties used up much of the energies of this group which could have been directed to cooperation with the German school people.

From the review of the literature, the writer is inclined to believe the obstacles to any meaningful education effort in Germany by the Americans were almost overwhelming. To those who observed and have tried to evaluate the education effort, one of the greatest disappointments is the personnel given the responsibility of carrying out the job. These observers feel that those in charge were not chosen because of their expert knowledge of foreign education systems (and familiarity with German institutions in particular). Out of 1366 projects proposed by these authorities, 392 had to be discarded entirely (3). The official explanation is that good professional people were not available and that appointing officers were forced to take the ones who offered their services.

Generally, the school structure today remains much as it was prior to the occupation. Some results of German

experimenters have been put into operation. One of the hoped for changes in the curriculum by American workers was a larger place for the social studies (39). This was backed by the Ford Foundation with generous grants to the Free University of Berlin for research in this area. But political science, sociology and related fields still get very little attention in the German university. Harold Zink, a military government observer, feels that one of the most significant American contributions to German education was the opportunity afforded to a fairly large number of German educators to make contact with the outside educational world. In 1951, 344 German school people were sent to the United States and 288 to other democratic countries to observe education and administration at work (39:212). During this same year 112 outside educators were brought into Germany for exchanging views on schools, practices and philosophy.

Another method used to acquaint the Germans with democratic teachings was setting up Education Service Centers in Augsburg, Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, Heidelberg, Karlsruhe, Munich, Nurnburg and Stuttgart. In these centers were educational libraries, audio-visual aids, educational and

psychological testing materials and vocational guidance files. Not only could German teachers come to these centers to inspect materials, but often they could confer with various specialists. At times discussion groups were organized to bring teachers together with other lay-people, including parents. Eventually all these facilities were transfered to the Germans (39).

IV. OVERVIEW OF A GERMAN SCHOOL STRUCTURE AT THE PRESENT TIME

General information. The materials used for reference in this discussion draw heavily on practices in the State of Bavaria. Charts, diagrams, and statements about general practices may differ from those in the other Länder of Germany.

Structures of school systems in Western Germany have developed through a long chain of reforms. This has been an even development, with the possible exception of Hitler's regime. At the present time there is a definite tension between the traditional practices and new demands of society (20:8). The average citizen is more interested in the school programs than ever before (7; 27). This interest stems from

realistic economic considerations. Since the end of World War II, one of the main objectives of public education is to prepare skilled workers for a new place in a fast changing economy. This has stimulated reform efforts at all levels of learning. Some feel that the schools may end up determining too much of the individual's capabilities, but parents still remain a strong check on this danger (20:9).

Education in Germany is the product of a long history and firmly fixed traditions. Because German schools are the responsibility of the individual states, the educational system is extremely diversified. However, the influence of the above-mentioned traditions establish a type of basic uniformity throughout Germany.

All Länder (states) have education laws that require a pupil to attend school for at least eight years; this requirement is nine years in Bremen, Hamburg, Schleswig-Holstein, and West Berlin (4:471). Children enter the basic elementary school at age six and continue until completing the minimum requirements of the state in which they are living. In all states pupils who leave a full-time school after eight or nine years must attend a part-time vocational

school until they are 18 years of age or have completed an acceptable apprenticeship (1:199). Such practice will be explained in more detail later in this paper.

Generally, public schools are in session from 8:30 until 1:30 for six days a week. There are some variations among the individual states and sometimes among different types of schools. This leaves the afternoon free for preparing lessons for the next day. In Germany there is still a strong feeling that parents should influence much of the child's educational development. This free time during the afternoon provides opportunity for this expression. Parents and students together schedule time for homework and outside activities.

As a rule the elementary schools are coeducational and the secondary schools (Gymnasien) are separated for boys and girls (1:201). Table X shows a fairly uniform organization of the school systems in Western Germany.

Some states operate kindergarten for six year olds who are not considered mature enough for the first grade. In these schools attendance is not compulsory, and only in West Berlin are they part of the regular school system (4:473).

In 1955 there were only 176,048 children under the age of six in any type of school in West Germany, but there were 673,970 children in that age group (37:303).

Elementary school. In all states the elementary school (Volksschule) includes the first eight or nine grades, depending on the law of the state being considered. All students are examined by a school doctor, who, with the aid of the teachers, decides on the physical and mental maturity for starting school at age six (20:23). A very small percentage is held back for an extra year of development.

Grundschule. The first four grades are usually called the Grundschule (see Table II). In the city states of Bremen, Hamburg, and West Berlin, the basic school includes the first six grades (4:473). The main objective of this school is to develop the abilities of the child through play and movement and to lead him to a better understanding of his immediate environment (HeimatKunde). Emphasis is on reading, writing, arithmetic, singing and gym (14). This level provides the common schooling of all German pupils. The successful completion of the basic school is required for entrance into the

upper level of the elementary school, intermediate schools, or secondary schools.

Volksschule. After the Grundschule comes the upper level of the elementary school (Volksschuleoberstufe - see Table II), which may be of four of five years' duration, again depending on the state. This level of the Volksschule attempts to educate the child to a well-rounded personality for self-expression and satisfying self-activity. The program presented in these grades (usually 5-8) is organized around manual activities. Drawing, gardening and excursions along with basic academic studies are used to make learning more life-like and provide direct experiences and observations in the environment (14).

More specifically, these activities could be noted as education in the mother tongue, local lore, history, geography, arithmetic, practical life instruction (i.e., visits to farms, factories, discussing accidents, things mentioned in newspapers and on the radio, nature study and crafts). As much as possible the thoughts and activities are linked with the home and neighborhood (14). Schulwandern is considered a very important part of German school life (14). The taking

of long hikes under the guidance of a teacher is considered an excellent means of bringing the pupil in contact with his environment. This activity takes place once a month (10;11;18) and provides opportunities for the practical application of the student's knowledge of geography, history, and nature study and gives him training in living socially with his fellow students. The federal railroads have a special rate for students going on school outings. For extended trips, the Republic of Germany has one of the best organizations of youth hostels in Europe.

Before leaving this discussion on schooling in the environment, at least one other feature of the German education system should be mentioned. Through the German Forest Conservation League many schools have been assigned patches of woodland for recreation and study (14). By letting pupils take care of a piece of woodland, the hope is to build in them a greater knowledge of nature, a love of plant and animal life, and an appreciation of natural beauty and conservation. It is a personal observation of the writer that the German people, from the smallest children to the older people who are still able to walk, love their woodlands and use them to the utmost for recreation.

About 80 per cent of the German children complete their compulsory attendance requirement in the Volksschule-oberstufe, which is supposed to be equivalent to the early years in an intermediate or secondary school (1:199;4:474).

Some general characteristics of the Volksschule (grades 1 through 8 or 9) should be mentioned at this point. The first year of school starts with 18 hours per week (45 minute periods), works up to 28 hours in the fourth grade, and reaches 36 hours in the final year.

Class grouping into subject areas starts gradually in the third grade and is completed in the fifth year (14:24). A special feature of the Volksschule is that each class has only one teacher (Klassenlehrer) for all subjects. These teachers are trained to present all subjects on a broad understanding but not in detail.

In the elementary schools grades 1 through 8 (9) have continuous religious training. These classes consist of Bible stories, memorization of catechism for Catholics, and learning of hymns by the Protestants. The academic aim of the Volksschule in these higher grades is to provide an education (1) in the mother tongue, (2) in science, (3) in

social studies, (4) in the arts, and (5) in religion and philosophy (14).

Efforts are being made to improve the quality of rural education. School consolidation has been encouraged, but church resistance has slowed progress in this area. Figures published in 1952 indicated that 46.6 per cent of all elementary schools in West Germany had only one or two classrooms; and that 14.9 per cent of the elementary pupils were in these schools (12).

One of the agreements reached by the Ständige Konferenz der Kultusminister (Ministers of Education) has provided for the elective study of one foreign language in the elementary school. The city states provide for the compulsory study of a foreign language beginning with the fifth grade (4:475; 20:24).

Another practice unique in the Volksschule, at least to an American observer, is the complete renouncement of tests (4). Class participation and written work are the bases for promotion. The Abschlusszeugnis is the certificate of completion from the Volksschule. No final test is given to qualify for this paper.

There are two very pressing problems (in the Volksschule) in connection with the seventh and eighth year curricula offerings. First, German educators are trying to decide what kind of training will better prepare students for going directly into jobs after completing the Volksschule. In some of the larger populated areas the last year of formal schooling includes time for seeking occupational information and actual visits to many industries and job opportunities near the school. Second, how can the curriculum be arranged so the more capable students could prepare for additional schooling? Some Volksschulen are experimenting with Aufbauklassen (build-up classes) (20:26). These classes in the Volksschule have obligatory instruction in foreign languages and the same goals as the Mittelschulen, to be discussed shortly. About 10 per cent (4) of the better students in the upper grades of the Volksschule attend these more concentrated classes with a possibility of moving over into a Mittelschule program. Again the rural schools are put to a disadvantage in regard to these extra offerings of large city systems. However, some dorf schools have gone together to erect a Mittelpunktsschule, which corresponds roughly to

the American consolidated high school, but at a lower grade level. In this way a more economical organization can be effected to offer the rural students these better educational opportunities.

Einheitsschule. A controversial school type that has been widely discussed by German educators will be briefly noted here. Called the unified school system (Einheitsschule), this has been introduced in the city states of Bremen, Hamburg, and West Berlin. This type of organization is based on a common six-grade elementary school for all pupils, who then move into a differentiated upper level. As much as possible, these schools attempt to keep children of the same age together in common activities. By teaching all students in the same buildings, it is felt (4:476) some of the "prestige attitudes" so prevalent in the German system can be reduced. The vocational schools in Bremen and West Berlin are entirely separate from their unified organizations, but in Hamburg these vocational units are included in the same system (4).

This type of organization seems to facilitate transfer from one upper level school to another. The concept of the

Einheitsschule is more one of organization than change of subject matter. Conservative elements of German education tend to criticize this plan as one that will lower subject matter standards in the classical disciplines (4:476). Governmental party politics have used this experiment in recent political debates. Although not much information is yet available on the success or failure of this plan, it will be one of the innovations in German education to watch.

Mittelschule. The intermediate school (Mittelschule - see Table II) is the latest form of operation to be added to what is considered typical German school organization. In most states the student enters this type of school at the end of the fourth grade (or at the end of the sixth grade in the city states of Bremen, Hamburg, and Berlin) and continues to the tenth grade.

The Mittelschule came into being at the beginning of the 19th century as a result of demands from industrialization (20:27). This form has a terminal program and is not intended to prepare students for university level work. This school takes capable children with practical talents and prepares them for medium-level positions in business,

government services, and many types of technology. Generally, there are more girls than boys enrolled in these schools.

In some states the organization is set up so that the more talented student, at the end of the Mittelschule training, may transfer into the last three years of a Gymnasium (20:29), to be discussed next. Courses are taught by individual subject teachers (Fachlehrern) and most offerings are obligatory. A modern foreign language is required and a second is elective (20). (See Table I for a typical six-year schedule).

There are no special tests at the end of each year. Promotion to the next higher class depends on class participation, written homework, and meeting standards of performance (20:29). No final examination is given at the end of this program, and the student receives a certificate of "middle maturity" (Mittlere Reife) on completion of requirements. This diploma entitles the holder to enter fields noted above or to continue his education at full-time vocational schools. These vocational schools will be discussed later.

Private and sonderschulen. Before discussing the secondary schools, brief mention will be made of the private schools and special help schools.

Private schools (i.e., church schools and schools with special philosophies) are supported in part by the state and are obligated to meet the educational standards of the particular state in which they are located. Many times private schools represent attempts to establish freer and more progressive educational institutions. Their aims, standards, and the professional preparation of the teachers must equal those of the public schools. The private school may be established only if a public school of similar nature does not exist in the community (14). The number of private elementary schools is very small. Only 0.5 per cent of all elementary students are enrolled in this type of school. Private middle and secondary schools enroll 12 per cent of all students in these levels (14:63).

Sonderschulen are schools set up for children with special needs. Such schools provide services for children who might be grouped as follows: children in asylums or institutions for delinquents, children confined to hospitals or convalescent homes, mentally retarded children, physically handicapped - hard of hearing, defective sight, speech deficiencies - but with normal intelligence. A particular

type school that falls into this classification is called the Hilfsschule. This school gives help to students who are having troubles, generally, with the work in regular Volksschulen or Mittelschulen programs and need extra help to catch up. As might be expected, most of the sonderschulen are in or near larger cities (14).

Gymnasium. The oldest school form in Germany, and the most traditional, is the classical Gymnasium, which emphasizes ancient language (Altsprachliches). This type developed from the Kloster or monastery schools. Changes in curriculum at the secondary level have been accomplished by establishing a new type of school rather than modifying the classical Gymnasium. Germany has believed strongly in a long period of secondary education, extending over seven to nine years, and the more modern types of secondary schools have tended to follow this pattern (20:12).

At the beginning of the 19th century the first important reform occurred advocating bringing out more psychological and moral strengths in a person (20:29). The Gymnasium curriculum at this time was organized on the basis of preparing students to enter the university. The certificate

of graduation (Abitur) was also established during this reform. The appearance of the Abitur made extensive examinations to enter the university unnecessary. Any holder of the Abitur has the right to enter any university in Germany.

After Grundschule training about 18 per cent of an age group gain entrance into a Gymnasium (20:21). (See Table II). This indicates a high selectivity for admission into the secondary schools. Formerly, admittance to these schools was based entirely on an entrance examination given by the school the student wished to enter. In recent years much attention has been given to methods of improving the selection procedure. Objective tests, intelligence test results, school records, and recommendations of principals have all been used (4:476). In some Gymnasien a trial period is set up for the student, during which time he is observed. These trial periods usually vary from one to three weeks (4:477). The general practice of choice still rests on the Grundschule unless the parents desire tests to determine capability of the student for higher tracks of education (7). The first year in any fifth year sequence is a trial or probationary period (20:16).

At the present time Germany's secondary school system is organized around three types of schools called Gymnasien: the classical, the modern language, and the mathematics-science. In parts of Germany there are schools called Wirtschaftsgymnasium (economics) and Musische Gymnasium, but these are very rare (20:30). The writer will discuss briefly each of the three common types of Gymnasien, then turn to characteristics that are found in all of them.

The old language Gymnasium still builds its curriculum around Latin and Greek and holds the position of highest prestige in the secondary system. Until the end of the 19th century this school was the only path to the university (4:477). The classical Gymnasium is very limiting because it starts Latin instruction in the first year and continues courses in this language throughout the program (20:31). For that reason it is practically impossible to transfer into this school from one of the other Gymnasien because they do not begin Latin until the third or fourth years. (Compare curriculum requirements on Tables III, IV, and V.) The rigorous course of studies and some de-emphasis on the old languages have decreased the number of classical schools

in Germany since the beginning of the 20th century (4:477).

Germany's most popular secondary school today is the modern language (Neusprachliches) Gymnasium. This school centers its curriculum around two modern languages (English and French) and Latin (see Table IV). The modern language courses emphasize cultures of the countries as well as facility in use of the language. The philosophy that Latin is still the most important classical language as it is the foundation of all modern languages gives it high position in the curriculum (28:21). Within the modern language school a student can prepare himself in the "Grosses Latinum" (where he starts Latin in the first or third year of schooling) or the "Kleines Latinum" (where he starts Latin in the fifth year of schooling) (28:21). Future plans of occupation would determine which of these choices would be made.

The mathematics-natural science (Mathematisch-naturwissenschaft-liches) Gymnasium is the third major secondary school. It places special emphasis on mathematics and science and offers two modern languages (see Table V). This school is more numerous than the classical type, but the modern language Gymnasien exceed its enrollments by

one-third (4:477). However, the technological advances made by Germany since World War II and the increased development in this area are tending to make this school more important.

The purpose of the next section is to discuss some common characteristics of organization in all three types of Gymnasien. This should help the reader form a better picture of the over-all secondary school program in Germany.

The time organization of the Gymnasien follows two forms, the nine year and six or seven year structures (20:30). Most schools follow the nine year plan, and all curriculum tables in this paper refer to these types. The shorter forms are usually found in rural areas. This six-seven year organization also affords later developing children a chance for entry after six to seven years of Volksschule. Either of the plans mentioned above goes to the thirteenth year of school; thus, the student finishes at about age 19 (20:30).

In each type of school the stress is on the named course. However, there are many common subject areas treated, and 70 to 80 per cent of the curricula is the same in all three types of Gymnasien (20:31). The modern language school and the mathematics-science school have practically the same

curriculum for the first five years (see Tables IV and V). A change between the two schools can be effected without too much difficulty in the early years.

All Gymnasien curricula are presented in a cyclic treatment directed to the level at which the student is able to assimilate it. For example, history could start with general stories of great leaders; later, discussions of how political and cultural backgrounds affect various eras; and still later, a study of what caused these political and cultural backgrounds. This cyclic pattern starts with simple childhood curiosity in the lower grades and broadens the subject area into methods of analyzing and research (20:22).

The fundamental idea that permeates the German secondary school is to learn how to work and how to think. The object is to get away from knowing a little about many things and not much about any one. This concept is called Vielwisserei in German (20:32). The Vielwisserei is more prevalent in the younger student who thinks he knows something about everything. The older student learns to develop a more pointed way of questioning which requires a need to form his own judgment. Much attention is given in upper classes to developing this characteristic in the student.

In 1960-61 the Kultusministerien advocated reducing the number of subjects offered in the curriculum (20:32). According to this plan obligatory subjects would be completed at various stages as the student progressed through the grades rather than adding new subjects to the old load. This change has the effect of tapering off the heaviest load during the last years of the Gymnasium. Courses such as history, citizenship and geography have been condensed into one subject (20). This leads to a core-type presentation. Loosening the curriculum in the later years of the Gymnasium allows a little time for the student to pursue special interests (i.e., debates, discussion groups, etc.). This has not been a feature of the traditional Gymnasium course.

The Gymnasium is the only branch of the secondary schools that requires comprehensive examinations to obtain the Abitur (certificate of graduation) (20). This certificate entitles the holder to enter the university to pursue any field of his choice. The student's total performance through the years of the Gymnasium also influences the final rating of the Abitur examinations (20). The tests are taken at the student's own school so that he is in a familiar atmosphere.

Not all subjects are included in the final tests. The written tests are usually on four subjects (German, a modern foreign language, mathematics, and depending on the type of Gymnasium, another foreign language or physics) (20:34). One of these subjects (not German) can usually be finished with an examination in the next to the last year.

There are also oral examinations which cover four subjects at the most (20:35). At this time the examining committee checks on weak or strong results in the written tests as compared to regular class performance. The orals take about 15 minutes on each subject (2;7) and are not in the form of questions but in an atmosphere of letting the student order his thinking in a certain area.

The following tables have been made a part of this paper to clarify the curriculum at the secondary level. Tables III, IV and V list the Gymnasien curricula for the humanistic, modern language and mathematics-natural science schools. Figures for these three tables are from the Statistisches Bundesamt in Wiesbaden, Germany (1961).

Table VI shows the actual weekly class schedule (1966) of Herr Herbert Eschner, who teaches at the Albert Einstein Gymnasium in Munich, Germany. Because he teaches the upper

grades in this school, his class schedule includes 22 class sessions per week rather than 24 classes for those who teach the lower grades. Herr Eschner may be called on to substitute for absent teachers any time during the week. He also takes his turn supervising breaks (recesses) on an average of three times a week.

Tables VII, VIII and IX show the weekly schedules for a fifth grade, eighth grade and thirteenth grade student respectively. The student schedules also came from the Albert Einstein Gymnasium in Munich, Germany. This school is a modern language Gymnasium. The first three classes of such a school usually start out with about 40 students; the next four grades drop to about 30 students; and the last grade averages about 20 students (7). This means that about one-half of those who started as a beginning class graduated with the Abitur.

Table II shows the numerical enrollments in the various types of schools for 1959-60 in the Bundesrepublik.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF THE WEEKLY CURRICULUM HOURS
IN SCHOOL YEAR (MITTELSCHULE)*

SUBJECT	(Grade) 5	6	7	8	9	10
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2
German	5	5	4	4	4	4
History	-	-	2	2	-	-
Social Studies	2	3	2	2	5	5
Geography	2	2	2	2	-	-
English	6	5	4	4	4	4
2 Foreign Languages (1 elective & French)	-	-	/3/	/3/	/3/	/3/
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4	4
Geometric Drawing	-	-	-	-	1	1
Physics - Chemistry	-	-	2	3	3	3
Biology	2	2	2	2	2	2
Music	2	2	2	2	2	2
Artistic Drawing	2	2	2	1	1	1
Shop and Home Economics	2	2	2	2	2	2
Physical Education	3	3	3	3	3	3
Shorthand (elective)	-	-	-	-	/2/	/2/
Required Hours	32	32	33 /+3/	33 /+3/	33 /+3 +2/	33/+3 +2/

*Copy of the student schedule from the State of Hessen.

TABLE II

ENROLLMENT FIGURES IN THE VARIOUS TYPES
OF GERMAN SCHOOLS 1959-1960 (14;20)

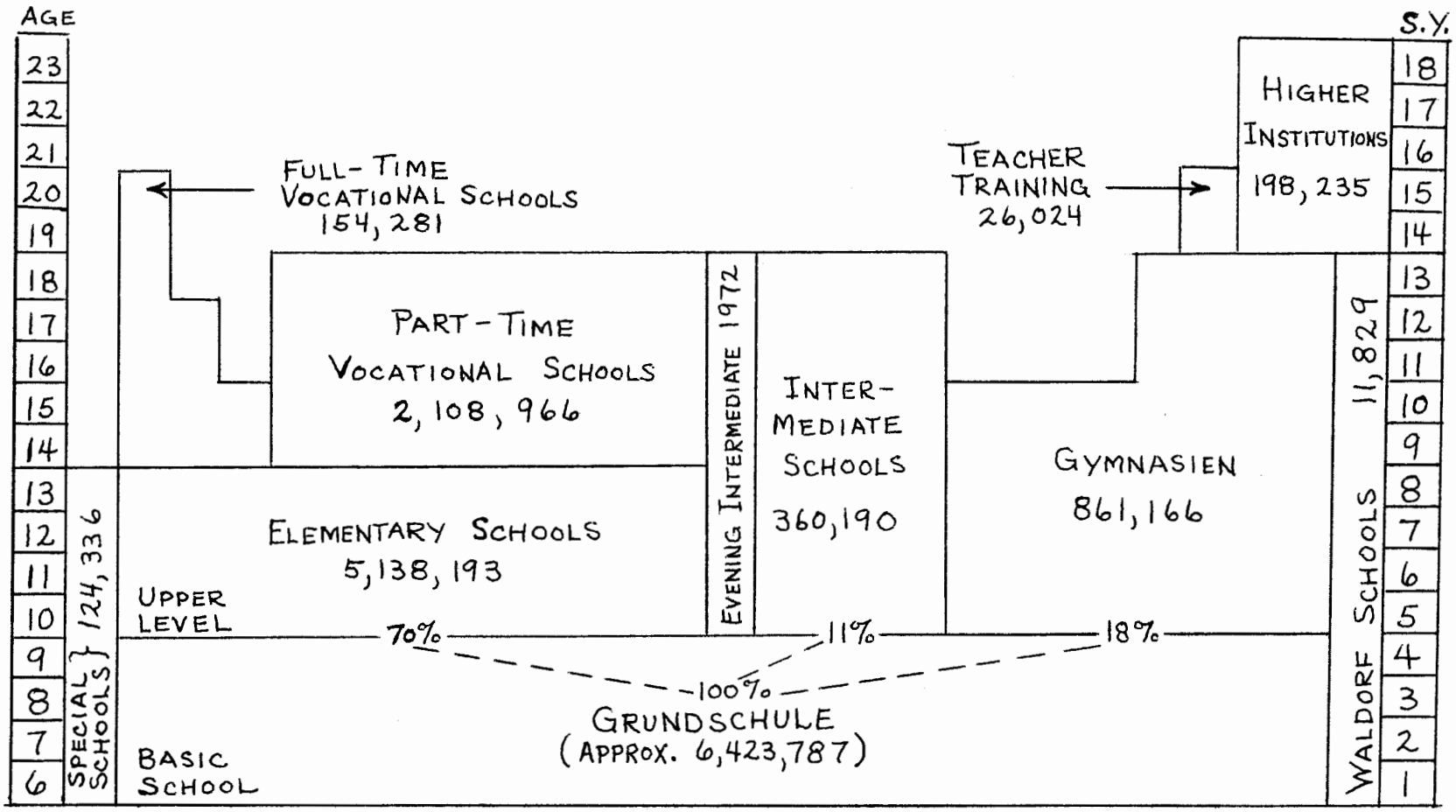


TABLE III

NUMBER OF TEACHING PERIODS PER SUBJECT PER WEEK
HUMANISTIC GYMNASIUM (ALTSPRACHLICHES GYMNASIUM)

Class	VI	V	IV	UIII	OIII	UII	OII	UI	OI	Total
School year	5	6	7	8	9	10	11*	12	13*	
I. REQUIRED SUBJECTS										
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
German	5	5	4	4	4	3	3	4	5	37
History		2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	15
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		16
Social Studies							1	1	2	4
Latin	6	6	5	5	5	4	4	4	6	45
Greek				6	6	5	5	4	6	32
French			5	3	3	3	3	3		20
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	31
Physics					2	2	2	2	2	10
Chemistry						2	1	2		5
Biology	2	2	2			2	2	2		12
Music	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	15
Fine Arts	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	17
Physical Training	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	21
	28	28	33	33	34	34	34	35	33	
Choir										2
Orchestra										1
Needlework	2	2	2	2						8
II. ELECTIVE SUBJECTS										
In Class 13									2	8
III. ADDITIONAL SUBJECTS										
Another language						2	2	2	2	8
Needlework										2

*A pupil must decide in Class 11 whether he will take music or fine arts. In Class 13 he has the choice of 2 hours of geography, French, biology or chemistry.

Figures for Tables III, IV and V are from the Statistisches Bundesamt in Wiesbaden (1961).

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF TEACHING PERIODS PER SUBJECT PER WEEK
MODERN LANGUAGE GYMNASIUM (NEUSPRACHLICHES GYMNASIUM)

Class	VI	V	IV	UIII	OIII	UII	OII	UI	OI	Total
School year	5	6	7	8	9	10	11*	12	13*	
I. REQUIRED SUBJECTS										
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
German	6	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	41
History			2	2	2	2	2	2	3	15
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		16
Social Studies						1	1	1	2	5
English	5	5	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	35
French-Latin			6	6	4	3	3	3	4	29
Latin-French					6	5	5	4	5	25
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	31
Physics				2	2	2	2	2		10
Chemistry						2	1	2		5
Biology	2	2	2	2		1	2	2		13
Music	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	15
Fine Arts	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	17
Physical Training	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	21
	28	28	33	33	34	34	34	34	32	
Choir										2
Orchestra										1
Needlework	2	2	2	2						8
II. ELECTIVE SUBJECTS										
In Class 13									2	8
III. ADDITIONAL SUBJECTS										
Another (third) language						2	2	2	2	8
Needlework										2

*A pupil must decide in Class 11 whether he will take music or fine arts. Needlework is only for girls. In Class 13 a pupil has the choice of 2 hours of geography, physics, biology or chemistry. A pupil choosing French as his second language takes it for the number of periods indicated for French-Latin and takes Latin for the number of periods shown for Latin-French. If he chooses Latin he follows the schedule in reverse.

TABLE V

NUMBER OF TEACHING PERIODS PER SUBJECT PER WEEK
MATHEMATICS-NATURAL SCIENCE GYMNASIUM
(MATHEMATISCH-NATURWISSENSCHAFTLICHES GYMNASIUM)

Class	VI	V	IV	UIII	OIII	UII	OII	UI	OI	Total
School year	5	6	7	8	9	10	11*	12	13*	
I. REQUIRED SUBJECTS										
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
German	6	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	41
History			2	2	2	2	2	2	3	15
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
Social Studies						1	1	1	2	5
English	5	5	4	4	4	3	3	4		32
French-Latin			6	6	4	3	3	3	4	29
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	39
Physics				2	3	3	3	3	3	17
Chemistry					2	3	3	2	2	12
Biology	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
Music	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	15
Fine Arts	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
Physical Training	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	21
	28	28	33	33	34	34	34	34	32	
Choir										2
Orchestra										1
Needlework	2	2	2	2						8
II. ELECTIVE SUBJECTS										
In Class 13									2	4
III. ADDITIONAL SUBJECTS										
Another (third) language						2	2	2	2	8
Needlework										2

*A pupil must decide in Class 11 whether he will take music or fine arts. Needlework is only for girls. In Class 13 a pupil has the choice of two hours of geography or English. Only two foreign languages are required. If the student chooses French as his second language, he may take Latin as an additional subject.

TABLE VI

WEEKLY SCHEDULE OF HERR HERBERT ESCHNER
ALBERT EINSTEIN GYMNASIUM
MUNICH, GERMANY (7)

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00 | 8:50	___	___	___	___	10B English	11C English
8:50 | 9:40 (Break)	12B English (Practical Ex.)	12B French	10B English	___	Consultation with parents	12B French (Lit. reading)
9:55 | 10:40	11C French	___	___	___	11C French	12B English (Lit. Studies)
10:40 | 11:25 (Break)	10B English	12B English (Lit. reading)	12B French (Reader)	11C English	12B English (Lit. reading)	___
11:40 | 12:25	Bereitschaft (on duty in case of emerg.)	11C English	11C French	11C French	12B French (reader)	___
12:25 | 13:10	12B French (Lit. reading)	11C French	12B English (Lit. studies)	12B Practical Ex.	___	___

TABLE VII

BOYS' SCHEDULE - FIFTH GRADE (10/11 YEARS)
ALBERT EINSTEIN GYMNASIUM
MUNICH, GERMANY (7)

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00 | 8:50	Math.	Physical Education	German	Art (Drawing)	Latin	Latin
8:50 | 9:40 (Break)	Music	Physical Education	Religion	Art (Drawing)	Biology	German
9:55 | 10:40	Latin	Math.	Geography	Latin	Math.	Geography
10:40 | 11:25 (Break)	Biology	German	Writing (Improvement)	German	Music	Math.
11:40 | 12:25	German	Latin	Latin	—	Religion	—
12:25 | 13:10	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE VIII

BOYS' SCHEDULE - EIGHTH GRADE (14/15 YEARS)
ALBERT EINSTEIN GYMNASIUM
MUNICH, GERMANY (7)

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00 | 8:50	Music (Choral)	Religion	Latin	Math.	German	English
8:50 | 9:40 (Break)	Latin	English	Math.	Latin	History	Math.
9:55 | 10:40	Art	Math.	Geography	Biology	Latin	Physical Education
10:40 | 11:25 (Break)	Art	German	German	English	Geography	Physical Education
11:40 | 12:25	English	Latin	Shorthand	Religion	Music (Choral)	Latin
12:25 | 13:10	Shorthand	Biology	—	German	—	—

TABLE IX

BOYS' SCHEDULE - THIRTEENTH GRADE (19/20 YEARS)
ALBERT EINSTEIN GYMNASIUM
MUNICH, GERMANY (7)

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00 | 8:50	History	Religion	French	French	Physics	History
8:50 | 9:40 (Break)	French	French	History	Geog-raphy	Religion	Music
9:55 | 10:40	German	Physics	English	Chemistry or Free	French	English
10:40 | 11:25 (Break)	English	English	German	English	German	German
11:40 | 12:25	Music	___	Physical Education	German	Social Studies	Biology
12:25 | 13:10	___	___	Physical Education	Biology	___	___

About 80 per cent of the German children go into full-time work or start an apprenticeship program after completing the legal requirements of full-time school attendance (4:478). There are three common types of vocational schools in the German system, each of which will be outlined briefly below.

Berufsschule. The majority of students in Germany enroll in the Berufsschule (20). Usually the student enters this school after eight or nine years of Volksschule. This schooling lasts a minimum of three years concurrent with on-the-job training until the student has completed certain requirements for his specialized work. During this time the student attends formal classes one day a week. The curriculum concentrates mainly on areas of citizenship, social sciences, job information and specialized related subjects to the interest of preparation (20). General areas of specializing include industrial work, agriculture, merchandising, home economics, mining, etc. Many large firms have made space in their operations for on-the-job trainees.

The final examination for the Berufsschule is spread over two and one-half days with a total duration of eight

hours (20:40). All subjects are test subjects except religion. The Director, teachers, and representatives of the chosen occupation make up the test committee. In addition to the written examination, there is a practical on-the-job test given.

Berufsfachschule. The full-time vocational schools (Berufsfachschulen) are scheduled as one, two or three year schools. Completion of one of these courses fulfills the compulsory attendance requirement (4:479). Students attend these schools from 30 to 36 hours a week, and here the practical training is done within the school. Most of these schools prepare students for merchandising and home economics (20), and there are more than twice as many girls' schools as boys' schools of this type (4:479). Completion of work in this kind of schooling entitles the student to take the journeyman's examination.

Fachschule. The Fachschulen are advanced full-time vocational schools. Students come to these institutions from jobs to gain more academic and detailed training. The duration of attendance at this type of school varies from one and

one-half to three years, and the curriculum is scheduled on a semester basis like a university (20:41). General areas of specialization include forestry, technical, electrician, administration, nursing, social workers, etc. Graduates from a six semester Fachschule often can be admitted to a university (20). Since these schools can become quite complicated in their operations, the writer prefers not to detail this particular part of the German system.

Before closing the discussion on secondary schools in Germany, two fairly new innovations will be mentioned. The first is the establishment of a school called the Kolleg which takes people who have already been out in the working world and want to return to school for the Abitur. These Kollegs take youths or adults who have finished the Volksschule, Mittelschule or middle stages of the Gymnasium (20:42). Here, it is taken into consideration that applicants will bring with them sound job and life experience.

The Kollegs have classes for 36 hours a week. Many times they are attached to a regular Gymnasium so that both operations may use common facilities. The writer visited a physical plant in Munich where this kind of an arrangement

was being carried out. Usually the Kollegs prepare the student for the Abitur over a period of three years of schooling (10;27).

A function similar to the Kolleg just described is the night Gymnasium (Abendgymnasium) conducted for day workers. Unlike the Kolleg, which requires a Fachschule certificate, these Abendgymnasien only ask for a finished job training or that the applicant has worked at a regular job for some length of time (20). These schools extend over a four year period and the courses offered come from a regular Gymnasium schedule of requirements.

About 2 per cent of the university students have come up through one of the last two tracks discussed, and the percentage is on the rise (20).

University. Cramer and Brown, in Contemporary Education: A Comparative Study of National Systems (4), have a concise summary of the university system which will be used in part to finalize the general education structure in Germany:

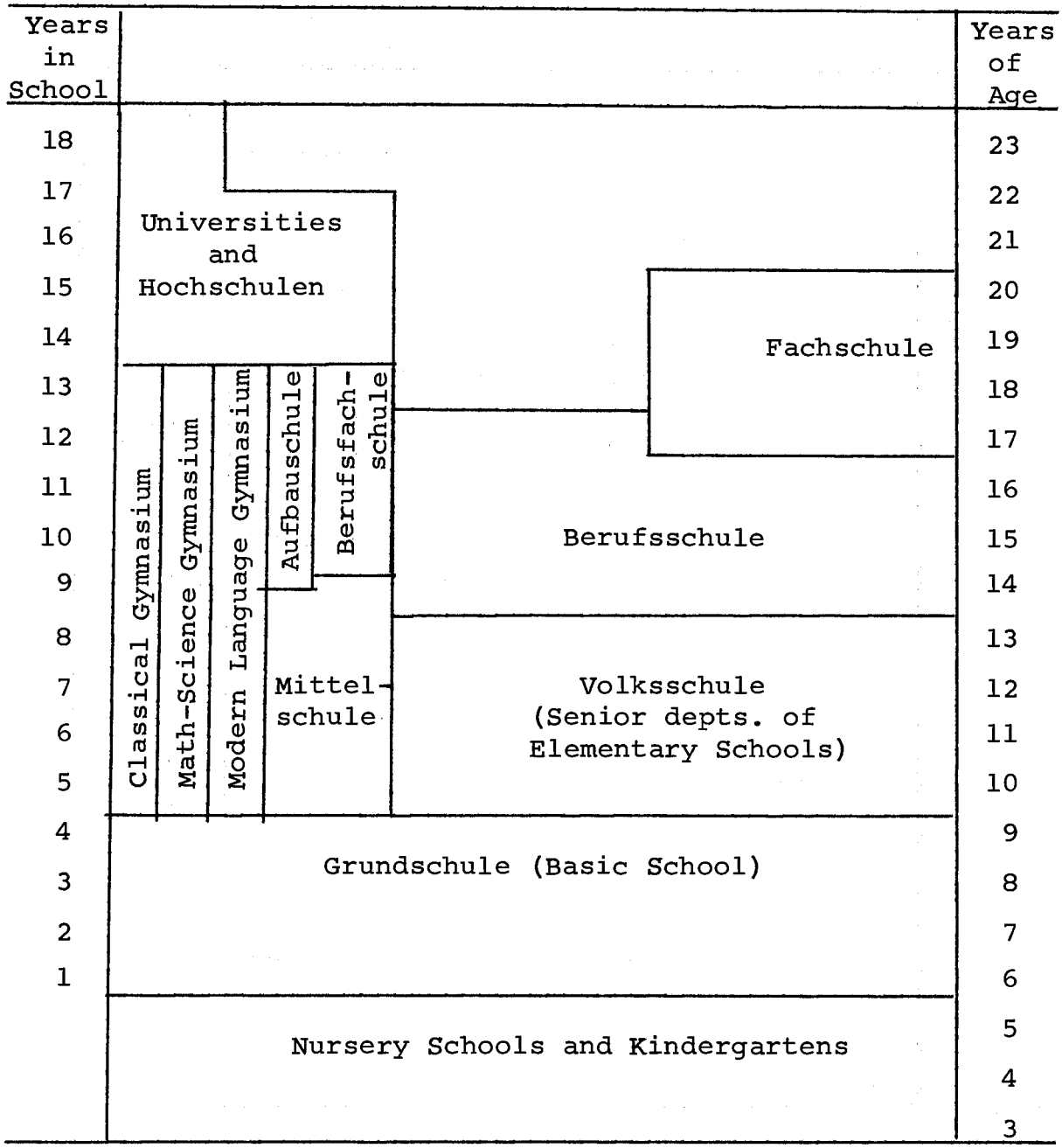
> Institutions of higher learning in Germany are called Hochschulen (higher schools). These include the traditional universities as well as a variety of

> institutes of technology, academies of mining, institutes of business and finance and other professional schools. The Hochschulen are almost all supported by public funds, and the professors have civil-service status and old age pensions.... Measured by American standards, the German Hochschulen are comparable to graduate schools....
>
> German universities give only one degree, the doctorate, after a five year course. In certain fields diplomas are granted, some of them at the end of four years....
>
> Although the German universities might be called state universities in the American sense of the term, they enjoy almost complete freedom and autonomy.... The academic freedom of professors in matters of teaching and research is complete....
>
> This is matched by an almost equivalent freedom of learning on the part of the students. German students plan their programs and decide when, how and where they will prepare themselves for the examinations leading to degrees or diplomas in their chosen fields....

Table X diagrams generally the school structure discussed in this last section. No attempt is made to show every type of specialized school. The reader must keep in mind that there are variations among the states (4:472).

TABLE X

DIAGRAM OF POSTWAR WEST GERMAN SCHOOLS



V. GERMAN GOVERNMENT ROLES IN EDUCATION AND PROPOSED REFORMS

The role of the federal government in education. Only during the thirteen years of Nazi control was a National Ministry of Education set up to supervise all education in Germany. Each of the eleven Länder is responsible for its own cultural and educational programs. At the present time some federal interest, but no control, in education is shown through the Ministry of Interior.

The federal government has no active part in educational administration and supervision but states certain general principles. The basic law includes the following provisions (4:210):

1. Every school shall be under the supervision of the state.

2. The right to establish private schools is to be respected, but such schools must not indicate social position or wealth. They are not to differ socially from the public schools, and they must reach the same standard of work as the public schools.

3. Religious instruction is to be part of the normal program of the schools, but no teacher is to be compelled to give it, and parents may withdraw their children from religious instruction if they wish.

Role of the states in education. Each of the Länder (states) has enacted a basic School Code (4:210). The eleven different systems of education in West Germany vary in many respects. The Occupation Powers did not succeed in setting up a modern democratic system of schools, and the states have returned to German patterns which existed before the Nazi control. The separate states maintain their autonomy, differences in curricula, textbooks, educational methods and religious backgrounds.

A Conference of State Ministers of Education (Kultusministerium) established in 1948 meets several times a year and maintains a small secretariat in Bonn. The State Ministers bring common problems to these conferences for discussion, and any unanimous decisions are referred to the individual state legislatures for action. Usually the legislatures accept such recommendations, but the Conference has no authority to enforce its decisions (4:211).

This Kultusministerium has accomplished many practical results. More agreements have been reached by their conferences and adopted by the states than were ever achieved during the period of the Weimar Republic (12:10). Among the unanimous decisions may be listed the following (4:211):

1. To open the school year in the spring. (Only Bavaria starts its school year in the autumn),

2. To establish uniformity in the length and duration of summer vacations.

3. To adopt grades of equal value for use in school reports and certificates.

4. To introduce a foreign language as an elective in the elementary schools.

5. To require that students in the intermediate and secondary schools begin a foreign language in the fifth year and start a second language in the seventh year. The choice of languages may vary.

6. To promote uniform principles of spelling.

7. To establish an agreement on the principles of political education to be taught in the schools.

8. To grant mutual recognition to certificates of maturity for university entrance.

9. To practice reciprocity between the states on examination certificates of elementary teachers.

10. To standardize the professional training to be required of secondary teachers.

The objective of these adoptions has been to protect some of the diversity that gives richness to German culture and at the same time give enough uniformity in operations to facilitate transfers from one state to the other.

There are three levels of administration in most Länder: (1) the State Ministry of Education and Culture;

(2) the Governmental District level; and (3) the local level, rural or urban. General school policies, curriculum planning, examinations, certification and appointment of teachers are the responsibilities of the state. Supervision of elementary schools is the responsibility of the local level, and supervision of secondary schools is delegated to the Government District (4:212). The local units receive instructions from the state Ministry and must secure permission to deviate from the set procedures, even in experimental programs.

Financing education is complicated in Germany because of the variety of state operations. The states, local governments, and even private organizations (in the case of some vocational schools) contribute to the support of education in varying proportions. The cost of supporting schools takes as much as 16 per cent of a total state's budget and the remainder is raised by the local subdivisions (4:210). In 1959 the total expenditure on general education was about 5,300 million DM ($1,325 million) with an additional 700 million DM ($175 million) spent on vocational schools (4:212). No specific taxes are earmarked for schools.

Coordinated school planning. In 1964 the politics involved in Western German education took on an increased importance in both the state and federal governments. All parties seemed to agree on the need for drastic changes in general educational policies and practices. Briefly this new attitude involves public education being recognized as a socio-economic institution of national importance. Therefore, new means are being provided for detailed planning and financing for expansion. These changes amount to a "Neuordnung im Deutschen Schulwesen" (23), making easier access to secondary schools.

In December, 1964, the Federal Minister of Interior (Anton Höcherl) expressed before a session of the Bundestag (lower house) the general agreement among the three leading political parties for federally coordinated planning of expanded school facilities (26:1683). This suggestion had the unexpected approval of both the state governments and conservative Catholic authorities.

As a result of this agreement, during the winter of 1964-65, important activities began on the federal level in regard to federal aid and planning without federal control (33:14-15). First, an Education Council was formed by

mutual agreement between state and federal educational agencies. The Council is composed of an Education Commission and an Administrative Commission. The major functions of the Council (Bildungsrat) are setting long range educational goals and planning general policies and measures of assistance, especially with respect to expansion, structure, and financial needs of the educational institutions (33:15).

Second is a revision and extension of the Düsseldorf Agreement of 1954, which would advocate the extension of compulsory schooling to nine years; increase measures to reduce the teacher shortage; introduce a foreign language, usually English, in the fifth grades of all types of schools; sufficiently consolidate rural schools to guarantee better opportunities for access to the Gymnasien; increase diversification of secondary education to offer educational chances to various talents; and to make the school year start in the fall throughout all of the Länder, starting in 1967 (33:15).

Third, in February 1965, the Länder Ministers of Education agreed to set up statistical departments within their ministries with staffs to develop coordinated surveys, methods of evaluation and local-regional planning (33:15).

Rarely, before this time, had statistical people been attached to ministry operations.

Fourth, federal funds have not been used to finance education in Western Germany (except at the university level). However, on February 10, 1965, unanimous approval was given to a law that provides DM 40 per month (about $10) for each child (in a family) attending a school or university from age 15 to 27, except for one child families (24). This support is meant to be an incentive for longer school attendance, which has been found to correlate negatively with the number of children in a family.

In connection with educational planning, brief mention should be made of a new institution: the Institut für Bildungsforschung in der Max-Planck-Gesellschaft (Institute for Educational Research in the Max-Planck Society). It was established under the auspices of the federal and Länder governments and a grant from the Ford Foundation. The Institute has departments of sociology, psychology, economics, law and comparative studies in education. It emphasizes cooperation of the various specialists in the investigation of complex educational problems (33:16).

The above discussion has presented several educational concerns in Germany and some of the agencies which have come into being to cope with problem areas. The influence of these various groups will help determine what forms German education will take in the future.

The Rahmenplan. The Rahmenplan is one of the most comprehensive suggestions for a basic change in the design of German school organization. This plan is the result of several years work by a committee called Der Deutsche Ausschuss für das Erziehungs und Bildungswesen, started in 1953 (17:18). It has twenty appointed members from many interests of the population (see above reference for complete list of names). Previous considerations of this committee include the kindergarten, private schools, the Volksschulen, the rural schools, curriculum, content, school structure and others. The Rahmenplan is the title given to a complete report by this committee in 1959.

The significance of the plan can be quickly reviewed by looking at three major "aspects" (17:18):

1. It aims at unifying the many patterns of thought and practices in school organization now existing in the eleven Länder.

2. It illustrates how a major educational problem may be dealt with by a combination of "Federal" (legislative) initiative and "nongovernmental" execution (citizen committees) under conditions where complete cultural autonomy rests by constitution with the Länder.

3. It attempts to cope with the difficult task faced by many nations today--to adjust the educational system to the demands of modern, democratic mass society making rapid technological advances, while at the same time enhancing the individual's opportunities for fulfillment and preserving cherished cultural patterns.

The rebuilding of schools and replacement of needed equipment still takes the major part of attention and finances in Germany. In all fields there is still a great shortage of teachers even though the salaries and social prestige are adequate. Any school reform in Germany has many intangible obstacles. Old traditions of state paternalism, class consciousness, and pride in intellectual and economic achievements all tend to resist changes in educational philosophy. In recognition of many of these barriers to change, the Rahmenplan starts its introduction: "The German schools have failed to adjust to the revolutionary social and political changes during the last fifty years".

The Plan singles out as "the most noticeable burden on today's school system...the ever growing pressure to find

entrance into the secondary school" (17:19). At the present time a student's chances of getting into a secondary school practically depends on recommendation from the Grundschule (1st-4th) and the results of an examination at the Gymnasium. Many feel that these procedures are unfair and that it is not reliable to make a lifetime decision for a person based on a brief performance at the age of ten. The importance of this decision is expressed by Helmut Schelshy when he refers to the school of today in Germany as "the primary, decisive and almost exclusive distributor of chances for future rank, position and living standards" (29:18).

The following outline of the Rahmenplan should be used with Table I to better understand what the plan proposes.

First, the plan suggests two years of a differentiating middle stage called the Förderstufe. The intended purpose for this grouping is to keep the fifth and sixth years together in most subjects yet provide special courses for the more academic; i.e., foreign languages. The Förderstufe also extends common school life and provides a longer period of observation and try-out opportunities. This stage is to have its own principal and largely its own teachers.

Second, the Hauptschule (grades 7 through 9 or 10) follows the Förderstufe for at least 50 per cent of the children as their terminal full-time schooling. The Berufsschule, with its program of eight hours a week, is mandatory for all graduates of the Hauptschule who do not attend a full time vocational school until 18.

Third, the Realschule (grades 7 through 10 and 11 to be added later) is to be built up on a large scale. Eventually 25 per cent of the children leaving the Förderstufe will be taught here. This school fills a growing need to provide terminal education for the young people whose future jobs will be in clerical or lower technical fields (lower grade white collar). Some schools now in operation (Mittelschulen and Aufbauschulen) have similar objectives, but these would all be changed to the unified Realschule. Graduates from the Realschule would receive certificates called Mittlere Reife. However, these are not valid for university entrance requirements.

Fourth, the Gymnasium (grades 7 through 13) probably would accommodate about 20 per cent of the students leaving the Förderstufe. This type of school is either language or science oriented. There will not be much change of

curriculum or philosophy of training in these schools, which are primarily to prepare the student for the university. There will, however, be an innovation built into the Gymnasium curriculum whereby a student could terminate at the eleventh year and receive a Mittlere Reife rather than complete 13 years for the Abitur.

Fifth, the Studienschule (grades 5 through 13) is planned to be a special Gymnasium for particularly talented students who show up at the end of the fourth year. This school will train students strictly in the academic area, concentrating on Latin with French and Greek as secondary languages. These Studienschule would be located in the more populated areas.

No radical changes are advocated by the Rahmenplan; however, it does suggest some improvements that delay decisions and provide opportunities of more easily crossing over from one track to another. The plan would result in a more unified organization throughout Germany rather than having eleven state plans now existing. One pattern would allow easier shifting from one area to another. The writer thinks the German population will tend to become more mobile as the importance of industrialization increases.

The Förderstufe is probably the greatest departure of the organizations now in use. As well as extending the common schooling, it makes the transition into the divided schools more gradual. The Realschule seems to be a good answer to those students who want more advanced schooling but do not plan on university training. Other provisions of the plan include more careful guidance and automatic promotions every two years.

Patriotism is conspicuously absent from the Rahmenplan. Instead, giving meaning to and enrichment of personal life are stressed. At the same time social responsibilities, civic duties and how to use leisure time are given due consideration.

> There is one purpose in maintaining a special school type, the Gymnasium, which is least justifiable from a democratic viewpoint. But this cultural purpose carries great weight with the Germans, and not only those who benefit from it. It concerns the humanistic traditions of "transmitting the classical substance of European culture". It is interesting to note that nowhere in the Rahmenplan can be found any references to a specifically German culture or to national traditions. In every case the emphasis is on European or Western civilization. This indicates a remarkable change from the past (17:24).

One major weakness of the Rahmenplan is its deliberate limitation of school organization to only the general types.

In any large scale reform, consideration should be given to the vocational schools, private schools, evening schools, etc. The plan assumes these will be dealt with in other suggestions. Also the curriculum area is left for later detailing. Questions of co-education, religion and discipline are other factors that critics want spelled out in more detail (17).

What are the chances of the Rahmenplan being put into effect in Germany? All major changes in the schools of Western Germany are subject to approval by each state parliament (17:24). Therefore, the chances for success of the plan ultimately depend on its acceptance by the people of each state. Reaction on the part of public and officials has been slowed by their listening to all sides of debates and comments. The sharpest criticisms seem to come from the Gymnasium teachers and professors and church interests (30). They contend the reforms should be more on curriculum and methods.

There are indications that individual states are modifying school organization along some of the lines advocated by the plan (especially Bavaria) (17). Other states

(Berlin and Bremen) have already extended common elementary training to five or six years (4:473). The Kultusministerium has concentrated some thinking on proposed parts of the plan (17:25).

Even if the plan is not accepted in total form it has at least served to focus attention on German education reform. It provides a basis from which to discuss needs and evaluate suggestions.

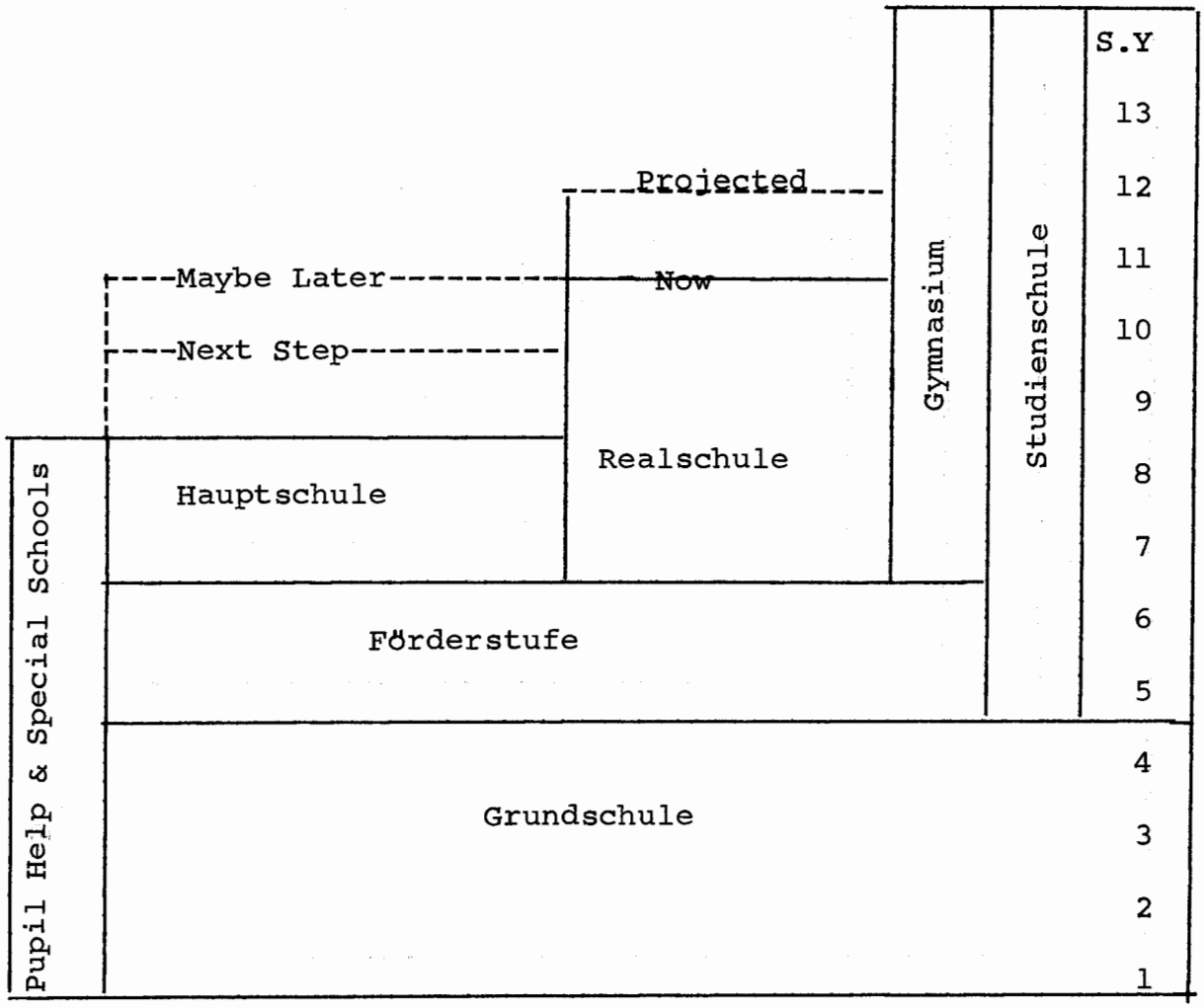
Table XI diagrams the school structure proposed by the Rahmenplan.

The Bremerplan. The Bremerplan, another proposed German educational reform, will be considered in this section. It results from the work of the Arbeitsgemeinschaft Deutscher Lehrerverbande, the largest German teacher association. This plan developed during 1960-62 out of discussions among the teachers of the Arbeitsgemeinschaft, most of whom are teachers from all kinds of schools from kindergarten to university (6:47). Most of the membership comes from teachers of elementary and middle schools.

The aims of the Bremerplan are similar to those of the Rahmenplan. Both reforms agree that all children should

TABLE XI

DIAGRAM OF THE PROPOSED RAHMENPLAN



start school at six years of age and experience common learnings in the Grundschule. However, the Bremerplan advocates that ALL children attend the transition grades (fifth and sixth) whereas the Rahmenplan has a provision for a small percentage of students to go directly from the fourth grade into the Studienschule. The Bremerplan group feels that many parents in the upper social classes will continue to push for their children to enter the 9-year Gymnasium for the social prestige attached to this type of education.

At the end of the sixth grade the Bremerplan also proposes the three direction choices already discussed under Table XI. But the Bremerplan urges that the time spent in the Hauptschule be extended to the tenth grade. This school now terminates at the end of the eighth grade in most states and the ninth grade in a few. In these added years more emphasis is to be placed on additional vocational offerings along with the required subjects. This new build-up in the last years of the Hauptschule is a main objective for both plans.

The Bremerplan prefers to somewhat link the Mittelschule with the Hauptschule instead of each being completely independent. This loose tie could result in possibly transfering with more ease from one to the other.

Only one type of Gymnasium is suggested by the Bremerplan (as to the length of time) and that follows the seven year organization. However, the three subject types of Gymnasien already discussed (classical, modern language, mathematics and science) are still advocated beginning with the eleventh grade. During the last two years (twelfth and thirteenth) there is a small group of required subjects and another selective group. This plan attempts to consider individual interests and abilities more than the Rahmenplan.

Where the Rahmenplan has not considered the vocational schools in its reform, the Bremerplan has taken a stand in this area. Enderwitz summarizes this position very well in his comparison of the two major reforms (6:50):

> It (the Bremerplan) has made clear that general education and vocational education are two sides of the same process. Thus it has concerned itself with (the) part-time school (generally 6-8 periods a week) which runs along the apprenticeship training of the youth in his or her trade or business. It also dealt with the full-time vocational school, which a boy or girl may attend for one or two years after he or she has left the Senior Elementary School to prepare for his future occupation. And finally, the Bremerplan supports the so-called Berufsaufbauschule. These are special courses for able students with an elementary or middle school education. They are generally combined with a part-time or full-time vocational school and are supposed to help youngsters broaden

> their general education and intellectual capacity, enabling them to switch over to a vocational school of higher level; i.e., schools for technicians or engineers. The most qualified young people leaving such a high vocational school successfully may get permission to attend a university. The way via elementary or middle school, part-time or full-time vocational school, higher vocational school and university is called the second road to higher education.

Generally it is felt by those who have analyzed both major reforms that the Bremerplan is more revolutionary (6:50). But so far neither plan has greatly revised the old model of the German education system.

The Ettlingen group. An activity in German education circles and among alert lay-people that has received little publicity is the increasing interest of educational developments in the U.S.S.R. Particular notice is being given to the Soviet Occupied Zone of Germany. For many years after World War II there was a general feeling in the West that everything done in the East had the prime purpose of promoting totalitarian Communism. But more and more people have noticed realistic results from Eastern educational practices and are beginning to think some of these ideas might also benefit Western needs in a fast changing technical society (15:12). They wonder if some of these changes "forced" on

the Eastern societies could not be "developed" in the West to effect necessary improvements in the general education program. Specifically these changes would be directed toward a more broad and extensive education of the masses; more stress on scientific and pre-technical education in non-vocational schools; more financial aid to students in academic and technical universities; smaller classes in all schools; providing more equipment and larger staffs for laboratories and research; and, basic to all of the suggestions, a larger part of the national income to be spent on education and research (15:13).

In May, 1957, a group of leading industrialists met in Ettlingen, Germany, to discuss possibilities of reducing "shortcomings in the system of education and instruction". Out of this group came a report called the "Ettlingen Requests", which generally proposed the following activities (15:13):

1. Improvement of elementary and intermediate schools by providing for a sufficient number of school rooms, smaller classes, extending full-time compulsory education from eight to nine years, and many curricular changes.

2. Modernization of the secondary schools by breaking away from prestige attitudes, making curriculum adjustments, adapting the program to the large percentage of students who must drop out before completion, and providing more freedom in experimentation.
3. Finding better ways of assisting the talented student (similar to those aids given gifted university students).
4. Extending school day to provide for supervised work in the afternoon.
5. Raising the level and number of vocational part-time schools and doubling the number of intermediate full-time technical schools.
6. Widening the scope and number of schools for adult education. Advocated that this operation become an independent part of the education system.
7. Filling the gaps in the staffs of the higher institutions and relieving the university professors of much red tape and expected research work. Setting up a degree similar to the Bachelor of Science

for those students not able to successfully complete diploma requirements in the technical universities.

8. The much discussed "second road" to university study should be promoted.
9. Admission requirements for positions in all vocationals and professional positions should be reviewed to trim all unnecessary formal conditions.

In addition to the suggestions, appeals were made to business and industry to share the responsibility for educational improvement. These interests were asked to initiate special courses for their own employees, contribute to research projects, and aid worthy students financially in continuing their education. This document did much to arouse action in the general public as well as among state and federal agencies concerned with German education.

Probably just as important as the first work of this Ettlingen group was a second meeting they had in January, 1958 (15:15). They had asked Dr. Hans Hechel, professor of educational law, administration and finance at the Frankfurt

Hochschule to compile some statistics about the status of German education. In condensed form some of these findings are as follows (15:15): (1) only 25 to 30 per cent of the students "entering" a secondary school stay through the whole course (thirteenth year); (2) 50 per cent of the teaching staff are beyond 45 years of age; (3) the number of students preparing for teaching falls at least 15 per cent short of present replacement needs and the shortage will increase by 40 to 50 per cent if reorganization of education is brought about as proposed by the "Ettlingen Requests"; and (4) for such a reorganization about 20 to 25 per cent more classrooms and related facilities will be needed.

Using the above figures as a basis, the Ettlingen group now stressed lower numbers of students per class; more possibilities of transfer from elementary to secondary schools by gradually differentiating curricula in the middle grades (six to nine); reducing the number of hours per week given by teachers; raising the number of students brought up to the entrance examination for university by 50 per cent; and increasing the number of teachers by 50 per cent.

Again the group urged business and industry to school on their own premises boys and girls in the 14 to 16 year age

group. It was also suggested that students in the upper grades (12 and 13) of the secondary schools might be allowed to select some business or industrial firm in their neighborhood for personal contacts. Through numerous visits and discussions with workers and managers they could learn to place these operations in better perspective to the whole workings of the community (15:16).

CHAPTER III

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. SUMMARY

This study revealed that the American Military Government had difficulty defining its objectives for reviving the West German school system after World War II. Officials seemed unable to agree upon a philosophy around which to build their operations. As a result, a trial and error procedure was adopted by the Office of the Military Government in attempting to open schools as quickly as possible. The effectiveness of this approach appeared weakened by inexperienced school authorities assigned to this task and the continual changing of personnel within the education group.

The writer has concluded from the study that the major accomplishment of the Americans in reviving German education between 1945 and 1955, was getting school materials and facilities into the hands of German educators, who rebuilt their own systems.

Most of the literature and personal contacts made by the writer tended to confirm the fact that German education structure today remains much the same as it was before Hitler's time. The major education reforms (the Rahmenplan and the Bremerplan) seem to be attempts to modify the educational structure and curriculum offerings along more democratic lines. Since the end of World War II, Germans appear to have a changing perspective of how their schools should educate students. This new viewpoint indicates a lessening of classical knowledge in favor of more realistic training directed toward helping Germany find a position in world competition and promoting individual satisfaction in everyday living.

The information obtained by reviewing literature from German sources, as well as that originating in the United States, enabled the writer to reach more valid conclusions in this study. Personal interviews with German educators and actual visits to German schools and classrooms added a dimension to the study not possible through reading alone.

II. RECOMMENDATIONS

The writer recommends that any persons interested in further study of the proposed reforms discussed in this paper should contact the Ständiges Secretariat der Kultusministerkonferenz, Bonn, Germany. This source should continue to have the latest information on developments concerning changes in the German educational system.

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