THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN GERMANY FOR THE
AMERICAN EXCHANGE TEACHER

by

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of Purpose</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of Assumptions</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design of Study</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II THE ENDURING PAST--GERMAN EDUCATION BEFORE 1918</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Three Traditional Forces</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caste</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationalism</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimentation and Reform</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Practical and Independent Individual</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Technical Knowledge and Modern Language System</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Learning by Doing Method</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Pre-War Conditions</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III THE PERIOD OF THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC (1919-1933) AN ATTEMPT AT DEMOCRACY</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes Proposed</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Situation</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Youth Movement</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV THE NAZI PERIOD--(1933-1945)</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aims in Education</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The State</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Teacher</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Chapter IV THE NAZI PERIOD—(1933-1945) (Cont'd)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Nazi School System</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Nazi Hauptschule</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Adolf Hitler Schools</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Napole Schools</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ordensburgen</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Hitler Youth</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Chapter V GERMAN EDUCATION SINCE 1945

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postwar Problems in Education</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening Teachers--The Fragebogen</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Shortage</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Buildings</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Changes</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present School System</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods and Materials of Teaching</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A STUDY OF THE GERMAN SYSTEM OF EDUCATION FOR THE
AMERICAN EXCHANGE TEACHER

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

The average American exchange teacher knows very little about the system of education in the country in which he plans to teach. He usually goes abroad with several stereotyped ideas about his host country and is bound to become rather confused. If on the other hand he prepares himself for his visit by making a study of some of the basic principles and characteristics of education in the country involved, he will be aware of the differences between the schools of his own country and those of his hosts. Thus, when a fellow German teacher talks of the Gymnasium, he will know that this is a type of German high school and not a large room in which pupils take part in physical training.

In order to understand better the system of education of any country the answers to several questions should be asked:

1. What are its aims of education?
2. What are some of the forces determining its
school policies?

3. What is the organizational structure of its school system?

4. What is the history of the development of its educational system?

This thesis attempts to answer these questions as they pertain to one particular country, Germany. The answer to question four determined the structure of this study, as the presentation is historical in form. The answers to the first three questions are given as each period is presented.

Statement of Purpose

The writer at some time hopes to be an exchange teacher to Germany. Thus this thesis will deal with the problem of the information and attitudes which it would seem desirable for the American exchange teacher to have before going to Germany.

Statement of Assumptions

Three basic assumptions are made:

1. The present system of education in Germany cannot be fully appreciated without a knowledge of what preceded it; for example, the plan for re-education for democracy cannot be understood if a person does not
realize the implications and practices of the Nazi system of education.

2. The American exchange teacher will teach in the American zone of Germany.

3. The American exchange teacher will look at the German system of education from the American standpoint. That is, the American exchange teacher would look upon the two-track system as undemocratic. He will, however, be open minded enough to look for the justifications and probable good points of the German system of education.

**Design of Study**

The thesis is divided into four periods. The information regarding the first three eras was gathered mainly from books and periodicals in the library. The information presented in the chapter dealing with the period after 1945 is made up in large part from the results of discussions with the group of German exchange teachers and students who visited Oregon State College during the fall of 1953.

The thesis in many instances compares and contrasts the German and American systems of education. This attempt at comparison is assumed to be a natural reaction of most people visiting a foreign country. Thus attention is called to the almost parallel rise of the Activity
School in both Germany and America. Theories are also contrasted, as for instance the American doctrine of an equal opportunity for all and the German principle of an open road for the capable.

This thesis will present education in Germany as the product of various forces, the main ones being those of caste, religion, nationalism and later democracy. These forces determined the aims and consequently the organizational structure of the schools of Germany.
CHAPTER II

THE ENDURING PAST--GERMAN EDUCATION BEFORE 1918

Introduction

Tradition is an important factor in determining current practices. It is also a form of resistance to reform. Thus in order to understand the present system of education in Germany it is necessary to delve into its past. This chapter is an attempt to bring out the three great traditional forces in German education--caste, religion and nationalism. It will also try to point out the recognition on the part of the Germans of the need for reform to keep up with the changes of the times. Finally, it will give a brief sketch of some of the conditions just prior to the First World War.

Setting

Germany in the early twentieth century was a successful nation. German industry and commerce encircled the globe; German city administration was recognized all over the world as an unequalled model of civic efficiency and integrity; German universities were highly admired and many idealistic American students insisted on doing their postgraduate work there; German schools were visited by educators from all over the world to study the methods
that seemed to give such effective and efficient results. (13, p.4) Germany had almost succeeded in stamping out illiteracy in the empire. (2, p.43) Germany had achieved greatness, and it felt that its system of education was largely responsible for this success.

What were some of the characteristics of this system of education?

The main characteristics of the German system of education, its two track set up, its strict conservatism, and its strong patriotism, may be brought out in dealing with the forces behind these features—caste, religion and nationalism. Though in actual practice these forces overlap and are inter-related, they will be dealt with separately here.

Caste.

The American exchange teacher coming as he does from a country stressing equal opportunity for all will probably be rather concerned about the traditional German theory of social predestination and practice of the two-track system in education. In Germany, the children of the poor were entirely separated from those of the wealthy. The former attended the Volksschule. The latter had private tutors or attended the Vorschule; later they went to the Gymnasium, from which they proceeded to the
university. A transfer from the upper grades of the Volksschule to the Gymnasium was almost unheard of. This forked system in which two parallel types of schools exist side by side but do not mix or transfer is known as two track.

One purpose of education was to perpetuate the status quo. It was a primary duty of the Volksschule, or school of the laboring masses, to instruct the pupil in his social obligations, make him contented with his lot, stifle his ambitions and explain to him that he occupied a humble but necessary role in the industrial and social order. This feeling of suppression is clearly brought out in a statement by Baron von Altenstein, the German Minister of Education in the time of Frederick William III (1830). He said "the program for education of the common folk should not raise them out of the sphere designated for them by God and human society." (35, p.434) This is quite a contrast to the American version of education as a means of raising the standard of living.

Religion

German schools, like the American schools, were called into existence to support the tenets of the Christian faith. (48, p.1) Religious instruction formed the core of the German curriculum. Even the
seminaries for the training of teachers were profoundly religious and disciplinary to guarantee a leader of youth who was conservative and patriotic in character. Local pastors were the state approved inspectors who examined and licensed the teachers. The church provided for the education of poor children through its Sunday collections. Each denomination—Protestant, Catholic or Jewish—had its own school if there were sufficient children to warrant a separation; if not, the children of all faiths were housed in one school and the ministers of the several denominations gave religious instruction. Thus differences of faith were respected and the church formed a vital part of education.

As time went on the influence of the church on the schools began to weaken, as it did in America, though probably for different reasons and in differing degrees. In America religion was taken out of the schools because of our doctrine of separation of church and state and also because of the vast number of different faiths represented in this melting pot of nations. In Germany the weakening of church influence on the schools was brought about in part by the after effects of German humanism and in part by the extreme emphasis on patriotism and national unity which wished to erase the differences inherent in faiths with opposing doctrines.
Encouraged by the ardent neo-humanist, Wilhelm von Humboldt, head of the Bureau of Education (1808-1810), the schools promoted the learning of general culture. As pupils studied the writings of Goethe, Kant, Schiller and Fichte, they found a tendency to replace the ecclesiastical doctrine of atonement by the belief in the saving quality of restless striving or Streberthum. The emphasis was put upon the essential goodness of all life and the importance of ideals, self realization and the fullest development of all human faculties. The inner life of Germany became secularized, the men who shaped spiritual ideals were philosophers, poets and artists, and the church ceased for a while to be a moral leader. Instead it sank down into the position of a defender of creeds and attempted to combat the steadily growing spirit of religious indifference.

**Nationalism**

As the religious influence waned, nationalism tended to become stronger because the common people in their rather humdrum existence sought something above and beyond themselves which would make life seem worthwhile. Fichte advocated that the state be placed above the individual and that the welfare of the nation must always be his first concern. Thus the teachers of
German schools were to inculcate upon their pupils' minds a zealous love of and patriotic devotion to the Fatherland. The child was to be made to feel that the German language was the most perfect of all languages, that German literature was the most excellent of all literatures; patriotic songs of the Fatherland were to engender a common heart beat, poems were to be memorized to inflame him with patriotic zeal, history was to instill into youths a love of Fatherland rather than to transmit truth. Indeed, in an effort to strengthen the inner unity of Germany, German children were taught that they were bounded by enemies on North, South, East and West. (35, p.437)

The American exchange teacher who comes from a country where the inhabitants talk of their Canadian and South American friends and generally regard all peoples as neighbors whom they wish to help, will find it hard to believe that such things were actually taught. Americans generally do not claim much beauty for the English language. However, with a belief in the economic and political importance of the United States they would like to see English become a universal language, so that Americans would not have to bend to learn the language of the country with which they are doing business. Though they already have their way to quite some extent, their
attitude may not be wise from the standpoint of profit, because a knowledge of the language and business habits and resources of the nation or person being dealt with aids in, to put it quite bluntly, getting the most out of him.

Americans are very humble in regard to their literature and it is quite characteristic of the educated American to study and discuss Latin, English or German authors in preference to those of his own country as is clearly brought out in Emerson's *The American Scholar*. The "Star-Spangled Banner" does not seem to arouse the emotionalism in Americans that Germans feel in singing "Deutschland, Deutschland uber Alles", nor does the "Midnight Ride of Paul Revere" arouse in the average American schoolboy the emotions the German child has instilled into him with the "Wacht am Rhine". Our history, however, though it aims at an objective statement of facts and a fair interpretation of information, does tend to twist and color the American pattern so that its past actions are beautified and justified, as, for example the various conflicting accounts of the treatment of the Indians and the Pocahontas story.

**Experimentation and Reform**

As the American exchange teacher thinks over these
characteristics of the German system of education, he will no doubt strongly disagree with several of the traditional practices. He may wonder whether Germany has tried any other methods and if so, why more changes were not made. He should be familiar with the reform of 1806. Here he can see clearly how a change in the aims and methods of education can alter the outlook of a people. Here also is a precedent which should be of special interest to America, which at present is trying to bring forth a Germany of new hopes and ideals by altering its system of education.

The Practical and Independent Individual

Prussia had been defeated by Napoleon at Jena in 1806. The Prussians made up their minds that they would in some way prepare themselves so that they would never again experience such a humiliating defeat. Fichte recommended that a change in the system of education, basing the new form on Pestalozzian methods, should help to bring about a stronger, better generation of leaders. Fichte suggested that a group of young teachers be sent to study under Pestalozzi, then already known as a liberal educator fired with the idea of helping the lower classes to improve their way of living. Pestalozzi's enthusiasm was contagious, and these teachers
went about developing his methods in their schools—helping the children to understand what they were studying, to learn about the life around them, to use their own minds and to learn what would have practical value for them in daily life. These methods were quite a contrast to the usual ones practiced elsewhere—the memorization without understanding and the verbalization of content with little or no meaning for life.

This new method of teaching was successful enough to warrant the establishment of several teaching seminaries or normal schools at which teachers were prepared to use these techniques. It was these teachers that Horace Mann was so enthusiastic about when he visited Prussia in 1843; indeed he decided that Pestalozzi's ideas could very successfully be put to use in American schools.

In Prussia, the Volkschule greatly improved and the generation taught by these new methods tended to do independent thinking and challenging of contemporary conditions. Thus the people eventually stirred up to the liberal Revolution of 1848. Unfortunately Frederick William IV's army finally managed to put down the Revolution. Furthermore to prevent any more similar uprisings he told them that they and they alone were to blame for all the misery which the Revolution had
brought upon Prussia. Therefore he decided to remake the normal schools, reducing everything previously taught as theory of education, didactics, anthropology, or psychology to simple instruction in school knowledge, and also reducing "Christian Knowledge" to "Instruction in the Catechism" based on a carefully worked out summary stating word for word what the teacher was to teach her pupils. Frederick William based his change on the theory that the man who thinks too much is dangerous, thus establishing a system whereby neither the teacher nor the student was required or even allowed to think for himself, or if he did, he was not to express it openly. This early attempt at reform was effective in that it produced young people who challenged and tried to change conditions which subjugated a large part of the population to a position of serfdom. Due to the repressive attitude of Frederick William IV, however, the reforms in Prussian education were short lived.

The Technical Knowledge and Modern Language System

During the latter part of the nineteenth century Germany again felt the effects of a School Reform Movement. It had been initiated in theory by several university professors, among them Paulsen and Rein, and had been directed into legislative channels at the
instigation of Emperor William II. Many Germans felt that the forcing of a study of the classics and the ancient world on all pupils was intellectual tyranny. Only those who had a special bent in that direction should devote themselves to these studies. On the other hand, it was important that all pupils be made to feel intellectually at home in their own country and among their own people. Thus they were to know the history of their mother tongue, be familiar with the great epochs of their national development and be well acquainted with the language and literature of those countries which had had a great influence on their nation's history. Actually a knowledge of German, English and French is far more important to the average German student than Latin or Greek. Several educators also realized the rapidly growing importance of technical knowledge. These three new emphases in education, science, modern languages and a study of their own nation formed the basis of the Realschulen.

The advocates of these schools claimed that allegemeine Bildung or general culture was not necessarily attained just through the classics. The Gymnasium on the other hand insisted upon a thorough and extensive study of Latin and Greek for college preparation. With the abolishment of the university entrance exams in 1834
the leaving examination\(^1\) of the Gymnasium was the only gateway to the university. Thus for a long time the graduates of the Realschulen found the entrance to most social and professional privileges closed to them. The only privilege they shared with the graduates of the Gymnasium was the reduction of army service from the usual three years to just one year.

This conflict between the classical and the modern emphasis in education was heatedly debated. It finds somewhat of an American parallel in the arguments between the advocates of the Latin Grammar School and those of the Academy. Finally Kaiser William II met in an educational conference to discuss the question at issue. He gave his support to the new methods and ideals. He opposed the traditionalism of the Gymnasium with the statement that it was the duty of German schools to educate national young Germans and not Greeks and Romans. (59, p.188) He stressed the importance of preparing youth for practical pursuits and national defence and making Germany the central point about which all their

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\(^1\) Every student who wished to graduate from the Gymnasium and who planned to continue his education at the university took a comprehensive examination in all school subjects at the end of his last school year. A certificate of success enabled him to matriculate at any university. The examination is known as the Abitur in Germany and as the Matura in Austria.
interests and endeavors turned. This point of view gradually brought about the abolition of the Latin essay in the final examination of the Gymnasium. French was introduced into the schools before Latin and increasing attention was given to German history and literature. Finally, schools without Greek, the Realschulen, and schools without either Latin or Greek, the Oberrealschulen, were admitted to the same standing with the Gymnasia.

The Learning by Doing Method. (The Arbeitsschule)

Thus Germany in the early 1900's had caught the spirit of change and reform. The advocates of the Realschulen did much to change the content of the curriculum. Dr. George Kerschensteiner aimed at altering the methods of teaching. He felt that the practical experimental spirit of modern times rejected the dogmatic spirit of the lower schools. He wished to bring about learning by doing. He therefore embodied his ideals in the Arbeitsschule or Activity school. This experimental school should be of special interest to the American Exchange Teacher because it almost parallels the beginnings of the Activity School in the United States under the leadership of John Dewey. Time and again it seems as though in many parts of the world
cultures which are at the same levels seem to feel a need for a certain type of change and come to the same conclusions as to the best way of meeting it.

**General Pre-War Conditions**

Germany at this time was rapidly becoming industrialized and with this industrialization a new middle class was created which came to regard the institutions of higher education as a means to the attainment of social and economic advantage. Many attended the universities, with the result that the annual output of young men highly equipped with all the knowledge which books can teach was far greater than the number of vacant places within the sphere of the empire which they would be competent to fill. Germany was faced with the problem of the unemployed educated. Germany is a nation in which a man is judged by the position he holds rather than by his personality, and where to descend one or two rungs of the social ladder to obtain a position would mean a lowering of self esteem and a loss of caste with his former fellows. Rather than do this, many preferred to drift about and become a burden on parents and friends. Others stepped down to lower positions, but, misplaced and dissatisfied, became an intellectual
"proletariat" which furnished the Socialist party with editors, agitators and party managers. This growing unrest, together with the intense patriotism and nationalism taught in the schools was the breeding ground of military ideas and war feeling, a feeling of the need for national self preservation and an ever ready defiant assertion of German power.

The exchange teacher should look upon Germany as more than just a militaristic nation. Rather he should try to get at some of the basic reasons behind her wars, because only as the underlying causes are understood can the results be prevented. As these causes are studied it becomes strikingly apparent what a major role education plays in shaping the life of the individual and the destiny of a nation.
CHAPTER III

THE PERIOD OF THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC (1919-1933) -- AN ATTEMPT AT DEMOCRACY

A knowledge and an analysis of the general conditions and educational practices during the Weimar Republic should prove both useful and interesting to the American exchange teacher because it will serve to answer at least in part four basic questions which he can hardly help but ask. First: What kind of an educational system brought forth the generation that believed in and supported Hitler? Second: Were democratic practices actually used in the schools of the Weimar Republic? Third: Why were these democratic practices so short lived? Fourth: What type of an educational background do the American exchange teacher's fellow teachers in Germany have? The answers to the second and third questions are especially important because the United States is at present trying to permeate the German way of life with democracy and an understanding of the reasons for former failure should help the American Government to avoid many past mistakes. The answer to the fourth question should also be of interest. Some of the American exchange teacher's fellow teachers in Germany will have been students during the
Weimar Republic; others may have taught during that period. It is hard for all but the rather open-minded teachers to alter their methods of instruction from the ways they were taught. Even if they change, some underlying patterns and streaks of thought are still the same. It is difficult to change a philosophy of life or teaching just because the government has changed, and if it changes three times in a lifetime most people will prefer to stick to and practice their own way with a slight surface adaptation to suit the authorities so that they can keep their jobs.

These four general questions serve to show the importance of this chapter. They bring out several more specific questions:

1. What was the general post World War I atmosphere in Germany?

2. What changes were made in the administration, organization, teacher training system and learning situation of the schools?

3. What was the Youth Movement?

Setting

In order to understand the educational changes and general educational outlook during the Weimar period
it is important to catch something of the general atmosphere during the post-World War I years. The effects of war and starvation left the German with a picture of general misery, foreign oppression, national disintegration and decay. The present for many was too awful to face; therefore they lived either in the shades of the past or looked hopefully toward the unborn forms of the future. Of those looking to the past for a solution to their problems, Oswald Spengler well presents the general atmosphere of resentment and despair in his book Untergang des Abendlandes, or Doom of the Occident. (53) His thesis was that each individual culture completes its own circle of life separately from infancy to manhood, senility and utter extinction. He saw a precedent for the Occident in the history of Greece and Rome and felt that the only hope of the future lies in a new Caesar or a generation of Caesars able to weld all the forces of civilization into one mighty mechanism which will keep automatically in motion until it wears out. It is the doom of every civilization to watch itself die. This idea did not contribute much to the health of the German way of thinking, but it certainly prepared the ground for a Hitler, a type of Messiah who would once more lead Germany into a position of glorious leadership.
The traditional German aim at leadership was intensified by their feeling that they were being morally boycotted by the rest of the world, with war hatred merely replaced by indifference to their efforts at reconstruction. They felt keenly the tariff barriers, established by the very countries to which they owed reparations. Inflation and the stabilization of the currency meant the liquidation of savings for the middle class and bankruptcy for many industrial concerns with the chain reaction of mass unemployment. After World War II the United States did a great deal to ease at least part of this same type of tension and depression by the interest they have shown in the reconstruction of Germany and in the teacher and student exchange program whereby goodwill is fostered.

The Germany of post World War I days, however, was not entirely overcast with gloom and despair. The German virtues of a love of work, a will to succeed and an interest in the affairs of the spirit gave force to their attempt at national recovery. They saw in education a solution to their problems, because here was a way not only to improve themselves and raise their social prestige, earning power, and general understanding, but also a method of shaping the type of a future generation they desired. The era is thus marked by an
almost feverish thirst for learning in which no priva-
tions or hardships, no unheated rooms, no lack of light, 
no empty stomachs, no threadbare clothes could dampen 
the enthusiasm with which these youths plunged into 
intellectual pursuits—many to study the technical and 
exact or practical sciences, although some also studied 
the humanities. It is important that the exchange 
teacher realize this overwhelming respect for learning 
because these students of the 1920's are the parents 
and teachers of today.

Changes Proposed

The First World War and the Revolution in Germany 
which ended it gave the Germans an opportunity to make 
a new start in education. Their first step was to 
analyze the traditional school system to discover some 
of its strengths and weaknesses. In accordance with 
the ideals of democracy, newly acquired by the Germans, 
in which those who are affected by a given set of 
practices are to have a voice in setting up the policies, 
educators sought suggestions for improvement from 
teachers, parents and pupils. Then, in the form of the 
constitution and other school plans they formulated 
theories as to new ideals and methods at which they 
could aim. They put these concepts to practice in a
large number of experimental schools. Gradually many of these theories were applied in the regular schools. This is in keeping with the general practice of gradually accepting ideas which a few years before would have been regarded as radically progressive.

Administration

Before the days of the Weimar Republic each of the twenty six federal states in the German Empire had its own school system and laws just as is the case in the states of the United States. The only influence on education exercised by the Reich of 1871 was indirect. It was fairly powerful in establishing a uniformity of standards through its classification of higher institutions with respect to their facilities for educating persons who might enter the military service. The Weimar constitution on the other hand made definite provisions for education. These provisions, however, were general principles and standards which could be used as guides and adapted to the individual locality.

Parents

Formerly the only function of parents as far as the school was concerned was to see to it that the children came to school regularly. After the establishment
of the Weimar Republic many schools started a parents' council, known as an Elternhaus or Elternbeirat. These groups met with the principal and teachers and presented the views of parents upon such matters as school management and educational needs in general. The members of this council were elected on the basis of one parent for every fifty children in the school. This select representation is rather different from the American concept of a Parent Teacher Association meeting in which all parents are free to participate.

**Students**

Many of the leading educators felt that if the German people were to rule their own country, it was necessary that the children learn to rule themselves in their own schools. Practical politics on a small scale should be useful in later life. This idea of Student Self-Government was not wholly new, but the change in governments brought about by war and revolution gave an opportunity for budding ideas to blossom forth. In some schools a "speaker"—probably comparable to the American class president—was elected by each class every half year. He, together with the other officers of the class, constituted the class committee who, together with the faculty advisor, met at least
once a month to discuss matters of interest to the class in particular or to the school in general.

This training apparently was effective because the 1927 elections and referendums called out voters in large numbers. They were always remarkably quiet and orderly. Usually the percentage turnout far surpassed that of the United States, a traditionally democratic country. (13, p.100) Perhaps this can be explained by the novelty of a newly won privilege.

Another admirable application of the basic concepts of democracy was the atmosphere of the voting regarding the proposed sequestration of the estates for all the former royal and princely dynasties in June of 1926. Though a heated campaign had preceded it, the voting day itself led to no serious disturbances anywhere. The results were accepted with calm submission to the wish of the voting majority. Americans have often pointed proudly to this same attitude on the part of their people in the American presidential elections.

Organization

In order to understand some of the suggestions for the re-organization of the basic school system some of the practices prior to 1920 must be pointed out.

German schools had the rather inefficient and
expensive practice of establishing a new school for every new course of study. They did not put classical and scientific courses in the same institution nor allow pupils to elect subjects in either course. Thus there existed the Gymnasium, the Realgymnasium, and the Oberrealschule. This practice would seem rather strange to the American exchange teacher whose home high school probably offers languages, both ancient and modern, mathematics and science, and business and trade classes all under one roof, with many students taking a course in each of these varied fields.

Most German schools were tuition schools because the German government, like most other European governments, did not feel able to support a costly educational system entirely from public funds. Therefore, instead of taxing all the people for the entire cost of the secondary schools which were used by only a fraction of the population, they required a tuition fee, which is regarded as a form of tax to be paid only by those directly benefited. If a child were superior in ability but unable to pay the fee, he was to receive financial aid in the form of a scholarship. The German government felt justified in imposing this financial barrier on all but the most capable because it helped to cut down the free flow of children into the secondary
schools. This in turn lowered the number of well-educated people seeking the limited amount of work requiring their specialized training.

The American exchange teacher will do well to remember that in the United States, too, many pupils are held back in the schools and off the labor market. Thus in America everyone is educated and then held back or jobs are created for him. In Germany an attempt is made to adjust supply and demand. Of course in America there is an entirely different attitude toward non-white collar work, and the average college graduate is not ashamed to tackle a menial job as long as the financial compensation makes up for the lowered dignity.

Another characteristic of German school organization was that there were two distinct types of schools. The one was a school for the masses who attended eight years of the Volksschule and possibly went on to some form of part time trade or vocational school. The other was for the elite, who attended the Vorschule, or private preparatory school and then entered the Gymnasium or Realschule from which they proceeded to the university. A transfer from one type to the other was almost unheard of until the period of the Weimar Republic. This again is rather hard for the American exchange teacher to understand since he comes from a country with but one basic
school system, even though it be of various forms, such as the different plans for elementary school, junior high school and senior high school or the simpler elementary school and high school.

Another traditional practice of the German schools is that of making a child, or at least his parents and teachers, decide rather definitely when he is ten which route he intends to follow in his further education. If the parents are not rather wealthy and the child is not superior enough to obtain a scholarship, the only alternative in the form of a non-tuition schooling available to him is the four upper grades of the Volksschule. The decision prior to 1920 was especially hard because once the pupil had entered the upper Volksschule he could not transfer to another school without starting from the very beginning of the secondary school.

The two-track system definitely did not fulfill the requirements of democracy. Therefore three suggestions were made: The abolishment of the Vorschule and the establishment of the Einheitsschule and the Aufbauschule.

The government never had really approved of private schools, except for girls, because they preferred to keep control of the education of the manhood of the nation. The Vorschulen were abolished, and all
children were required to attend the Grundschule for four years. In this way it was hoped that children from all types of backgrounds would mingle and come to appreciate rather than look down upon one another. The law was never carried out because there were not enough Grundschulen. This case has somewhat of a parallel in the United States. Though many disapprove of the parochial schools, our public schools could not possibly accommodate all the parochial school pupils should some law suddenly close down these schools.

In the establishment of the Einheitschule, many teachers hoped to see a unified school system in which pupils could move either horizontally or vertically from one school to another.

The Aufbauschule was an attempt on the part of educators to solve the problem of the latently intelligent pupil who at ten did not show much promise due to slow development. Thus he made the decision to remain in the Volkschule. Yet in early adolescence he began to show superior ability. For these gifted students of the Volksschule, the Aufbauschule was established. Pupils could enter here after their seventh school year, taking a course corresponding in general standards to that of the German Oberschule, that is, slightly below the Gymnasium.
Many of the new theories in education were tried out on a small scale in the experimental schools. Before the war experimentation in education was fairly much limited to pedagogy and the materials and methods of instruction, with only a little attention to the general school atmosphere. After the war, however, educators felt that the school was an institution which could reshape society and thus regarded the whole of social life as their domain. This concept gave rise to experimentation with the Gemeinschaftsschulen or community schools which placed a social education above every other goal, blotted out subject lines, ignored district boundaries, tore down time schedules, made humanitarianism the core of religious teaching, and, in its extreme forms allowed the child to choose his own teacher and direct his own work or study. The change from repression to uncontrolled freedom was too sudden, and the immediate result was chaos. Gradually the balance was restored, many of the new ideas being retained and even being adopted by the schools in general. Among these adopted concepts was that of emphasizing the social development of a child rather than putting the entire emphasis upon subject matter as had been done before. So many new ideas were presented that the very frequency of the challenge to argument blunted general opposition and
many reforms crept into common practice almost unnoticed by the general public. Thus the mass of schools moved steadily but quietly in the same direction as the experimental schools.

Teacher Training

The government realized that all school reforms stand or fall with the teacher and therefore provided for their careful selection and preparation. This was especially important because once the teacher starts teaching his own class he can do with it almost anything he wants to, since school supervision in Germany deals with administrative detail rather than with teacher guidance. This attitude toward a teacher's independence of action still holds in Germany and should be of particular interest to the American exchange teacher, who may find in this practice an explanation for the reluctance that others may have in "interfering" with a teacher's methods. Basically, this theory holds to some extent in the United States, but American pupils in general will not put up with just anything and are rather generous with their criticisms. American teachers in general must satisfy their public; otherwise their contracts are not renewed by the school board.

The main recommendation made was that the training
of elementary school teachers be improved by founding it on a secondary and university education rather than on a mere completion of the Volkschule and normal school as it had been. In this way the teachers destined for the two types of schools would no longer live in two different worlds but would meet on common ground for at least a part of their training period and work together on the problems of a united profession.

**Learning Situation**

The 1920's saw a gradual change in the entire atmosphere and physical surroundings of the classroom. In place of the drabness, the rows of desks and white-washed windows, emerged colorful walls, work tables, circles of chairs and windows that pupils could see through. The gate and high wall surrounding the school reminding pupils and parents alike that an official permit was required for the former to leave, the latter to enter, remained, not as a warning but as a memory.

**Methods**

The schools of Germany had been accused of teaching mechanically and striving for an encyclopedic knowledge on the part of pupils. That is, pupils were expected to be able to rattle off a list of dates and
events or books and their authors. An attempt was made
to alter the methods of teaching. Spontaneous discussion
between pupil and teacher was to be encouraged in prefer-
ence to the former rather dogmatic question and answer
method. Emphasis was to be put on the cultural value
and application of material learned. Thus in math-
ematics a study of the circle might bring in the side-
light of the value of the wheel as against a rectangular
piece of wood in speed and uniformity of movement.
Whenever possible these applications were to be taken
from the usual surroundings of pupils rather than from
artificial settings. Throughout, the teacher was to
stress the intellectual independence of the pupils.

The traditional German teacher has also been
accused of teaching as though the mind were divided
into compartments, and in addition each study pulled
in a different direction. Thus history was taught
separately from geography, the one claiming natural
cycles as determining the destiny of mankind, the other
stating that natural surroundings and resources deter-
mined his success or failure. The standard Richtlinien
issued by Prussia suggested that subjects be correlated
as much as possible.

Curriculum

Curricular offerings were also altered. The trend
toward allowing electives increased. The teaching of history presented a problem. The German seeks for justification in his history and after World War I many teachers felt that if they could say nothing against the new form of government, neither would they say anything for it. Thus it was hard to achieve the aim of the reformed school. This was that humanity, personality and sound nationality be taught by trying to keep the young Germans' love of country alive, but not blinding them to their faults nor concealing the merits of other countries. It is the teaching of history, in which all things German were glorified, and all else denounced or ignored by the conservative nationalistic teacher, that the groundwork was laid for the blind acceptance and following of Hitler's promises of greatness for Germany.

Another change in curricular offerings took place in the physical education program. Physical training in the old schools was a matter of drill and discipline in which ten minutes a day were spent on the school courtyard in regular school clothing doing calisthenics. With no showers or gym suits the pupils returned to their classes hot and uncomfortable. But the Kaiser with his introduction of various forms of sports and team games had aroused the enthusiasm of youth for physical education. The schools of the Weimar Republic aimed at
developing social spirit, cooperative effort and health in their physical education activities. But here again the nationalistic teacher saw it instead as the development of the strong soldier. There is a saying that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton, implying that the teamwork and physical fitness developed in English boys at school aided them as soldiers. The basic truth of this statement could well be applied also to German youth who were schoolboys during the Weimar Republic but who later fought in Hitler's battles.

The Youth Movement

The love of sports and outdoor life extended beyond the physical training program of the schools in the form of the Youth Movement. It had started before World War I but increased tremendously in size after the war. It formed an especially important group because Hitler later won a large part of these youths over to his ideals, and with the youth of the nation at his service, he became powerful indeed.

The germ of the youth movement started in the free fellowship and appreciation of natural beauty of a group of poor boys who called themselves the Wandervögel and who insisted on being led by youths rather than adults.
They hoped that the movement would grow to include all levels and that it would unite the young people of the nation in common pleasures and purposes which were above caste. They based their rituals on the ancient springs of German culture, the Teutonic tribal traits and peasant customs. They sought their "nests" or club houses in shelters which grew out of their settings and which played a part in local history--a former cloister, a lonely farmhouse, a proud castle. They insisted on high standards of conduct, opposing the use of alcoholic drinks and often even of tobacco. Many German teachers have pointed out that this group did wonders in restoring the moral caliber of German youth, which only recently had spent their university days in drinking beer and fighting duels, many even seeking a slash upon the cheek as a mark of social prestige. (1, p.90)

The teachers realized the drawing power of the Wanderlust and took advantage of the German school custom of a week's holiday during early spring and fall when outdoor life is most alluring to take their pupils for a stay in the country. They traveled third class, brought sandwiches from home and stayed at the Schullandheim or country school home at an average cost of about sixty cents a day. If pupils could not afford
this they were helped out by class funds or by the parents' associations. It proved to be a good experience in citizenship for them because they came to realize the need of adjusting to their new neighbors; for example, city children were made to realize how thoughtless it was to run across newly planted fields. Other teachers took their pupils on extended journeys, thus starting the idea of the Jugendherberge or a chain of inns especially for classes taking such trips. These hostels for youth are somewhat like the American Automobile Association, the difference in the meaning of these two symbols being a difference between travel and recreation in Germany and in the United States. The American exchange teacher will no doubt have several opportunities to take part in these excursions and to catch something of the romantic atmosphere of the rituals, the singing and the overall appreciation of natural beauty.

This chapter has attempted to show what changes arose out of the opportunity for a new start brought about by World War I and the Revolution in Germany and to point out how some of these, though starting democratically, were twisted or directed to form the groundwork and support of a totalitarian form of government—the Nazi regime.
CHAPTER IV

THE NAZI PERIOD--1933-1945

The Allied Powers wish to re-educate Germany. What were the aims of the Nazi system of education which the Allies hope to eradicate and replace? What did the German teachers of the Nazi period teach? What provisions were made for the training of future leaders and teachers to perpetuate the "glorious" Third Reich? How was the powerful Nazi system of education organized? Did the educational program extend beyond the schools? These questions serve to focus attention on some of the important aspects of the Nazi system of education--its aims, curriculum, teachers, training program, school types and the Hitler Youth Movement. But before these problems can be dealt with, another basic question arises: How did the Nazi's come to power?

Setting

The inflation following World War I wiped out the savings of most of the middle class. The stabilization of the currency in 1924 made money scarce and interest rates high. The few plants that were still working were being put to use for the benefit of a foreign nation. Many factories had been "turned into barracks
for regiments of savages from Northern Africa and labor battalions from Asia." (58, p. 103) Thus the German teenager of the 1920's did not find much use in learning a trade. Neither could he expect to succeed his father in the old shop that had belonged to the family for years, for that too was gone as a result of the war. The young German felt cheated of his birthright. Those who had sought a solution to the unemployment problem in acquiring a higher education, which during the Weimar Republic was open to all, found that masses of others had tried a similar solution, resulting in thousands of unemployed university graduates.

The people of Germany became restive and were ready to support any change which promised to restore their old status. They wanted a return to the ordered security of German life before the war. They sought a scape goat for their misery. They thought they could see a solution to their problem in the program of the Nazi party with Hitler at its head.

National Socialism grew slowly at first. But it knew how to win favor with many. It appealed to the conservatives through its Prussian spirit, its idea of a special training for the elite, and its bitter opposition to Marxism. It avoided complete alienation from religious groups through the adoption of positive
Christianity. It won over the agrarian and industrial worker by its program of planned economy which meant comparative security. Above all, in its promises of greatness for Germany it appealed to adventurers, visionaries and youthful aspirations. In an attempt to raise the morale of the defeated Germans, the downfall of Germany was "explained" as not being the result of an unsuccessful war waged by incompetent generals, but rather as being brought about by the enemy in the rear, the Jews. (58, p.107) Thus Hitler used the Jews as his scapegoat. In an effort to keep German feelings united he diverted the workers' hatred of German capitalism into a hatred of "foreign" capitalism and "international Jewish bankers". (35, p.513)

Hitler knew that the Germans wanted action. Shortly after his rise to power he had succeeded in reducing the number of unemployed by eighty per cent. In doing this he exercised one of his basic principles--the end justifies the means. Those recently unemployed now found themselves engaged in the gigantic rearmament business or in the building of roads. Younger members of society were kept busy in labor camps. Hundreds of thousands of others (58,p.117) were pushed into jobs left vacant by the Jews. Wage earners were obliged to surrender more than twenty percent of their income to
pay for the relief of their less fortunate fellows. The German worker was not allowed to organize or strike. In order to make up somewhat for these restrictions, every worker was to receive two weeks holiday with pay.

In order to guarantee its strength, the Nazi government decreed in 1941 that the German government was to be a one-party system. In an effort to establish the continuity of the Nazi form of government, the National Socialists tried to found their ideas in the life roots of the people—in the schools, the family, the place of work. Thus Nazism became a way of life. It established itself on the principles of the absolute power of those in authority, of the ends justifying the means, and of might being right.

Aims in Education

The Nazis thought of education as including all media of information and culture and used it as a primary means of controlling the nation. They made a deliberate effort to dominate and mold the minds of growing youth in accordance with a set pattern. This pattern was an outgrowth of the political activity of the movement rather than a result of pedagogical theory. Nevertheless, Nazi education was very effective. An account of their ideal method of education follows:
Begin with the child when he is three years old. As soon as he begins to think he gets a little flag put in his hand. Then follows the school, the Hitler Youth and military training. We do not let him go; and when adolescence is past, then comes the Arbeiterfront which takes him again and does not let him go till he dies, whether he likes it or not. (35, p. 566)

The schools were to develop the particular strengths and capacities of the individual so that he might better serve the nation. He was to put loyalty to the Fuhrer even above loyalty to his family and his religion. The model constantly placed before the German child was the soldierly type of man who devoted body and soul to Germany's national resurgence. This model was quite different from the former intellectual type. The transition in heroes was fairly easy because of the disastrous number of unemployed university graduates after World War I.

The Nazis hoped to change some of the traditional emphases in education. Actually this had already been started during the period of the Weimar Republic, but they completely disregarded the improvements of this era of German history. They felt that more attention should be given to physical development and character training. Their definition of character training would probably differ from that of the American. Whereas the American would try to develop self discipline or
self control and truthfulness, the Nazi would emphasize a stern will and endurance which put the good of the nation above his own welfare. Above all, the German should be taught the superiority of his nation and his race, and the losses involved in intermixture of the races. This emphasis took the form of the "blood and soil" theory, which permeated the entire curriculum.

**Curriculum**

A study of German textbooks by the New York Times (37, p.10) gives a short overview of the various aspects of the Nazi curriculum. The course of study was compulsory. Electives were abolished.

Biology was slanted to emphasize *Rassenkunde* or race studies, with constant stress being put on preserving the purity of the Aryan race through non-intermixture of races in marriage. The Aryan was described as intellectually and physically far superior to any other race. This concept of Aryan superiority is well brought out in chapters one through six of the Nazi Primer, a textbook on race and German history which was studied by every child in Nazi Germany. (4)

Physics and chemistry were focused on practical problems which would better explain to the children their tasks in air-raid protection or fire-protection.
Special emphasis in physics and chemistry was also given to ersatz materials, especially those which were essential for the winning of the war. Chemistry emphasized the achievement of Nordic German scientists.

Arithmetic problems also aimed to implant the concept of German success. Thus addition and subtraction were put to practical application in the form "One German soldier plus one German soldier equals two German soldiers". "Four English planes minus three shot down by the Luftwaffe leaves one English plane." (56, p. 109)

There were various theories on the teaching of art. Rosenberg regarded art as a religion and a means for conquering the world. Thus a portrait of Rembrandt, a fugue of Bach, a Gothic cathedral are all expressions of a racial soul and serve to spread its ideals to the rest of the world. Goebbels on the other hand stated that art and music were useless if they were not understood by the common people. He therefore regarded art as a synonym of beauty and honor. (27, p. 71, 72)

Music, especially in the lower schools, was used as an emotional drug for German youngsters. Many patriotic songs were sung on trips to parks and hospitals in an effort to cheer up the population on the home front.

Religion was retained in the curriculum, but there
seems to have been an official fear of instruction in it. Prayers dealt largely with the Fuehrer. In 1933 the government decreed the closing of non-sectarian schools and required all children in the future to attend denominational schools. This apparently religious move had an ulterior motive. The Nazis felt that the non-sectarian schools were Marxist inspired and conducive to irreverence for authority. Somewhat later, Catholic and Protestant private schools were forbidden. Thereafter all schools were controlled solely by the national government.

Instruction in geography concentrated on military and strategical problems, such as lines of communication on land and on the sea, the geographical causes of Germany's need to fight on more than one front. The children were also trained, through excursions into the countryside, to draw simple military maps.

The purpose of history was to prove the validity of fascist principles. The course ignored the study of the government structures of other countries and concentrated on German military history and the justice of the German cause. History books stated that the history of the German people is the story of innumerable wars in defence of its territory. They claimed that what cultural and spiritual unity there was in Europe
was the result of German effort. (4, p.127) They taught that Germany consisted of three areas, the lands of the German Reich, the German population territories and the German language and cultural influence areas. One text listed the lands of the German Reich robbed from it by the dictate of Versailles. (4, p.187) It stated that Germany was late in the rush for colonies. Yet it pointed out that it is essential that people win new territory when work and feeding capacity is reached, otherwise the whole standard of living is lowered.

Education for girls was to take the form of education for the future mother. The role of women in the community in time of war was also stressed.

In general the Nazis advocated that courses be reduced to their minimum essentials and that increased attention be given to vocational training, physical training and the molding of the Nazi spirit. The physical training program was permeated by the military ideal, the ideal of strength and fitness. To further assure a healthy population it was compulsory for all city children to spend a year in the country under the leadership of farmers and peasants. Here they were also indoctrinated in Nazi ideology. This year was known as the Landjahr.
Every person in his or her late teens had to spend six months in a labor camp. Here they lived in army barracks and were under strict military discipline. People of wealthy parentage worked alongside peasant boys and sons of laborers. This was a situation which was unthinkable in pre-Nazi days having been approached only in theory and occasional practice in the Grundschule law of the Weimar Republic under which all children were to spend their first four school years in the same type of school. This allowed democratic mingling rather than a split of the Vorschulen for the wealthy and the Volksschulen for the poor and middle classes.

Administration—the State

Until 1934, Germany had never had a national ministry of education. Control was left to the various state ministries of church affairs and education, or the department of education in state ministries of the interior. In 1934 however, Bernhard Rust, then minister of Prussian education acquired the title and powers of Reichsminister of Education. The control of education for the entire Reich or German nation was in this way centralized in the ministry at Berlin. Rust’s guiding principles were standardization, coordination and authoritarianism. He aimed at standardizing the type
of instruction, the curriculum, the examinations, the teaching salaries and the building program. He wanted the program of intellectual training to be the same for youth from the smallest hamlet to the largest metropolis, for he felt this was a method of achieving unity in Germany. The American exchange teacher with his background in which social studies especially are adapted to the needs and attitudes of the locality, will realize the fallacy of this German aim of unity achieved through forced uniformity.

The authoritarian principle was the basis of the strictly delegated powers. The state named itself as the only educational agency, the family and the church were to educate only by the authority delegated to them by the state. The Reich also definitely assigned and defined the powers and duties of the principal and teacher.

The Law of April 3, 1934 states:

The principal represents the school in all internal and external matters and is wholly responsible to the school administrative authorities for the smooth functioning of the whole school in the spirit of the National Socialist conception of state. The principal is the superior officer of the teachers. They obey his regulations. Any correspondence (including complaints against the rulings of the principal) goes through the hands of the principal to the higher school authorities. The principal alone is the deciding person in all matters of school administration and
cooperation of the teaching body. The principal may call staff meetings as often as he deems necessary—usually once a month—he makes the programs for these meetings and is required to indicate the topics at least two days in advance. The staff meetings shall serve to guarantee the smooth functioning of the school by discussions of common problems. Such meetings are regarded as advisory in function to the principal. The public is not invited. The principal is required to satisfy himself through classroom visits that the work of his teachers is satisfactory and according to regulations. The principal may commission the teachers with special tasks providing they lie within the scope of the official regulations. The principal has not the right to take disciplinary action against his teachers but must call in the higher authorities. Along with these rights and duties the principal is expected to set an example of loyalty and readiness to joyful sacrifice for his work with the teachers and pupils in accordance with the principles of the National Socialist Weltanschauung. (27, p. 77)

Even during the war the American who may have had a complaint against his principal could send it through some channels other than directly through the principal's hands. Although many final decisions are made by the principal in America, the responsibility rests also on the school board and the general voting public. American school faculty meetings are seldom closed to the public. The American principal usually visits a classroom only after complaints have been made against the teacher.

It is in the delegation of powers that the contrast between totalitarian and democratic forms of government become very definite.
The Teacher

The American exchange teacher may be told that under Hitler little control was exercised directly over the teacher. In a way, this is true. Nazi indoctrination was much more subtle than that. It based its teacher selection on Nazi party membership and activities. Tenure and advancement also depended on the teacher's support of the party. What the teacher could or could not teach in the classroom was in large part taken care of by the textbooks he was permitted to use. He was required to give the Hitler salute and to have his pupils return likewise at the beginning and end of each school day. Many of the older German teachers who had been brought up and educated previous to the Nazis and along the lines of liberalism, showed an ingrained reluctance and even inability to respond readily to these customs and theories.

The ideal Nazi teacher was a synthesis of the army officer and educator. He set the goals in the classroom. He firmly held leadership in his own hands. He was to have planned and systematic activity and train the will of his students. He was to receive the respect and strict obedience of his pupils. His authority over pupils both in and out of school was guaranteed and undue parental criticism was not tolerated. Thus though a Nazi parent
teacher organization existed, its purpose was to unify in an advisory way the educational activity of the school, the home and the state youth. It was probably more of an adult indoctrination program than a discussion group.

Most teachers also belonged to the National Socialist Teachers' Bund. This too was based on the principle of absolute authority. The heads of committees, or committee Fuehrers, were permitted to decide issues without taking a vote. Thus, usually, the mass of the teachers were merely there to fill seats; their own ideas, had they opposed or adapted those of Nazism, would have been rejected.

The Nazi School System

The schools of pre-Nazi Germany were taken over by the National Socialist State, which gave definite stipulations as to what was to be taught. But the Nazis felt that they had to do more than train a generation of indoctrinated followers. They needed leaders who in the future would perpetuate the Nazi way. Therefore they selected boys and girls who to them seemed to be the elite of the nation and established special schools for their training. These schools were the Nazi Hauptschulen, the Adolf Hitler schools, the Napole schools and the Ordensburgen.
The Nazi Hauptschule

The Nazi Hauptschule was established to provide foremen and overseers for German business, industry, farming and educators trained in Nazi techniques. Its educational level was equivalent to the four upper classes of the elementary schools. Its teachers were National Socialists. Outstanding students from the Hauptschule were selected to attend the party schools.

The Adolf Hitler Schools

These were established in 1937 in the form of ten schools on an estate in Bavaria. Three hundred boys at the age of twelve were selected each year from the whole Reich territory by members of the Nazi party. They were chosen on the basis of Aryan parentage, character, ability to lead and athletic skills. If they possessed these characteristics it did not matter if their grades were low. Neither did the financial standing of the family make any difference because while living at the school during the six-year training period the state took care of them. During the first year there was a thorough weeding-out process. If at any time a pupil did not seem to be what the Nazis wanted, he was dismissed. If, however, a pupil graduated successfully,
he was guaranteed a privileged career in the top levels of Nazi leadership. When he graduated he had three alternatives. First, he could enter the university and prepare for a professional career. Second, he could join the army. Third, he could enter the bureaucracy.

The whole training program centered about biology and a study of the German Volk. The race problem and the need for maintaining Aryan purity were constantly emphasized. Nazi Weltanschauung or the National Socialist attitude toward life and the world in general was taught by requiring pupils to understand and interpret contemporary events as stated by party publications and radio broadcasts. All pupils were required to learn two foreign languages of which one was to be Italian. The latter was made compulsory because Italy was the first non-German country to be taken over by the Nazis.

The instructional staff was also selected by the Nazi party. They were made up of trained teachers, Nazi youth leaders and Hitler Youth. The latter often had no academic training or teaching experience of any sort. In the early 1940's plans were made to establish special schools to train teachers for the Adolf Hitler schools after the war. These of course were not carried out.

The Napole Schools

Whereas the Adolf Hitler schools prepared a select
group of boys for all types of party and state careers, the National Political Institutes of Education or Napole schools focused their work more on the preparation of leaders for the Storm Troopers and the Elite Guards or for semi military positions in the compulsory labor service in which every German had to serve. There were thirty one of these institutes scattered all over the Reich. Many of them were transformed cadet schools or streamlined versions of the old Prussian military academies. Their purpose was to cultivate the soldierly spirit, a sense of courage, duty and simplicity. Their program centered about struggle and competition. The curriculum was made up largely of physical training supplemented by Nazi indoctrination. All institutes owned their own horses, automobiles, and motor cycles for training purposes. Students were required to take a full training in operating glider planes.

Since labor service was compulsory for all German girls, trained women were needed to manage these girl camps. Therefore three of the thirty-one Napole schools were for girls.

After an eight-year training program graduates could either enter the university or choose a career. Opportunities open to them included positions of leadership in the police, the labor service or in the armed
formations of the Nazi party.

**The Ordensburgen**

The graduate of the Adolf Hitler school or the Napole school had to serve his year of compulsory labor service and his two years of compulsory military service. If he then wished to continue in the Nazi program of leadership training he could apply for admission to the **Ordensburgen**. Before being admitted, however, he had to spend another period of about three years in practical activities in Nazi organizations, preferably the Hitler Youth. Here he had to show that he possessed the qualities which justified his acceptance into the inner ranks of the Nazi elite.

The historical background of the **Ordensburgen** is both interesting and significant. From the thirteenth to the fifteenth century the Order of the German Knights set out to conquer territory for Germany. Their method consisted of building a castle on the border of the area about to be invaded. Once they had conquered a section of land they encouraged German settlers to come and found villages and townships under the protection of the Order Castle. The Slav population was subjected and turned into a mass of serfs serving the military master race. Alfred Rosenberg, a high-ranking Nazi official,
stated that National Socialism was a continuation of the Order of German Knights. Apparently both had the common purpose of expansion by conquest.

There were four stages in the training given at the Order Castles. The student spent his training period at each of the four castles according to a predetermined scheme. The future leaders spent their first year mainly in ideological preparation which consisted largely of race biology and related "sciences". There was not much in the way of athletics the first year. The second year, on the other hand, specialized in athletics and physical training as for instance in mountain climbing, sharpshooting and parachute jumping. The third stage consisted of a year and a half of political training and physical education connected with mountain sports and military skills to be employed in mountain warfare. The last stage consisted of a year and a half of political training with special emphasis on the Eastern Question. This Eastern Question concerned the problem of German expansion to the East, the natural living space of the master race, which had a right to dominate the inferior breeds of the native Slav populations. To provide the ideal setting for this fourth phase of their education, their last castle of residence was in Marienburg in Eastern Germany.
The Hitler Youth

One of the factors that doomed the Weimar Republic was its inability to provide German youth with a substitute for the traditional attractions of militarism and the emotional appeal of the uniform. In 1926 when the Hitler Youth was founded, German youth were still free to choose their allegiance. Yet masses flocked to this newly formed organization which promised military discipline and subordination. The requirement for membership was that the youth be pure Aryan or have less than one fourth defilement in his blood.

There were three stages in the youth movement for the boys and two stages for the girls. At six years of age the boy became a Pimpf. The slogan of his manual was "clinch your teeth, boys, endure!" (35, p. 575) He was lightly clad and sometimes marched fifty miles a day. Before a flag dipped in the blood of a martyred Nazi he recited at his promotion to the Jungvolk this oath:

In the presence of this bloodflag which represents our Fuehrer, I swear to devote all my energies, all my strength to the savior of our country, Adolf Hitler. I am willing and ready to give up my life for him, so help me God. One People, one Nation, one Fuehrer. (65, p. 59)

At the age of ten a boy became a Jungvolk. Here he received training similar to what he had when he was a Pimpf, except that his physical and military exercises
were more strenuous. At fourteen, he became a member of the Hitler Jugend. Here he studied German culture, Nazi ideology, military geography, sciences, a foreign language, military tactics, flying, gliding, parachute-jumping, and dive-bombing. Each year was assigned a definite theme, as for example "Health is Power" and "Every Youth a Flyer." The Hitler Jugend had camps in which they spent a part of each year; they organized sports for boys throughout Germany; they sent thousands of boys yearly to foreign countries; and they brought many more thousand foreign boys to Germany every year.

At the age of ten girls could become members of the Jungmädchen. They took part in many forms of physical activity, wore uniforms and were taught the duties of women to the state especially as regarded motherhood. At fourteen they became members of the Bund Deutscher Mädel and were instructed further in their duties as mothers and housewives. Great stress was also placed on Nazi ideology.

In 1933 all other youth organizations including the German Boy Scouts and the Catholic and Protestant youth groups, were gradually dissolved. Then in 1939 membership in the Hitler Jugend was made compulsory for all boys and girls between the ages of ten and eighteen. The Hitler Jugend took a great deal of the
children's time away from home and school. But they were told to let school attendance, lessons and home activities take a secondary place. Scrap collections of paper, fat and metals, and physical fitness programs were to have precedence. If a pupil was absent repeatedly from Hitler Jugend activities, he was punished by fine or imprisonment.

An executive order of March 25, 1939 introduced two revolutionary principles into the status of German youth between ten and eighteen: First, the youth service duty (Jugenddienstpflicht) and, second, the youth service arrest (Jugenddienstarrest). This is the only case known in history in which a government imposed compulsory duty on children as young as ten years of age and punished them for noncompliance. The youth under arrest was kept in a building of the Ministry of Justice. For a minor misdemeanor he was locked up for a weekend in a solitary cell and fed only bread and water. He had to sleep on a wooden bed without the usual mattress and bedding. For longer periods of confinement the youth was allowed to use the light in his cell only to the extent to which darkness at night exceeded twelve hours. He was not allowed to receive visitors or write letters, although at times he was permitted to communicate with his parents.
This chapter had not brought in many American parallels, mainly because the contrast between Nazi authoritarianism and American democracy is so great. This chapter has tried to point out some of the methods which the Nazis used in their attempt to mold an entire nation according to their pattern and ideal. It is only through an acquaintance with these methods that the American exchange teacher can come to realize the tremendous role that education played in the Nazi system. It was a very effective system and it will take a good deal of re-education to eliminate a large part of its harmful effects on the German people.
CHAPTER V

GERMAN EDUCATION SINCE 1945

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. First, it will attempt to present the difficulties faced by the United States in determining a satisfactory solution to the problem of German re-education. Second, it will try to present the American exchange teacher with a clear and concise view of the present system of education in Germany, its organization, administration, curriculum and the methods and materials of teaching.

During the last half century the United States has fought two very costly wars with Germany. Therefore it is America's objective to prevent future German aggression. The Allies in 1945 could disarm Germany, but the job of continuing this disarmament far into the future is both expensive for the occupying powers and aggravating to the Germans, merely sowing hatred and a desire for revenge. Zink states that there are two possible long-range solutions to the prevention of future German aggression. (66, p.165) Morgenthau, Roosevelt's Secretary of the Treasury, advocated the complete removal of all forms of industry from Germany, thus making it a pastoral country, which could fight no wars. This would have ruined the German economy and
would have resulted in mass unemployment in Germany.
Zink's first possible solution is more extreme and severe
even than this. It suggested the complete extermination
of the German people by wholesale slaughter or deporta-
tion to other countries and the settling of people from
other nations in what is now Germany. This proposal has
a familiar ring to Hitler's treatment of the Jews, but
it is inhumanly ruthless and absolutely repulsive and
impossible to the American. The second method suggested
is to permeate Germany with a spirit of democracy and
an interest in other countries so that they do not want
to fight. The only way of doing this is through educa-
tion, an education which like that of the Nazis, uses
every form and media of communication and establishes
itself in the very roots of their way of life--in the
family, the school and the church. This is the solution
which America attempted.

The policy of the American Military Government
was based on the assumption that the reconstruction of
German education was the task of the Germans themselves,
acting under broad directives from the United States
Office of Military Government in Berlin. Democracy is
a way of life which in its very essence cannot be
imposed but only encouraged and imitated, until gradually
it becomes ingrained in the life of a people. The
policy of the American government with respect to Germany was expressed as the "observe, advise and assist" formula. The American occupation officials theoretically tried to encourage the giving of new life to the best of German culture rather than bringing in things American.

Setting

When the American Military Government occupied Germany in May of 1945 it was faced with the almost insurmountable problem of re-establishing normal conditions of life. Some of the larger cities had been almost completely bombed out, leaving inadequate housing, thousands of displaced persons, no city government and no transportation. Many people were on the verge of starvation. The basic needs of food and shelter had to be provided in some form before schools could be set up. In order to prevent any further teaching of the Nazi doctrine all schools were ordered closed until further notice.

The Educational and Religious Affairs Branch of the Office of Military Government for Germany was responsible for educational reconstruction and reform. It was faced with the problems of providing adequate buildings, textbooks and teachers and of bringing the schools back into operation. The first schools to be
opened in the Reich were those at Aachen on June 4, 1945.
Seven hundred pupils in the first four grades were ex­
pected to attend classes in ten reconditioned school­
houses. After careful screening, eighteen women, two
nuns, and two men were authorized to teach two approved
subjects only, reading and arithmetic.

Most of the other Volksschulen were reopened on
October 1, 1945. The pupil-teacher ratio was eighty­
four to one and even then half a million children were
not in school due to the fact that more than half of the
former teachers had been eliminated by the American
denazification program, in accordance with the principle
that "no indispensable Nazi existed". (55, p.104)

Screening Teachers--The Fragebogen

Every teacher who hoped to teach in the post-war
schools of Germany had to measure up to the requirement
for political purity as determined by the Fragebogen or
be dismissed from his job. The Fragebogen was an eight
page questionnaire which in a hundred and thirty-one
exhaustive questions turned the spotlight on the person's
interests and activities. It left nothing obscure. It
showed the organizations to which a person had belonged.
Membership in the Nazi party or any of its affiliated
organizations automatically dismissed a teacher from
his job. Yet membership in the Lehrerbund, a Nazi teachers' organization was compulsory under a directive issued by Hitler, with dismissal for those teachers who did not comply. It is hard to see how any teacher could have taught under both the Nazi and the American system under this two-way elimination. The Fragebogen also took into account a person's employment record, speeches, writings, sources of income, church affiliation, travel, and whether he had acquired property which had been seized from others for religious or racial reasons.

The answers were evaluated by anti-Nazis, displaced persons and United States Army personnel who had lived in Germany before the war. Then the Fragebogen, together with the action sheet, would be returned to the Education and Religious Affairs officer marked "dismissal," "discretionary dismissal," or "retention". After examining the sheet the education officer could either agree or disagree with the marking.

Each week a list of dismissed teachers was printed by the American Military Government in columns of the paper. When a name appeared there, the person was prohibited not only from following his profession, but lost retirement and pension rights. But these Germans exercised their ingenuity and found a flaw in the application of the Fragebogen. After they had been
dismissed as unfit to teach in the public schools, they started to give private lessons, sometimes teaching German to American soldiers, at other times instructing Germans in English. Many of these dismissed teachers were making twice as much instructing American soldiers as they would have received in the school system, and they were given meals and cigarettes in addition. It was not long, however, before the American Military Government found out about this rather clever evasion and took measures to close the gap. Thereafter all teachers were required to register and be approved by the American Military Government before giving private classes.

Teachers permitted to teach were warned to uphold three principles. First, they were to avoid inculcating any Nazi doctrine. Second, they were to put no emphasis on physical training from a military standpoint. Third, they were to refrain from all types of political influence upon their pupils.

Teacher Shortage

Several steps were taken to alleviate the teacher shortage crisis. First, the American Military Government accepted married women who had not been permitted to teach before in the schools. Second, teacher candidates
who had left school for war service before entering actual teacher training were accepted as teaching candidates after they had taken a three-month refresher course. Third, classes were run on shifts, usually with just two, but at times with as many as four shifts a day. The latter started with the first shift early in the morning and had the fourth shift at night. Fourth, many untrained people were permitted to teach. German teachers very much resented this measure because to them it meant a lowering in standards and self-esteem of the teaching force in general. They therefore repeatedly deny that there was anything like an emergency teaching certificate or untrained teacher who taught, even during the teacher shortage. However, the Hessian Ministry of Education reported in March of 1947 that thirty-three percent of the elementary school teachers were untrained. Fifth, many of the older teachers were brought back into teaching. Thus fourteen percent of the teachers in Hesse were over sixty years of age in 1947. (45, p.2) Sixth, forty-two teacher-training institutions had been reopened or created anew by mid 1946.

Textbooks

Even more acute than the teacher shortage was
the lack of the proper textbooks because the Nazis had burned all those used prior to 1935 and those published since 1935 were saturated with Nazi ideology. The United States attacked this problem almost a year before the war ended and decided that there were two possible solutions. One was to reprint texts used prior to the Nazi regime; the other was to write new ones.

After considerable search it was discovered that the library of Teachers College at Columbia University contained about twelve hundred volumes of textbooks used in pre-Hitler Germany. (56, p.109) Washington enlisted the aid of Dean William Russell and Dr. Thomas Alexander and others at the Teachers College in selecting and re-editing two hundred and twenty-seven books for ultimate adoption. An attempt was made to revise texts so as to strike out the material embodying extreme concepts of German nationalism, but time did not permit anything like a thorough revision. The next problem was to get these texts printed so that they could be used when the German schools were opened. American publishing facilities were so strained that there was little chance that the books could be published there. British presses were also badly behind in their work but there was some possibility for printing a large number of books if paper could be found.
however, most of the books were printed by German presses. The two hundred and twenty-seven selected texts were microfilmed in the United States and reduced to twenty-six reels. They were flown overseas in July, 1944, and kept in England until the end of the war. For the first authorized post-war classes, 45,000 copies of six readers and three arithmetics were printed in Aachen and Bonn. By 1950 the United States Government had printed approximately fourteen million German textbooks involving about six hundred titles.

Each American education officer was given the choice of either taking the above mentioned texts or of permitting the Germans to revise their own texts subject to the approval of American Military Government headquarters. Many of these officers felt that if textbooks were to be effective they had to grow out of the thinking of the people whose children they were to serve. Therefore they let the Germans take the initiative in rewriting their own texts. This gave the German teachers an opportunity to go over their materials to see what was wrong with them and make necessary changes. In this way they were also able to retain much of what they had had before and could work with familiar materials and use methods of instruction in which they had been trained. In their revision committees they
also learned some of the principles of cooperative action. The only criticism was that many of these revised texts were not of the best quality in content because the teachers who had prepared them were not scholars.

The Germans were required to turn in all their Nazi textbooks. Of those turned in all the history books and eighty per cent of the other German texts were ground to pulp and converted into writing pads for school use.

The American Military Government encountered resistance to the new books by many teachers. One teacher did not distribute the books to her class. She claimed to lecture out of the new books but said she was afraid to let the pupils have the book themselves because then they would not listen carefully. (52, p. 98)

Other teachers let the pupils have the books but supplemented them thoroughly with the German nationalistic viewpoint. One teacher dealt with the unit on East Prussia by telling her pupils that this is a German land which must come back to Germany because Germany needs more Lebensraum. She told them that many Germans were driven out of East Prussia and wanted to go home. She told them about the suffering of the Germans who were still in East Prussia. This
would all be well if it were not that this same feeling was behind Hitler's effort to regain Danzig and that this more was the spark that set off World War II.

**School Buildings**

Buildings for schoolrooms formed another immediate problem that had to be met. Not only had many former schools been completely or partly destroyed by bombing, but many of those in fairly good condition had been requisitioned for use by the Military Government or the army. Equipment, especially in the way of libraries and laboratories had been badly damaged. The immediate problem was solved by using in shifts those buildings which were available. Classes were held wherever facilities were available. Some elementary schools were conducted in air raid bunkers which, of course, had no windows. The corridors leading to these dank and cramped classrooms were so dark that pupils had to light matches to see their way.

Building materials were almost impossible to secure, so reconstruction went on at a snail's pace. One school admitted only students who could bring a pane of glass with their other credentials. The building was soon reglazed. (44, p.3) At several universities, students had to spend six months at helping
to reconstruct university buildings before they were admitted to classes. Many of the German high schools taught their pupils in manual training classes to make desks and other furniture to equip the school.

The long-range problem was solved by having German architects visit the United States to get ideas for the building of new schools. Since the schools had to be built anew anyway they might just as well be modern and suited to the latest type of teaching methods, with tables and chairs rather than rows of desks and so on. The German architects returned, complaining that Germany was too poor to construct such buildings. Therefore subsequent groups of architects were sent to Scandinavian countries where they were amazed and stimulated by the modern design and new construction concepts in Denmark, Sweden and Finland, even though the latter country had suffered extensive destruction and postwar economic difficulties. They found that one-story school buildings with movable furniture and extensive sound proofing could be built at no greater cost than their old type of construction. Plans were made for the construction of a few modern schools in each state in order to influence the course of future construction.
Other Changes

The German schools in 1945 needed teachers, textbooks and building space. These physical needs were provided by the United States Military Government. But the American Occupation group wanted to see also a change in the spirit and atmosphere of the German schools. They hoped to see the caste system of education eliminated. In its place they hoped to see a one-track system in which all pupils attended the same basic type of school. They hoped to provide free schooling and learning materials for all children throughout the period of compulsory school attendance. They advocated a single salary schedule for teachers. They encouraged the establishment of Parent-Teacher organizations. They advocated an expansion of the social studies curriculum with an emphasis upon citizenship education and international understanding. They emphasized the need for research and experimentation in education so that school instruction would keep up with the times. They advocated a guidance program in the schools.

These are but a few of the fifty-seven recommendations made to German educators at the Berchtesgaden and Bad Nauheim conferences in October of 1948 and December of 1949, respectively. Throughout the recommendations runs the spirit of democracy. In keeping with the
"observe, advise and assist" formula of both the Office of Military Government, United States Zone, and its successor the High Commissioner of Germany these recommendations merely took the form of repeated suggestions and persuasion rather than command. An attempt was made to have German teachers see many of these principles at work in the American schools through the German-American teacher exchange program whereby several hundred German teachers visit American schools every year.

PRESENT SCHOOL SYSTEM

Up to this point this thesis has dealt mainly with the historical aspect of German education. But what would the American exchange teacher find in regard to schools if he came to an average German town today? This question will be answered by giving an account of the organization, administration, curriculum, methods and materials of the present day German schools.

Organization

In the United States Zone of Germany school attendance is compulsory between the ages of six and fourteen years. If a child is absent without excuse the school contacts the parents. If parents do not
cooperate, a police inspector visits the home. Thus all German children at the age of six enter the Volks-
schule or elementary school. The first four years of
this Volksschule are required of all children and are
known as the Grundschule or basic school. At the close
of the Grundschule the forked system of German education
begins. When the child is about ten years old, the
parents and the teacher decide whether he is to be put
on the register of some particular secondary school for
the purpose of taking its examination. The entrance
examination itself is largely in the hands of the sec-
ondary school. It is subjective, being of the essay
type. There are no pre-standards set up for judging
the product, so that different persons reading the
examination often arrive at very different scores.
It appears that mental capacities and scholastic apti-
tudes are less a factor in a pupil's acceptance than is
the social and economic background of the family.
(51, p.5) This claim was justified by constructing an
original group intelligence test and administering it
to representative boys in the eighth year of schooling,
both in the elementary and secondary schools. The
results showed that although the boys attending second-
ary school were on the whole above the average in
intelligence, there were a large number of boys of
equally high intelligence in the elementary school.

If the child is accepted at the secondary school or Hohere Schule, his chances for completing it are about one in four. There are various types of Hohere Schulen. Among these are the Humanistische Gymnasium, Realgymnasium, Oberrealschule, Oberschule, and Aufbauschule. The Humanistisches Gymnasium requires both Latin and Greek, the Realgymnasium only Latin, and a modern language, the Oberrealschule only modern languages. The Oberschule specializes in modern languages, science or home economics. The Aufbauschule takes pupils who at first had planned only to complete the eight-year Volksschule and prepares them for the Abitur. All secondary schools prepare for this Abitur or examination for graduation from secondary school. If a pupil passes this successfully he may enter a university or institution of higher education.

Each teacher prepares a group of questions in his field for the pupils of his school who are about to take the Abitur. These questions are submitted to the State school supervisor for approval. He may choose two or three questions from the group as those to be answered by all the Abitur candidates at that school. The papers are graded by the teacher of the course. Then they are left at a certain place where they may be inspected by
any other teacher and the grade challenged. If the grade given is challenged, a reason must be given. The final decision as to the grade is left with the classroom teacher.

A small number of pupils attend the Mittelschule, which provided instruction through the tenth grade. About three fourths of those completing the fourth grade remain in the Volksschule for another four years, after which many of them continue part-time training in a Berufsschule or Vocational School while also working as apprentices. Pupils attending the vocational schools usually spend from five hours to one school day a week at school and receive training in trade or industry, commerce, agriculture, or home economics. When they are seventeen years of age, most of them become full-time industrial workers. If they wish to better themselves, they may attend special or master schools known as Fach und Meisterschulen. Only about four per cent do this.

If pupils wish to do so, they may substitute one year of full-time attendance for the three years of part-time attendance. Only about five per cent of all pupils use this plan. Usually they are girls attending home economics schools.

German schools are thus traditionally two track,
that is, at the age of ten the pupils decide which type of an education they wish to obtain. Depending on this decision they go either to the secondary schools to prepare for the university or they continue in the Volkschule and prepare for a trade. German schools also traditionally separate boys and girls. In some small country schools where there are not enough children to have two schools, boys and girls will have classes together. Otherwise coeducation is seldom found.

Religion also plays an important part in the organization of the schools. Most German schools are Confessional or Bekenntnisschulen, that is they are either Catholic or Evangelical. Thus Evangelical children are taught by Evangelical teachers in Evangelical schools. The same is true of Catholic children. If an area is predominantly Catholic and there are not enough Evangelical children to justify the establishment of another school, they attend the Catholic school but are not required to take part in the Catholic religious exercises. Instead they receive religious instruction from their own minister. In some areas with populations of mixed religious faiths there are Gemeinschaftsschulen. These are non denominational, and pupils are not separated except for classes in religious instruction. The tendency for this type of school is growing, because
the population movement resulting from bombings and war mixed the population, so that few areas are still predominantly Catholic or Evangelical.

The organization of classes in Germany is not the same as it is in America where each pupil in high school seems to have a different schedule. In Germany a class or common age group is broken up into smaller groups of perhaps thirty pupils. This group stays together all day and takes the same courses. These courses are not the same every day as they are in American high schools but rather follow the American college pattern in which only two or three hours a week are devoted to any one course.

Some German schools are also organized to allow for ability grouping. Thus rapid learners and robust youngsters are in one class. Pupils who have difficulty learning are placed in the Förder classes. In this way the differences between the "best" and the "worst" are not so marked. There are also special classes for the handicapped children, as for instance those with speech and hearing defects. The teachers work individually with each child and are specially trained to cover the same amount of work in the same amount of time as the normal classes. If special teachers and facilities are not available, German teachers provide for handicapped
children, the short sighted, and hard of hearing, by letting them sit on the front benches in the classroom.

Administration

Except for the period of the Hitler Regime, the school system in Germany has always been under state or Lander control. This has resulted in a great variety of school laws, reforms and curricula. An effort has been made to coordinate somewhat these many varieties by establishing a Coordinating Office in Bonn. It does not have a legislative function.

Each state has its system of education highly organized under the Land Ministry of Education, which is divided into various parts, each dealing with a particular type of school or aspect of education, as for example secondary schools, vocational schools, radio and music. There is little coordination between the different kinds of schools and programs.

The field organization of the states is centered in the Kreis or county. Each Stadtkreis (city county) and Landkreis (rural county) has a Schulamt (school office) headed by a Schulrat (school superintendent). It is his duty to supervise the Volksschulen of his county and usually the intermediate and vocational schools. The German local school board is chosen by
the local legislature and is responsible for school administration only insofar as it does not interfere with the authority of the state. This is quite different from the school board which the American exchange teacher is used to where the board is elected by the voters and has its own taxing powers. The local government in Germany conducts and operates the school building, provides teaching aids and materials, and looks after the health and welfare needs of its pupils. The state prepares the educational programs, supervises the work of all schools, and appoints and pays the teacher.

The term Schulträger or school supporter is the name given to the agency that serves as custodian of school properties and pays the physical costs. There are two main sources of finance, the state and the local community, which pay the personnel and material costs of the schools. Some of the technical schools are supported in part by commercial and industrial organizations.

In general there is no tuition in the public elementary, intermediate, secondary and part-time vocational schools. If tuition is required, some provision is made in the form of a scholarship or other aid for needy and capable students. There is also a trend toward providing free textbooks for children of
compulsory school age. In other cases books are rented for a small sum.

Curriculum

The Germans have a real talent for specialized education but they do not understand general education in the sense that Americans receive it. The German expects to learn this aspect of personal development outside the classroom. At the secondary level both the vocational schools and the academic high schools have highly specialized curricula. The one is subject-matter centered, the other is dominated by vocational training. This tends to produce the specialist who is docile and accepts easily an expression of authority from above. His inclination is to obey, not to question.

There is a general feeling among German teachers that it is the duty of a child to learn his subject matter or job skills and to know the answers. This is the guiding purpose of his school life. Thus school assignments are very heavy and unless a pupil is bright he has difficulty keeping up. Many parents are afraid that the child will become ill from so much study and complain to school authorities. This is one of the main reasons that teachers object to parent-teacher meetings.
The first four years of the Volksschule are spent in learning the fundamentals of the three R's. From the second through the fourth grade, Heimatkunde, a study of local history and geography is included. Physical education, art and religion are also studied. The second four years offer a curriculum which is inferior in comparison to that of secondary education. The titles of the subjects may be the same but the course content is quite different; for the upper Volksschule and the secondary school, the latter being far more thorough and academic in its nature. Secondary schools also have a smaller pupil-teacher ratio and better-prepared textbooks. Even the secondary schools leave much to be desired. Electives are rare, and one particular community can hardly support the many different types of secondary school; thus a child must usually take what is offered in the local community rather than what his interests and aptitudes might lead toward. The charts found on the next page will give some indication of the offerings of the Volksschule and the various types of secondary schools.

A few special aspects of German education may be of interest to the American exchange teacher. English is a requirement in most schools of the American zone. German students spend a whole morning in cooking classes rather than just two hours as is done in American
Volksschule Offerings (43, p. 47)

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Courses</th>
<th>Lower four grades (Grundschule)</th>
<th>Upper grades (grades 5 to 8)</th>
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<td>12.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Heimatkunde</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
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<td>25.2</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
schools.

In Germany there are not many extra-curricular activities. There are several reasons for this. First, the students have a great deal of homework. Second, many of them live quite a distance from the school and must commute by bicycle, bus, train or on foot. At times it takes a pupil an hour and a half to get to school. The school usually has a party only once or twice a year. Often, however, the whole class will spend a day or a weekend in the woods, bringing food from home. Some schools require each pupil who wishes to participate in activities to pay twenty pfennig a month. He may then use the school facilities for playing chess, rowing, and in some schools for playing tennis.

Methods and Materials of Teaching

The German way of life is dominated by the spirit of authority and the desire that children become "proper" and dignified young adults. Since the school is the place where children spend a large part of their childhood and youth, it was up to the school to train pupils with harsh discipline. Thus German schools have a tradition of corporal punishment. When the American Military Government took over Germany, it tried to govern
by democratic means. Therefore, it let the parents of Bavaria vote on whether or not they approved of corporal punishment. They did, so it was continued.

German pupils have also been taught to jump to attention whenever a teacher or visitor enters the room. The older teachers still require this practice although many of the younger teachers have discontinued it.

In the schools there is a tendency toward encouraging the pupil to be a productive worker rather than a passive listener. There has also been an effort toward developing student planning and responsibility in such simple things as providing flowers and bulletin board displays for the classroom.

Audio visual aids, especially in the form of films, have found a rather important place in many German schools. Here is a method whereby the ways of life in foreign lands can be projected into the lives of people many miles away. As people see that others are not really so very different from themselves they turn to friendship rather than to hatred. Thus knowledge is the beginning of tolerance and tolerance is the beginning of understanding. Here is an opportunity for an interchange of ideas between cultures.

There are several obstacles to the success of audio visual aids. The university, vocational,
secondary and technical schools simply do not find time for them. They do not feel that the films contribute enough to their program to justify their use as a part of the classwork. Many school officials are afraid that the sound film will substitute for the teacher. Parents feel that the sound films make the teacher's job too easy. German school officials also claim that American sound films are child centered rather than subject centered as their silent films are. The American sound film, they say, does not present enough subject matter to justify its use in their regular school program. Therefore many teachers do not dare to show films during regular school time but do so after school instead. There is usually an enthusiastic response in the form of a large audience even if the children must pay a small sum for admission. Usually the parent organizations collect enough money to pay for renting the films.

Due to the large number of requests for films, they must be arranged for long in advance. Thus sometimes the films arrive for showing at a time when the class has not yet discussed the particular topic to be shown. Often many films are shown on the same day because not all schools have a projector available. The teacher seldom has an opportunity to preview a film. Thus the
audio visual program leaves much to be desired, but it is making rapid progress in popularity and in recognition of its use as a teaching aid.

The German schools have two traditional examinations. Several other examinations are rather important in the life of the pupil. At the age of ten he takes an essay examination to determine whether he may enter a secondary school. Later a pupil will take the Abitur or examination for graduation from secondary school which will determine whether he can go on to college. Many pupils also take the state examinations in the various professions and vocations because a certificate of success usually means a better position. On the whole these examinations are of the subjective type and the standard attained depends largely on the attitude of the grader. Germany has not done much research in the direction of objective testing although a small group of German psychologists and educators became interested in the work of Alfred Binet and prepared a German version of the Binet Intelligence scale, later known as the Binet-Bobertag test. This was used mainly by doctors and in the selection of students for special schools and classes for mentally handicapped children. In 1925 Dr. Bobertag and Professor
Hylla published a set of tests to determine the intelligence of pupils about to make the decision between entering the secondary school or continuing in the Volksschule. This was known as Begabungsprüfung für den Übergang von der Grundschule zur Höheren Schule. In 1927 Hylla published a book on tests entitled Testprüfung der Intelligenz. In 1932 Bobertag and Hylla published a standardized group intelligence test similar to the Otis Self-Administering Test, which was widely used in vocational guidance of students leaving the elementary school at the age of about fourteen. They also published two standardized series of achievement tests, covering silent reading, language usage, vocabulary, spelling, number and arithmetical reasoning for the fourth grade.

Hylla joined the staff of the Military Government Education Branch as a German consultant in 1945 and played a leading role in the development of a testing program from that time. Many of the universities and teachers' workshops worked on various types of tests for different age levels. Several of these are German versions of American tests, as for example the Stanford Binet and the Wechsler-Bellevue.

Guidance and counselling as understood by the
American exchange teacher is practically non existant in German schools. Thus the ten-year old in his decision to go to either trade school or the university seldom takes into consideration interests, aptitudes, abilities or physical health. When the time comes for him to choose a trade, the choice again is rather haphazard, often being determined by an arbitrary assignment to an apprenticeship. The school itself is not responsible for assigning a student as an apprentice. This is a function of the labor office which gives a pupil information about different occupations to help him decide to which vocation he wishes to be apprenticed. Often, however, there is pressure exerted. For example in Essen workers are desperately needed for the coal mines. The employment offices often refuse to place a pupil anywhere except in the coal mine. This forcing into an occupation is a far cry from vocational guidance.

Germany needs to exchange educational ideas with other countries of the world. She should also develop an extensive program of research in education. Modern theories of teaching should be brought out in teacher workshops.

This chapter has tried to show some of the
immediate postwar problems in German education and the attempts of both the American government and the German people to solve them. It has also attempted to present the current system of German education to the American exchange teacher.
# BIBLIOGRAPHY


