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EDUCATION IN ITALY

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I. INTRODUCTION.

The economic and social exigencies brought about for Italy by her entrance into the war in May, 1915, inevitably led her educational thinkers to submit her traditional system of education to more careful scrutiny than ever before, and to recognize how inadequate it was along certain lines to meet the demands thrust upon it by the new conditions. The first results of the consequent attempt at readjustment were seen in the enlarged scope given the schools—the teachers, the pupils, and the buildings—and in their vigorous cooperation with the nation-wide organizations founded to minister to the immediate needs of the refugees from the invaded Provinces, to relieve the families of men called to the service, and to supply school facilities to an overwhelming influx of pupils. The local and provincial teachers became, very logically, the executive heads of much of this activity; and pronounced benefits accrued to the schools in increased respect for them and popular dependence upon them. Administrative officials, teachers, and laymen interested in education were not slow in taking advantage of the new strategic position of the schools to initiate a propaganda of reform, which, taken up by the educational and secular press, began to direct itself definitely toward legislative action. This awakening of the nation, with the impetus given to educational interest, and the consequent testing of principles and methods hitherto held sacred from all criticism, constitutes the most valuable line for the review of educational matters in Italy for the past two years. Of the projects and plans broached, some naturally failed of enactment into school law; but all show,

in their natural sequence from the lower to the higher, a uniform national desire to throw off the dead hand of traditionalism and to make education subserve the actual needs of the nation.

ILLITERACY.

Preliminary to the discussion of the elementary schools proper should come that of illiteracy, a national problem inextricably bound up with them and dependent for its solution upon their progress and betterment. The percentage of illiteracy in Italy has decreased from 68.8 in 1871, the year of the first census after the unification, to 46.7 in 1911, when, of a total population of nearly 85,000,000, approximately 16,000,000 were illiterate. Of prime ethnological and climatological significance in the study of Italian illiteracy are the facts that the Italians are spread over many varieties of climate and altitude; that of the 8,323 communes (June, 1911) only 6 were without illiterates, and only 13 had less than 1 per cent, all these being situated in northern Italy; and that 456 situated in south central and southern Italy had an illiteracy of 75 per cent and over.

Sicily and Sardinia showed the highest percentage of illiteracy; the plateau and mountain Provinces the lowest. Of 30 communes 1,500 meters and more above sea level, 16 showed an illiteracy of less than 5 per cent; 9 of less than 10 per cent; 5 of less than 20 per cent; only 1 of as much as 37 per cent. The highest commune in Italy—appropriately *il commune di Chamois*—showed a percentage of 0.9 for women and 2 for men; the lowest commune in the Kingdom, one-third of a meter above sea level, had a percentage of 57 for women and 42 for men. Of 69 chief provincial cities and towns, 5 showed 10 per cent of illiteracy and 10 more than 50 per cent. Turin had the lowest percentage, 5; Girgenti and Messina, in the extreme southern tip, had 57. The city of Rome showed 15 per cent. The minister of public instruction is seriously doing his best to overcome this chief menace to national life. For the year 1916, 4,246 night schools and 1,928 holiday schools for illiterate adults—an increase of nearly 500 in two years—accommodating approximately 100,000 men and women,¹ were authorized; and of continuation schools for semi-illiterate adults (*scuole di complemento*) nearly 1,400 were authorized for the same year, an increase of nearly 200 over those of the two years preceding. Encouraging as these figures are, however, such adult schools can never be more than palliative measures.

Italian social workers think the cure is to be found not in measures hitherto employed but in systematic increases of appropriations for elementary schools and salaries to elementary teachers. Valuable aid is anticipated from the plan adopted several years ago by the military

¹ Figures of actual enrollment are not available.

authorities, whereby illiterate soldiers, veterans as well as recruits, are to be given elementary instruction in the camps and military posts. It is feared, however, that the recently enacted law admitting illiterates of mature age to the electoral franchise will remove a great incentive to self-instruction, and prove a deplorable mistake from the point of view of combating illiteracy.

II. POPULAR EDUCATION.

(a) ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The elementary schools of Italy, in 1915, enrolled 3,692,024 children between the ages of 6 and 11 years, employed 75,993 teachers, 17,248 men and 58,750 women, and cost the nation, combining central and local expenses, approximately \$18,000,000.¹ They are, of course, the pivot of the entire educational system. In the judgment of Italy's progressive social workers a fair if disillusionizing estimate of their influence upon Italian life was furnished by the very unexpectedly high rate of illiteracy, or practical illiteracy, shown in the youth registered for the armies since May, 1916. Many such had had one or more years' schooling in the elementary schools. Acting on this stimulus, a definite move began for the complete reconstruction of the entire lower public school system. Among the most fruitful suggestions made by such bodies as the National Union of Italian Teachers, approved by the minister, and commended by the committee on education in the Chamber of Deputies were the following:

1. The term of years for the courses of the elementary school should be shortened to four years at most; the subjects taught modified in content and scope, and adapted to the comprehension and advancement of the pupils. Fewer subjects should be taught, and these should be taught well. The traditional repetition of programs and schedules should at once be eliminated; and subjects divided into definitely briefer assignments, adapted to the capacity of the pupil.
2. The number of pupils in each class under one teacher should be restricted to 25.
3. School attendance should be absolutely obligatory between definitely prescribed school age limits. This should be rigorously enforced by the civil authorities, with a graduated scale of fines for delinquent parents and guardians.
4. With the improvement in teaching thus demanded, teachers' salaries should be raised from the prevailing average of 200 lire (\$40.00) per month to at least twice that amount, and this increase

¹ Expenses of public elementary instruction are for 1916-17.

should be accompanied by an emphasis upon the quality and standing of the teacher in popular estimation. The elementary teacher should be required to have a teacher's diploma.

5. On the administrative side, more efficient operation of the system of inspectors should be secured by a diminution in the number of vice-inspectors from the present 1,000 to 600, and the increase of the full inspectors from 400 to 600, promotion being restricted to members of the lower grade and made solely on the basis of merit and service. The jurisdiction of either grade should be limited to 80 communes at most. Vice-inspectors should be relieved of all teaching functions, and should be required to devote their attention exclusively to the supervising duties in the zones assigned.

6. Fundamental to all these, greater local power should be granted the communes in the management of the elementary schools, and in the adjustment of courses to local needs and conditions. The subjects taught in remote rural schools should be sharply differentiated from those taught in cities and populous towns.

In furtherance of this movement the Minister of Public Instruction, early in 1918, appointed a committee of inspectors and vice-inspectors, with powers to formulate a report of conditions and of recommendations. This report is awaited with very favorable interest by all the educational forces of the State.

Under the vigorous administration of Sig. Berenini, while no strictly legal reforms in elementary education were made during the past two years, the systematic attempt was made, in so far as this was possible by departmental ordinances, to bring elementary education into vital relation with the needs of every-day life, especially in the rural districts. In this connection, the peasant schools of the *Agro Romano*,* in a peculiar sense the ward of the State, have constituted a valuable object lesson as to the possibilities of rural schools. The report of the committee, issued in July, 1917, and covering the 10 years of the schools' existence, shows the harmonious cooperation of the State with the commune, the former working out hygienic and technical problems, the latter those of a moral and ethical nature. The population and teaching material in the *Agro Romano* was, at the inception, regarded as perhaps the most backward to be found in Italy. Beginning in 1907 with 8 schools, enrolling 840 pupils, they have grown to 78 regular schools, and 8 pre-schools (*infantili asili*), enrolling and partly feeding 8,220 pupils. Furthermore, 14 State and communal upper elementary schools combined exist in communities where the original elementary lower schools began operation. These schools are of four types, regular day, vacation, night (for adults), and *infantili asili*. They have rendered through their teach-

* The strip of the Campagna lying north and west of Rome, covering an area of about 75 square miles.

ing staff increasingly effective assistance to destitute families and those of men called to the service, and their buildings have served as gathering places in the civic life of the community. These schools have the definite aim of preparing the pupils for their environment, to improve it, and to train them in agricultural pursuits, in building better homes, and in improving means of communication. Especial attention is called in the report to the efficiency of the system of inspection of these schools.

The direct attention focused by the minister of public instruction upon elementary education has been accompanied by marked success in keeping before the Italian people the vital importance of the schools during the period of national stress. The enrollment in elementary education, by the figures of January 1, 1916, exceeded by more than 500,000 that of the preceding year, and on an estimated gain in population of approximately a million. The branches of education related to the elementary, such as the *asili*, the kindergartens, the auxiliary schools, communal and private, and the parents' associations, have all shared in the benefits of this awakening, and all have been reinforced by private initiative.

A culmination to the active efforts of the Italian Federation of Popular Libraries was seen in the royal decree of May, 1918, making compulsory a library of at least 50 volumes in each elementary school, to be purchased and maintained by the State and commune jointly. It is hoped that this compulsory popular library may become the nucleus for a system of popular education for the older members of the community; that, by means of large increase in the existing grant devoted to popular and school libraries, and a place set apart for the library in each new school, popular extrascholastic classes may be held; that for teachers of such schools recourse may be had, in small rural communities, to such educated persons as there may be in the vicinity, while help may be given by teachers from neighboring towns; and that ultimately attendance at such classes may be made obligatory up to the age of 18.

(b) SCUOLE POPOLARI; RURAL SCHOOLS.

The putting of the *scuole popolari* into operation is the most striking advance made in the field of Italian education during the past two years. The legal enactment constituting them was the result of an organic growth, combining features of the plans submitted by the Minister of Industry, Commerce, and Labor, in December, 1916, and by Sig. Ruffini, then Minister of Public Instruction, in February, 1917. Their compositely social and educational character is well illustrated by the history of the origin and passage of the

law establishing them. The salient points of the *scuole popolari*, both in organization and aims, are as follows:

1. The Government, with the consent of the local school council and the communes, was instructed to found a new type of school based upon the completion of the fifth and sixth elementary classes, and offering instruction of special and vocational character, as well as a development of the courses in the basic subjects, especially arithmetic and practical geometry, drawing, and the elements of physical and applied natural sciences. Such schools were to cover three years additional to the elementary schools, and in the case of communes reserving to themselves the management of the elementary schools, the power of further amplifying the *scuole popolari* was granted.

2. The entire three years' course was to take the name of *scuole popolari*, be recognized as an institution of public instruction in legal standing, and governed by special statute approved by royal decree on the recommendation of the minister. The teaching staff and the program of special and general courses were to be determined by the statute embodying the school. Courses in agriculture, horticulture, agricultural economics, and whatsoever other scientific pursuits were adapted to the climate and needs of the individual locality were to be fostered and taught intensively. Only those teachers that should have pursued special training courses in the subjects they were assigned to teach should be elected to the *scuole popolari*, and only upon the passing of examinations thereon. To be nominated as teacher of Italian, history, and civil ethics, geometry and arithmetic, the teacher must hold the diploma of the normal school or have served at least five years satisfactorily in the elementary public schools. The minimum salary of teachers in the *scuole popolari* was fixed at 2,000 lire (\$400) for communes having over 20,000 inhabitants and at 1,500 lire (\$300) for communes having less. The weekly schedule of instruction required of each teacher was to be 24 hours. For hours exceeding this he was to receive additional compensation of 80 lire (\$16) per annum for each hour, and for hours falling below he was to be required to render such assistance as the giunta of the commune should direct.

3. For admission to the *scuole popolari* the usual *maturità* examinations required for admission to the first class of the middle and complementary schools should not be valid. Only students completing in actual residence the work of the lower elementary school and passing the promotion examination of the fifth elementary grade were to be admitted to them. Students completing the work of the *scuole popolari* were to be admitted to the first classes of the technical and complementary schools upon the examinations and conditions fixed by the ministerial regulation. The leaving certificate of the *scuole popolari* should be recognized as equivalent to the

leaving certificate of technical schools for admission to posts in various branches of the public service.

Rules governing the passage of certificated students from the *scuole popolari* to the agricultural and vocational middle schools were to be fixed by royal decree on the recommendation of the Ministers of Public Instruction and of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce.

To sum up: The *scuole popolari* are essentially rural and scientific, of considerable freedom in courses and schedules, supported by the commune and the State jointly, largely autonomous, and in the nature of continuation schools, being, in the words of Minister Berenini, "a bridge between the elementary and the vocational and technical schools." They are designed primarily for children hitherto unable through economic stress to continue in school. Scientific and vocational advantages, hitherto offered only in schools of higher grade and at a distance, are now brought within local reach.

An interesting phase of the *scuole popolari* is afforded in the tentative plans for the establishment of a marine popular school at Venice. As outlined, this school is designed to impart instruction in elementary navigation, making and managing boats, pisciculture in the various phases shown in particular localities, and devices for catching, conserving, and transporting of fish. Promising pupils will be afforded aid in proceeding on to higher technical marine schools already established.

(c) RURAL SCHOOLS.

A distinct move for the establishment of rural schools of elementary grade, below the *scuole popolari*, but offering advantages akin to them, was launched at a meeting of the National Teachers' Union for Popular Education, held in Rome in May, 1918. The discussion was participated in by representatives of the Association for the Interests of Southern Italy, by the director and the Commission for the Peasant Schools of the *Agro Romano*, the school press, and many students of the needs of the rural population. Resolutions were passed calling for the recognition by the Government of the difference of the rural schools from the urban, the need of reducing studies and hours, of limiting the number of pupils under one teacher to 40, and of diminishing the number of holidays, the obligatory establishment of four grades with enforced compulsory attendance, assistance to needy children, increased salaries for teachers, attention to their physical health and comfort, and the naming of a special commission to study the conditions of the schools and children of the rural districts. Such a move marks a distinct advance in educational thought and administration, by which atten-

tion was first called on Italian soil to the essential difference between the problems of the city and country schools.

Closely related is the subject of agricultural instruction in the elementary schools, about which much discussion has centered within the past two years. There has been a growing feeling that, aside from the lack of coordination between the subjects taught in the elementary rural schools and the environment of the rural children, there is also a very pronounced hiatus in the system between the lower agricultural schools and the elementary schools, by which many children naturally inclined to the study of applied agriculture have no opportunity or encouragement to pursue it. The clear-cut demand voiced in many quarters for the establishment of distinctive rural schools has, in a degree, taken the place of a move for the development of the elementary schools along specifically agricultural lines, being popularly regarded as a substitute for these. Yet many persons interested in education have pointed out that, while each project has its peculiar advantages, the incorporation of elementary agricultural and horticultural courses in the already existing elementary schools is more practical, reaches a larger proportion of pupils, and can be more speedily put into operation, with far less expense and difficulty of adjustment of teachers and courses than would be possible with the distinctive rural schools projected. A foreshadowing of this will be seen below in the section devoted to the training of teachers, where it is emphasized that preparation for imparting instruction in sciences adapted to local needs has been given a prominent place in the new teachers' courses.

(d) AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

By royal decree of 1907 elementary schools of agriculture were established with the aim of preparing students for intermediate and advanced institutions. They offer a three years' course in Italian, language, history, and geography, mathematics and applied geometry, surveying, drawing, calculation, elementary physical and natural sciences, and in the last year intensive training in agriculture and related industries. In 1917 there were 29 of these, only one of which was for women. They are situated in larger centers, enroll local students almost exclusively, and do not especially appeal to rural students. On the latter account, some dissatisfaction has been expressed with them, and plans have been projected to remove them from their town and urban surroundings, and transplant them to sites where experimental farms and first-hand study of concrete problems may be feasible. Such removals would also afford valuable object lessons for the native rural population, as showing the desire of the Government to become acquainted with and to remedy back-

ward conditions in remote communities. It was largely out of this dissatisfaction that the demand for the establishment of rural schools and agricultural courses in the elementary rural schools grew.

The entire subject of agricultural instruction, in all its grades, has drawn unprecedented impetus from the growing conviction brought home to the nation by the war that in the economic and social reconstruction after the war agriculture must play the largest part, and, furthermore, that if education is to be nationalized, the start must be made by giving the study of agriculture the most prominent place in the schools. Thus the different phases of the discussion of agriculture in the schools are but interrelated branches of the one uniform and urgent problem.

(e) VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS.

The auspicious start made toward building up a complete system of vocational training by the provisions of the law secured by Minister de Nava, in 1912, has not been followed by satisfactory actual results. That law called for the establishment of one elementary vocational school based immediately upon the lower elementary schools in each commune of 10,000 or more inhabitants, excluding the larger cities. There are estimated to be 800 such communes; and as the aggregate expense, amounting to 13,000,000 lire (\$2,600,000), was from the first a deterrent, to the execution of the law, only a few have been established in the most progressive communes. Another article in the law provided for the establishment of vocational schools for the advanced training of young workmen from 13 to 18 years who have attended the upper elementary schools or have had practical apprentice instruction for two years in addition to the leaving certificate of the lower elementary schools. It is estimated that the number of these youths is approximately a million, and that to establish and adequately equip the necessary number of such schools at least 5,000,000 lire additional would be required. Attention has repeatedly been called by social workers to the great good such schools would do; and it is to be hoped that among the first tasks undertaken in the reconstruction of Italy's school system after the war will be the revival of the De Nava law on vocational education.

An interesting experiment in lowering the age and requirements necessary for pupils to enter essentially vocational schools has been made near Castello, in Umbria, for boys of the invaded district between 9 and 14 years. Organized under the legal title of *Colonia dei Giovani Lavoratori*, and by private beneficence, the project was regarded as of such social significance that an original grant of 75,000 lire (\$15,000), supplemented by subsequent ones, was made by the Minister of Arms and Munitions, and later increased by

subscriptions from the American Red Cross and private benefactions. The first *colonia* to be established has for its scope to secure tracts of unused land, to organize the labor of the boys applying for entrance, and to offer not only agricultural courses but also, by arrangements with the industries of neighboring centers, training in trades and handicrafts. There is also contemplated an essentially instructional side in a four years' elementary course, supplemented by a two years' popular course, but of more intensive character than the *scuole popolari*. In view of the unusual circumstances of the students, especial attention to ethical training is felt to be necessary. If successful it is hoped that the Government will take over the movement, and the experiment be expanded to a chain of such *colonie*.

(f) EXTRA-SCHOLASTIC ACTIVITIES.

Signs of the awakening of the schools to national service along many lines apart from the strictly scholastic abound during the past two years. Exhibits of didactic material, manufactured by school-children, have been held at various points, notably at Naples, showing both regional products and use of materials, as well as national character and utility. The real economic value, also, was plain, in view of the closing of the Italian frontiers, and the cutting off of school supplies as well as others. Amid these most adverse conditions the discovery that Italian talent was able to devise and make school-room equipment constituted a long step forward in Italy's economic emancipation. In pursuance of the project of a national system of book printing and binding set forth by a meeting of all interested in handicrafts, held at Milan in April, 1917, courses in bookbinding in certain city schools were attempted, and excellent work along this line has been exhibited. The Association of Teachers of Physical Training in Italy, meeting in June, 1917, vigorously urged definite courses in physical training and especially that sports be incorporated in the elementary schools. The latter demand drew unexpected impetus from the physical training imparted recruits, with the consequent radical improvement in physique and morale. Advocates of the movement claimed to see in the final triumph on the Piave the manifest proof of the value of sports and athletics. Schools of child welfare have been established at various points, generally in connection with orphanages and *asili* for destitute children from the invaded regions. Their aim has been to give a practical and solid basis of training to all persons intrusted with the care of children, to diffuse a knowledge of the rules of hygiene among the women of Italy, especially in the crowded centers and in remote sections, and thus to combat Italy's high rate of infant mortality. While not under the control of the Government, these schools have

had its cordial encouragement and frequent subsidies for certain lines of investigation, and they have exercised a definite reciprocal effect upon the official system of public instruction.

(g) HOSPITAL SCHOOLS FOR WOUNDED ITALIAN SOLDIERS.

Wounded Italian soldiers were given elementary instruction in hospital schools at various points, conducted by teachers assigned from the public schools and by volunteers. Chief of these were the schools at Milan and Naples, which led the way in securing governmental inspection and concession of the right of examinations for the third-grade finishing certificate of the elementary schools. The work was organized along the two lines of instruction for total illiterates, and for backward soldiers of mental advancement measured by the work of the fifth and sixth elementary. Classes in choral singing were introduced with the aim of discovering wounded men of musical abilities and training them for popular choral instruction. Marked interest was aroused among the pupils of the public schools by a governmental appeal for voluntary contributions to a permanent fund for reeducation work among the soldiers. Practically every elementary school in the Kingdom contributed.

Accounts of this eminently successful work are of real pedagogical value to students of the relative capacities and aptitudes of children and adults. The following extracts are taken from the account of Signorina Paltrinieri, one of the teachers in the Milan school, who has best outlined the spirit and significance of this work in the life of the nation:

These schools were not for the physical rehabilitation of the wounded, nor for their training in trades and crafts; they were for the teaching of book subjects and for adults, most of whom, even the youngest, would seem beyond the plastic age. And yet the results were amazing.

As regards the teaching material, all were peasants or drawn from the lowest urban classes, economically and socially. Most were unable to read and write, though many had attended one or more of the first three grades of the elementary schools, but had dropped out and had forgotten practically all they had ever learned. The distinctive characteristic common to all was the intense desire to retrieve lost time and opportunities. The hospital schoolroom was not only crowded during school hours, but was after hours a center for those wishing to finish tasks and to talk over problems connected with the lessons. There were many points of difference between the ordinary school urchin and these feverishly ardent boys of larger growth. These soldier pupils forgot that the day was a holiday. They always had in the bookbag the book and copybook and pencil needed and were always proof against such distractions as impede the usual elementary school. To them the conquering of the task in hand was the vital point.

The reasons given by the soldier pupils for their ignorance were strikingly illuminating for the life and psychology of the people; the schoolhouse was too far from home, the boy had no good clothes, the family could not or would

not get along without his earnings, etc. With yet others plain laziness and loafing, confessed with boyish ingenuousness, made them shirk, and they quit school as soon as possible. "If my daddy (pare) had only given me a sound licking and marched me off to school" was the most common lament, voiced in all the dialects of Italy.

In point of *intelligence*, pure and simple, the child has an undoubted advantage over the adult. His mind is fresh, open, ready to receive the stamp upon the proverbial wax. The adult is what he is. We can make him better; we can change the directions of his thoughts and ideas; but mold him as we will—no.

In *application*, of course, the adult has the indisputable advantage. He knows the hours for lessons are limited. He is determined to get the very most out of them. His attention is seldom distracted. Even distinguished visitors—so eagerly welcomed by children—can not break the severe and imperturbable calm of these soldier pupils. Visitors pass from bench to bench, smiling, enthusiastic, patronizing. These model pupils look up, answer respectfully, smile from the depths of those inscrutable eyes—and even before the disturbing element is well out of the room have plunged again into their tasks.

As regards the *will*, this is the wedge for the adult. By dint of patience, of study, of determination, they do the impossible. The will, too, acts powerfully on their physical condition. Men, wounded in the right hand, grasped the pen and guiding the wounded member with the sound one, day by day by desperate efforts gained freedom of movement. Men with head wounds suffered terribly under certain atmospheric conditions, but they never missed school.

In *experience of life* and *stock of ideas* no comparison is possible. Other considerations apart, an enormous saving of time and energy was found. In not having to explain the ordinary phenomena of life to the adult, as has to be done with the child. The adult applies everything as he progresses. In point of *stock of words*, however, the child does not differ so markedly from the illiterate adult. The Italian peasant, no matter of what dialect, has an extremely limited vocabulary. So has the child. But the child is always, consciously and unconsciously, enlarging his stock of words; the adult is content with what he has.

Coming now to the application of these diverse mental aptitudes to the acquisition of school subjects, less difficulty in *direction* was encountered by the child than by the adult. The child has a *tabula rasa* of a mind. He hears a sound clear and distinct. He does not confuse it with other sounds. It does not start in him a train of kindred concepts. He puts down what he hears. The adult, on the other hand, hears a sound; it awakens innumerable dormant associations. His dialect is another ever-present obstacle. The struggle to cut these away is unceasingly hard. Repetition, untiring repetition by teacher and pupil, is indispensable.

On the subject of *composition* for literary form the child's composition is better; for subject matter, the adult's. A soldier had for some time been in an agony of suspense at not hearing from home. One day he had assigned to him as a theme to write a letter home asking some favor. He fell to work and wrote desperately, the teacher watching him. The letter was full of ardent affection, of deep grief, of hope, of encouragement to his dear ones, but on the theme assigned nothing. He protested with emotion that he could not write to ask a favor of poor folk who had hardly a roof over their heads.

In *arithmetic* and *calculation*, as is to be expected, the adult far outstrips the child. No time is wasted on the tables with soldiers—that inexhaustible fountainhead of wasted time for children. The man does the problem, does it

correctly, verifies it, out of some incident in his old trade or calling and goes on acquiring new facility.

In *penmanship* and *drawing*, as between the man and the child, the adult has a hardness of muscle, the child a weakness of hand. The man has the better trained eye and sense of proportion, the child a singleness of vision and an ability to isolate the object.

In *reading*, the adult has advantages of application that enable him to do in two or three months what it takes the child a year to do. The intensive drill upon individual letters is feasible and fruitful with adults, being a drill soldier pupils enjoy and continue after hours.

As regards the *explanation of passages read*, adults make a better showing than children. The quicker witted and more attentive the child is, the more does he tend to repeat the words of the original. The adult, on the contrary, changes, adapts, discourses on it, if he is talkative, brings it to the touchstone of his own experience, approves or rebukes, in brief, incorporates it into his mental life.

So with *grammar*, with *history*, with *geography*, with *oral arithmetic*, with the elements of *physical sciences*, each one chronicles a series of victories for the adult over the child. Take the field of history. The child thinks the reign of Servius Tullius the least interesting of all; the adult, though a peasant, grasps the force of its economic and social changes. The child will glibly tell of the exile of Charles Albert, adding pathetic personal touches; the man will tell of the importance of his connection with the constitution of 1848.

Now, what are the net results of this teaching of adult soldier-pupils? Illiterates, or practically such, in less than one year passed the examination *di compimento* (admission to the fifth grade). At the *Ospedale delle Guastalle*, an illiterate Sicilian lad, with a severe wound in his head, from which the fragment of shell could not be extracted, and with his left side completely paralyzed; passed the examination with the following marks on a basis of 10: 8 in dictation, grammar, oral and written arithmetic; 7 in explanation of passages read; 6 in penmanship, composition, and reading.

Rather industrial than instructional in scope, but closely related is the work of the National Association for Artistic and Industrial Assistance to the Wounded and the Invalided, organized in July, 1917, and counting among its membership thousands of eminent men and women in all parts of Italy. Its aims are to forward the artistic and industrial progress of soldier pupils by governmental and local encouragement, to assist former pupils in the establishment of business, to assist in the disposal of their products for them by the establishment of provincial and urban magazines, to enlist the active cooperation of eminent artists in all parts of Italy, and to organize committees in every part of Italy. The work of the association has been of great value in spreading an interest in matters artistic among the masses of the people, and in showing them the means of developing latent talent.

(h) PROJECTED PLANS FOR SCHOOLS AFTER THE WAR.

Since early in the war steadily increasing attention has been devoted to the subjects and methods of public instruction adapted to post-war conditions. This took definite shape in the appointment,

in June, 1918, by royal decree, of a commission, headed by the Minister of Public Instruction and composed of members of the Consiglio Superiore and persons eminent in the educational life of Italy, to study and report upon the subjects and form of education adapted to the solution of the most urgent problems that will then confront the nation. The scope of this commission as a whole is practically unlimited, comprising, as it does, all forms of national, social, and educational activity. It will work by sections, one of which will have under its especial charge the study of national culture, educational and instructional. The tentative outline of the activities of the commission indicates that it will study not merely the transitory and superficial measures necessitated by disarmament, but the graver problems consequent thereon. The commission is instructed to take a historical survey of Italian school life under all its phases and to avail itself of all social and educational investigations undertaken by official and private organizations. The appointment of the commission has been received with enthusiasm by Italian teachers of all grades, who indicate an ardent wish to cooperate in all its labors.

By an interesting coincidence the composite report of the commission appeared the same week as the signing of the armistice. The plan of the several educational reforms, unanimously approved and recommended for immediate action, fell under the following heads:

1. The thorough execution of all school laws and the overhauling of the national financial system to this end.
2. The organic inclusion, within the national system of education, of kindergartens and nursery schools by means of the subsidizing or nationalizing of existing ones, and the establishment of many others.
3. The continuous construction, within the period of five years, of all school buildings lacking to the needs of population and the legal announcement of compulsory attendance upon them.
4. The establishment of at least one compulsory school of four grades in each commune.
5. The establishment of especially adapted secondary schools for the preliminary professional training of teachers.
6. The raising of the minimum salary of teachers to 8,000 lire (\$600) and the investing of the teaching profession with enhanced moral and social prestige.
7. The lengthening of the school year and the requirement of the teacher to take part in civic and communal tasks.
8. The fixing of the final leaving age of pupils at 18 years.
9. The establishment of compulsory schools for illiterate adults up to 45 years.

10. The establishment, on the application of communal authorities, of popular courses, schools of hygiene and sanitation, languages, etc.

11. The subordination of the national budget to the needs of popular education, and not vice versa.

12. The paying of greater attention to woman's place in the national life, with especial regard to the needs of peasant and laboring women.

To students of education the striking feature of this move is the proof it affords that Italy conceives of no renewal of her economic life without the accompanying reform in her educational system.

III. MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

In the Italian scheme of education the *scuole medie* are held to include industrial and commercial schools, the *istituti tecnici*, the normal schools, the *ginnasi* and the *licei*.

(a) INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS.

The exigencies of the war have brought out clearly the need of reform in the general group of industrial schools, occupying as these do so important a place in the practical training of the nation's youth. Especial attention began to center two years ago upon the industrial and commercial divisions, and early in 1917, by ministerial decree, the few schools of this type already in existence were developed, their numbers largely increased, and their relations with the elementary schools below and with the *istituti tecnici* above were clearly defined.

The industrial schools thus enlarged are denominated Royal Industrial Schools of the Second Grade. They are 108 in number, situated in the populous centers, and designed to offer in a four-years course the theoretical and practical knowledge necessary for the future heads of artistic and industrial manufacturing establishments. To the first class of these schools are admitted pupils having either (a) a certificate of promotion from the vocational schools of the 1st grade, or (b) the leaving certificate from the higher elementary schools, or (c) in the discretion of the director, those 12 years of age and presenting an examination upon selected subjects comprised in the programs of the higher elementary course. Continuous progress in the industrial school group was further sought in the new rules for the admission of pupils from the industrial schools of the 2nd grade to the more highly specialized schools of the 3d grade. For this was accepted, (a) the leaving certificates of the technical or

complementary school, royal or private, or (b) the certificate of promotion from the second to the third communal course of the Royal Institute of Fine Arts, or (c) certificate of promotion examination, or (d) the leaving certificate of a royal commercial school of the second grade with special examination on selected subjects. The 19 royal industrial or vocational schools of the third grade offer specialized courses in weaving and dyeing, silk industry, working on hides and skins, mechanics, paper industry, forestry, typography, electric engineering, and radio-telegraphy. Admission of pupils of the second grade to them also requires the certificate specifying the specialty in which the pupil has worked, or the leaving certificate of the commercial school embracing subjects continued in the royal vocational schools.

Similarly the 27 royal commercial schools of the second grade hold the same rank as the industrial, affording instruction for managers and employees of commercial pursuits, and offering a course covering four years, or, in the case of schools annexed to a royal commercial school of the third grade or advanced grade, three years. Admission to the first class of the commercial schools of the second grade is (a) upon completion of 10 years of age and the certificate of the *maturità* examination from the higher elementary schools, or (b) the leaving certificates of the royal commercial school, or (c) certified three years' attendance thereon, or (d) in the discretion of the director, completion of 12 years of age and the passing of examination upon selected subjects of the course of the commercial school. The 11 royal commercial schools of the third grade, located in the large cities, admit only complete graduates of schools of the second grade.

By the regulation, especial attention is paid to the professional qualifications of the directors of these respective schools. The director of the industrial school shall be in immediate charge of instruction in the technical subjects and the related applied sciences. If in a women's school, the directress shall be in immediate charge of the subjects of a domestic or graphic nature, or those constituting the basis of the school's existence. Similarly, in the royal commercial school the director shall be in immediate supervision of instruction in the subjects of international commerce and trade, physical, political and commercial geography, and legal and economic subjects.

(b) TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Ranking immediately above the industrial and commercial schools of the second grade are the technical schools intermediate between the higher elementary schools and the *istituti tecnici*, admitting pupils upon the completion of the higher elementary courses, and upon special examination in Italian, mathematics, and the elements

of the physical sciences. Their courses cover three years, and upon their completion the pupil is admitted to the *istituti tecnici*, the most highly specialized of all the divisions of secondary education. In the field of the lower technical schools Sig. Berenini has proposed to the Consiglio Superiore certain reforms calculated to subserve more fully the scientific needs of the nation. Chief among these are:

1. The decrease of two hours weekly in the schedule of each class, thus leaving three afternoons per week free of teaching, to be devoted preferably to physical education and the combination of the sciences and mathematics, thus preserving in the school all the subjects prescribed by the law.

2. The lightening of some subjects and distribution of others through the three years, as, for example, in Italian, the abolition of all rules of composition as well as all memorizing of names in Italian literature; the coordination of all study of Italian literature with history, substituting for the systematic and chronological study of history the biographical and episodic method; the reservation of the difficult points of cosmography for the second class; the beginning of geometry in the first class, and its limitation to a purely experimental and graphic nature.

3. The rendering identical the technical schools for girls with those for boys, in subjects, arrangement of courses, and schedules, except for instruction in domestic arts.

(c) NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The training of teachers for the elementary schools of Italy was earnestly and continuously discussed for years before Italy's entrance into the war. With new and unprecedented demands upon the schools, there has been a growing conviction that the traditional subjects and methods of training teachers were too exclusively literary to prepare teachers for the elementary school and that they must be thoroughly reconstructed. Under the existing system, teachers are trained in normal schools, separate for men and women, and offering three years' courses in pedagogy, lectures and theory, ethics, Italian language, literature, history and geography, mathematics, elements of natural sciences, hygiene, drawing, penmanship, elements of agriculture, gymnastics, and practice teaching in the first grade of the elementary school. For men, gymnastics and manual arts, and for women, household arts and kindergarten teaching are also required. Completion of the studies of the higher elementary school with examinations on selected subjects is necessary for admission.

In the criticism of the old order of training, and the demand for a more modern type, individuals, teacher's associations, and the

press participated. The National Teachers' Association, meeting in Rome in 1918 and using as a basis the results of the referendum taken among the teachers of 17 cities and towns, well summed up the situation as follows:

The elementary school had in the last few years become completely transformed in its character, and the demands made upon it had changed as well. It had doubled its content, and in its programs, no matter with what shortcomings, was at least attempting to embrace a new field of activities, and so to keep abreast of modern conditions. With this development, the normal schools, through no fault of their own, had not kept pace. They had been forced to continue to train teachers for the simple and primitive schools of half a century ago, long since outgrown, and they simply could not give adequate preparation for the complex demands of modern life.

This nation-wide demand for normal teaching reform crystalized early in 1918 in a bill presented by Sig. Berenini for passage by the Italian Parliament. Its progressive nature once made known, the bill found instant and hearty support, and the senate passed it with but little delay. In the Chamber of Deputies, however, it encountered unexpected opposition, and in June, 1918, was referred to a conference committee. Though its actual enactment was thus postponed, yet its passage is confidently anticipated. In content and scope this bill marks so decided an advance in the training of national teachers as to merit a careful examination of its main lines, based upon the actual legal provisions.

1. *Purpose.*—The teachers' institute (*istituto magistrale*) has the aim of preparing teachers for the elementary and popular schools. It shall be for men and for women, separate. If for men, it shall be of four years; if for women, seven years, the first two years to be counted as belonging to the *istituti* of the first grade, and the last five to those of the second grade.

2. *Relation to the present normal schools.*—The existing normal schools for women, with the annexed practice schools, are to be transformed into women's *istituti magistrali* of seven years; those without annexed practice schools are to be transformed into men's *istituti magistrali* of four years, corresponding to the last four years of the seven-year type, particular details to be left to the ministerial decree. Existing provincial, communal and other *istituti* for the training of teachers may secure rating as *istituti magistrali* upon conforming in all respects to the present law.

3. *Subjects to be taught.*—The subjects of the first six classes of the women's *istituti* shall be: Italian language, literature, history and geography, general pedagogy and ethics, French, mathematics, physical and natural sciences, domestic arts, drawing and penman-

ship, singing and physical education. The subjects to be taught in the first three classes of the men's *istituti* shall be identical with those for the corresponding years of women's *istituti*, except for the addition of agriculture, hygiene, and two years of manual arts. In the last class of all *istituti* shall be: History and methodology of pedagogy, hygiene, agriculture, singing, advanced physical education, and practice teaching in the annexed elementary or popular school, or kindergarten. Instruction in hygiene is to be imparted by specialists, and that in agriculture by a traveling instructor, or by an instructor in a neighboring practical school of agriculture, or by governmentally certified individuals. In localities where constant emigration exists, instruction may be imparted to pupils of the last year by qualified persons on the Government, industries, social conditions, etc., of the countries to which such emigration tends, in 10 lessons outside the regular schedule. For each such course of instruction in hygiene, agriculture, and emigration a fee of 20 lire (\$4) per year may be charged. The weekly schedule of the *istituto magistrale* shall not exceed 24 hours for any class, not including those devoted to singing and physical education. Details of the order of subjects, etc., shall be determined by the subsequent ministerial regulations.

4. *Annexed practice schools.*—To every *istituto magistrale* shall be annexed for purposes of practice teaching at least one complete grade of the elementary or popular school, under the direction of the head of the *istituto*; and if there are more than three sections of these there shall be annexed one additional grade of the practice school for each section. To every women's *istituto* there shall be annexed one class at least of the *asili infantili*, it being left to ministerial regulation to reorganize the existing Fröbelian classes in accordance with the needs of the *istituto*. Subject to the general oversight of the head of the *istituto*, the management of the annexed practice schools shall be entrusted to the professor of pedagogy, except that the courses in mathematics, physical and natural sciences in such practice schools shall be entrusted to the teacher of these sciences. In instructional matters the teacher of pedagogy shall be assisted by the professor of manual arts and drawing in such manner as shall be determined by ministerial decree.

5. *Admission to the istituti magistrali.*—Admission to the first class of the women's seven-year course shall be the same as that required for admission to the first class of the middle schools of the first grade; to all other classes by promotion examination.

Admission to the first class of the men's four-year *istituto* shall be by certificate of promotion from the third to the fourth class of the *ginnasi*, on the basis of the required examination; to all the other classes by promotion examination.

6. *Relation to other schools.*—The relation between the several classes of the *istituto magistrale* and the other middle schools shall be determined by the Giunta of the Consiglio Superiore. Promotion shall be governed by the rules in force for the other middle schools; but examinations shall be obligatory throughout the school year, and in pedagogy and ethics up to the end of the next to the last year. A special examination on hygiene and agriculture is required at the end of the course. Passing of the yearly examinations upon singing and physical education is required for promotion and for the qualification for teaching.

7. *Diplomas, fees, etc.*—The *istituti magistrali* confer the diploma of qualification for teaching in elementary and popular schools upon the completion of the respective seven or four years' courses. Candidates must have completed their eighteenth year.

Graduated fees for admission, attendance, and examinations in various subjects and years are charged.

8. *Equipment.*—Every *istituto magistrale*, both for men and women, shall be provided with (a) a scientific cabinet for instruction and experiment, in charge of the respective teachers; (b) laboratories for manual arts, hygiene, agriculture, drawing, and practice teaching, each in charge of the respective teacher; (c) a teachers' museum for instruction and practice teaching, in charge of the teacher of pedagogy; (d) a library and reading room, in charge of the teacher of history and geography; and (e) a well-equipped gymnasium and hall for teachers of physical education and singing. For expenses incurred under this head, 150,000 lire (\$30,000) shall be appropriated for 1918-19, to be increased by 50,000 annually up to 300,000 lire.

9. *Maintenance.*—The Province in which the *istituto* is situated shall provide the site and building, the furniture and school equipment, exclusive of the strictly didactic apparatus detailed above, and lighting and heating service. The commune in which the *istituto* is situated shall provide the site, buildings, and equipments of the practice schools annexed, and the salaries of the teachers employed in them. The Government shall provide the salaries of the teaching personnel of the *istituto* itself.

10. *Teachers.*—The teachers of the *istituto* shall be as follows, with the grouping of subjects as indicated:

One teacher (Class A¹) of pedagogy, ethics, and practice teaching; 8 teachers (8 of Class A and 1 of Class B) of the Italian language, literature and history, and geography; 1 teacher (Class A) of French; 1 teacher (Class A) of natural sciences; 1 teacher (Class

Class A are denoted incumbents of the full chair, with complete control of subject and methods. By Classes B and C are denoted assistants and subordinates, responsible to higher authority.

A) of manual arts; 1 teacher (Class B) of drawing and penmanship; 1 teacher (Class B) of domestic arts; 1 teacher (Class C) of physical education; and 1 instructor of hygiene and singing.

If in women's *istituto*, 1 teacher, of Class B, of domestic arts, and 1 mistress of the infant class.

Especial care shall be had in the selection of the teacher of manual arts. He shall be selected only by competitive examination and must be a person holding the regular qualifying degree in manual arts; or, under temporary provisions of the ministerial regulation, a person who has for four years taken summer courses in these subjects, with successful qualifying examinations. For the men's *istituto*, also, an instructor in agriculture is required. With the view of ultimately establishing distinctive schools of manual arts, provision shall be made in the men's *istituto*, in the discretion of the Consiglio Superiore, for two years' courses in manual arts, embracing practical exercises, mechanics, technical training, drawing, and the history and theory of manual-arts education.

11. *Application of the law.*—The present law, in its practical effects and modifications of groups of studies, shall be gradually applied from the beginning of the school year of 1918-19, in accordance with specific regulations to be promulgated by the Consiglio Superiore. Administrative heads of the present normal schools shall be ex officio heads of the new *istituti magistrali*.

Despite some points on which there is a difference of opinion among educational thinkers—as, for example, the organic grouping of Italian history and geography in one chair—the spirit and provisions of the projected law receive practically universal approval throughout Italy. It is regarded as realizing reforms long needed in the training of teachers, especially in the following respects: In prolonging the course of study, in reducing the excessive number of hours of weekly schedule, in abolishing pretentious striving after effect, in combining related courses of instruction, in organically correlating them, and so leading the pupil up to the concentration upon exclusively pedagogical subjects during the last year. The consensus of opinion is that while a more radical project for the training of teachers might have been presented, the one actually formulated is practical and feasible, and, while not too far in advance of the existing system, yet marks a long step forward in securing a national body of teachers better trained than any preceding one.

(d) GINNASI AND LICEI.

The wave of criticism directed against the various grades of education did not stop short of the traditional, and by their very nature, conservative middle schools of these titles. Appealing as they do

almost exclusively to boys intended for the universities and the professions, they have more steadily and successfully resisted all innovating projects than any other type. However, even the traditional *ginnasio-liceo* of the classical type, while it has maintained intact its eight years of prevailing cultural character with emphasis upon the ancient classics, has yet had to accept one hour additional weekly in history throughout the course, an hour additional in mathematics for two years, and compulsory study of physics, chemistry, and physical education. These modifications were the work of the Consiglio Superiore in 1917, which thus sought to adapt this type of institution to the urgent needs of additional instruction in sciences brought out by the war. Furthermore, criticism of static conditions shown by the enrollment of schools of this narrow type as contrasted with the far younger technical schools of the same grade had its effect in the demand for change. It was pointed out that the 458 schools of the traditional type, scattered over Italy, enrolled only 13,000 more pupils in 1917 than they did in 1901—54,000 against 41,000; whereas the newer technical schools, numbering 461 and existing only in central and northern Italy, had advanced from 50,621 pupils in 1901 to 182,194 in 1917.

Italian critics of this traditional type of school maintain that its chief weakness is the excessive extension of the programs of study, due to the desire of the educational authorities to please both parties and to impart at once a general and a special culture. Out of this very complexity has grown, however, an institution of a very useful nature, and one that, properly modified, bids fair to arrive at a happy mean intermediate between the two systems of training. This is the institution denominated since 1911 the *ginnasio-liceo moderno*, and approaching closely the type of scientific high school in America. By a species of compromise, the Consiglio Superiore in 1917 increased the total number of hours of instruction in Latin to 41, the largest assigned any one subject, but at the same time it increased the requirements in modern languages by one hour weekly in each throughout the entire course, allowed alternation between English and German, and increased the already existent scientific requirements. Despite the demand in this as in other fields for the diminution of hours of weekly recitation the excessive number already existing was left untouched even in the *ginnasi-licei moderni*, ranging from 22 to 27 or 28 hours, thus affording proof of its unchanged conservatism.

Discussion of the modifications in the middle school best adapted to suit needs after the war has already arisen. It is agreed that more attention must be paid the sciences, modern languages, and the modern sociological subjects; that the undue preponderance of examinations must be abolished, with transfer of emphasis to the daily

tasks; that the excessive number of pupils assigned to each teacher must be decreased to 30 or 40; and that better training must be demanded for teachers.

IV. UNIVERSITIES AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

While no fundamental university reform, projected or actual, is to be chronicled for the past two years as in the case of other branches of education in Italy, yet in spirit the universities have sustained significant changes in adapting themselves heartily to the war needs of the nation. It is safe to say that no other intellectual influence has been so powerful in waking the nation to a just conception of the historical and ethnological reasons for Italy's entrance into the war, and in keeping alive the sentiments of patriotism and consecration to duty as has been that of the universities. The first meeting of the National Association of University Professors to be held under war conditions gathered in Rome in December, 1916. The subjects proposed for discussion reflected the new and vigorous spirit that had come to be infused into the ancient seats of learning:

1. The future of the Italian book, and the ways and means of developing the national publication of literary and scientific material.
2. Methods of fuller participation by the universities in the aims and prosecution of the war.
3. The attracting of foreign students to Italian universities, and the proper rating to be given them for work presented.
4. The development of a national system of science, with endowments of scientific museums, cabinets, and laboratories.
5. Fundamental reforms in university administration and instruction relative to war needs, especially in the schools of pedagogy, the literatures of allied countries, and the applied sciences.
6. War-time preparation to be required of entering students.
7. Reasons for the resumption of the competitions for university chairs falling vacant, the naming of the rectors by the ministry only for the period of the war, and guarantees of impartial hearing of university professors under charges before impartial and competent authorities, and a system of international interchange of professors.

Formulated reports embodying the sentiment of the association upon these topics were transmitted for the approval of the minister and for his support for legal enactment.

In the essentially instructional domain, of interest is the concerted move to enlarge and extend the teaching of modern languages in many of the larger Italian universities. Fostered by the Minister of Public Instruction and the Consiglio Superiore, special efforts

have been made to establish chairs of English language and literature, with immediate installation of "lectors" for a limited period of service, thus allowing time and opportunity to secure men of eminent attainments for permanent professorships. In the modern languages the courses of instruction are of the same standard as those for Latin and Greek, except that in addition to the teaching professor, a lecturer is engaged so that students may perfect themselves in the actual pronunciation and use of the language. By decree of the Minister of Public Instruction, issued in November, 1918, eight university chairs of English language and literature were established, the designation of the particular universities being reserved. The Universities of Bologna and Turin have already established courses for the study of French, English, Spanish, and German.

Of even greater importance were the recommendations of the special committee appointed upon the project of a special scientific baccalaureate. These were approved by the minister and by him transmitted to the Consiglieri Superiori. As finally amended March, 1917, their main outlines were as follows:

1. In addition to existent degrees not affected by this regulation, the royal universities are empowered to confer on Italians as well as foreigners a special degree based on specific scientific training and studies freely chosen in accordance with these recommendations. Except in case of approved equivalence such special degree shall not have the value of professional qualifications, nor for admission to competition for posts in official service.

2. The studies for the attainment of the special degree shall have a duration of at least four years and embrace at least 12 duly certified courses, chosen by the candidate in the several faculties or schools. For such courses shall be counted only those specially related to the sciences, to be taken contemporaneously under diverse teachers or successively under the same teacher and leading uniformly to the development of one general theme. The years of instruction followed in foreign institutions are counted as by the rules hitherto in force; and for a fourth of the course to be pursued enrollment in the courses of the free universities may be counted when the program and the development are adjudged of equal value for the ends contemplated in this regulation.

3. Not later than the end of the third year of his studies the candidate must indicate the group in which he intends to take his degree, the course pursued, and those he intends to pursue. All details are left to the discretion of the teachers of the special group concerned.

4. The student, upon completion of his studies and presentation of the dissertation, shall be admitted to the examinations under the

rules in force governing degrees, which shall still be in force in all matters not expressly mentioned in this regulation.

The council of ministers enacted the recommendation into a royal decree, but only as applying to foreign students. Subsequently recognizing that this action denied to native students privileges granted to foreigners, they engaged at an early date to resume action upon it.

Further administrative action necessitated by the war was taken in decrees of the minister and consiglio superiore providing for special dates and places of examinations for university and higher secondary students in military service convenient of access to posts and family residences; conceding to all students enrolled under professional and advanced academic faculties and called to service formal enrollment for 1915-6 in the immediately higher courses as if actually present; and admitting to any institution of higher grade, without fees, students from the invaded territories or from allied countries as a result of war conditions upon evidence of satisfactory attainments.

Noteworthy is the inauguration, in 1917, of a "summer course in the Italian language and literature for foreigners of the allied nations," located in Siena. No other studies than those of language were offered. Courses were as follows, each of two hours weekly: Italian grammar, reading and pronunciation, readings in Dante, history of Italian literature, history of art, practical exercises in translation, correction of themes, and professors' conferences. Instructors were drawn from the faculty of the Royal University of Siena and from the teaching corps of the local *ginnasio-liceo* and the royal normal school. Social and archaeological features planned were excursions to monuments, buildings, and historical scenes in the vicinity. The use of all facilities of the local educational institutions was freely accorded.

By royal decree of December, 1917, the exchange of teachers between the royal middle and normal schools of Italy and the secondary higher schools of France was arranged for. The Italian teacher is to receive a compensation of not more than 2,500 lire (\$500), in the discretion of the Minister of Public Instruction, an allowance of as much as 80 per cent of his regular salary, and traveling expenses. The same purpose is manifest in the wider field of the *Associazione italiana per l'Intesa intellettuale fra i paesi alleati ed amici* (Italian Society for Intellectual Relations between Allied and Friendly Countries), founded in 1917 at the University of Rome. Its president is Senator V. Volterra, and the names best known in the literature of Italy are represented in the committee which directs its work and in the trimestral review setting forth its work. Its aims are as follows:

(1) More active relations between the universities, academies, and, in general, educational institutions of the allied and friendly countries.

(2) Intensification of the teaching of the Italian language in foreign countries, with wider teaching of the languages of allied and friendly countries in Italy.

(3) International exchange of teachers of every rank.

(4) Acknowledgment, based on reciprocity, of credits of admission to the universities and of the courses of lectures of the friendly and allied countries.

(5) Exchange of students either for special studies or for general acquaintance with the different countries.

(6) Facilitation of the exchange of publications and books devoted to a better knowledge of modern Italian literature.

(7) Translation of the best Italian works into other languages.

(8) Mutual cooperation in the field of science and its practical applications, and specially in that of private and international law.

(9) Intellectual relations of every kind to render more close, durable, and fruitful the union of the souls of the nations who fought the battles of civilization together.

At the beginning of 1918 the committee presented its plan of operation: It proposes to institute in the Ministry of Public Instruction an independent bureau which aims to promote and direct the exchange of teachers with foreign countries, to send abroad Italian savants for the purpose of teaching or pursuing scientific and historical researches, to invite to Italy with kindred purposes foreign teachers or students, to regulate and assign the matter of international fellowships, to provide eventually for the foundation of Italian institutes of higher education outside of the boundaries of Italy, and to favor in every way intellectual relations with the other nations.

The bureau is to consist of a council and an executive committee, both presided over by the Minister of Public Instruction. In the council, composed of 21 members, the faculties of the universities, the Ministry of Public Instruction with the two directors general of higher and middle instruction, the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, of Agriculture, and of Industry and Commerce, and the Parliament, are all duly represented. Representatives of private educational and intellectual agencies outside the school and state administration may be included at the discretion of the Minister of Public Instruction. The executive committee, composed of seven members and selected by the council from its own members, is charged with all practical details.

The Italian teachers who go abroad for research or for study, according to the plans of the bureau and with the approval of the

ministry, are distributed in three classes according to the probable or actual period of absence from the Kingdom—those for less than one year, others for more than one year and less than five years, and still others for a longer term. Foreigners teaching in Italy shall have conferred upon them the dignity of the Italian professor of equal rank, and under certain conditions legal validity is given the course of lectures conducted by them.

The projected law also determines the value of the studies pursued outside the Kingdom, those pursued by foreigners in Italy, and the value and status of fellowships. In general the studies and examinations pursued in foreign countries in the State institutions or those of established reputation are accorded the same value as studies and examinations in equivalent schools of the Kingdom. The fellowships are not restricted, as hitherto, to graduates, but are granted also to university students doing special work in laboratories, libraries, and foreign archives. Every year a certain number of fellowships shall be granted students and graduates from the high schools, normal and professional schools and special institutes for a period of not more than two years of study abroad.

To give a rapid development to this plan and cooperate with the State institutions in Italy and abroad for its accomplishment is now the most important task of the Italian Association and of such similar associations as may be established in allied and friendly countries.