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PROGRESS AND TRENDS IN ITALIAN EDUCATION

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Foreword

Italy is a fascinating mixture of the old and the new. On the one hand are its centuries of tradition, and on the other, parts of Italy which would almost qualify as underdeveloped areas. Professor Scarangelo is well aware of this complexity as he presents aspects of the current educational situation against the background of Italian educational history.

In addition to his secondary school teaching and administrative experience, Professor Scarangelo, during the last several years, made a study of Italian education as part of his doctoral work at Columbia University.

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Introduction

Jutting out into and dominating the central Mediterranean by her geographical position, Italy shares her northern borders with France, Switzerland, Austria, and Yugoslavia. The Italian peninsula comprises an area of approximately 116,000 square miles and the coastline extends for 2,472 miles, excluding Sicily, Sardinia, and smaller Italian islands.

According to the census of 1961, the population of Italy was 50,463,762. The nation's population density (433 per square mile) is one of the world's highest.

It would appear that Italy's geographical position guaranteed her from the very first an important place in the annals of world history, and in retrospect, this indeed has been the case. Often the initiator, sometimes the pawn, of world movements, her formative role cannot be denied. Most Italian history can, in fact, be summarized around the "4 R's": Rome, Religion, Renaissance, and *Risorgimento*.

For hundreds of years, Rome was mistress of the ancient world. And even as decay set in and the Empire began to decline, the tide of Christianity, also emanating from the "City of the Seven Hills," advanced.

From the fall of Rome (476 A.D.) until the *Risorgimento* Italy found itself the pawn of various invaders. At one time or another, Goths, Franks, Germans, Spaniards, and Austrians controlled portions of Italy, and for several hundred years some 17,000 square miles of Italian territory were under the temporal authority of the Popes. Internecine warfare added to the invasions and kept the peninsula in a state of disunity. Had the Church not inherited the authority formerly held by the Empire, it is quite possible that the fragmentation might have been even more severe.

Unity was forced on Italy in 1805 by Napoleon, who proclaimed himself King. After Waterloo, however, the Austrians replaced the French as the major power in the peninsula. But there were Italians who were not content with their nation's lot as a mere geographical expression, and rebellions broke out in many areas after the restorations dictated by the Congress of Vienna, under Metternich.

The movement for Italian unity is known as the *Risorgimento*, and its architects were Count Camille di Cavour, Giuseppe Mazzini, and

Giuseppe Garibaldi, who have been called "head, heart, and hand" of united Italy.

In 1861, Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed King of Italy, but it was not until 1870 that the Italian troops entered Rome, thus completing the process of unification. Subsequently, Italy followed an expansionist policy, allied herself with Germany and Austria-Hungary in the Triple Alliance, but chose, however, to enter World War I on the side of the Allies. After the war, economic problems and fear of Communism, along with other factors, paved the way for the Fascist dictatorship of Mussolini.

At the end of World War II Italy lay in ruins—physical, political, economic, and educational. A plebiscite held in 1946 resulted in the proclamation of the Italian Republic. King Humbert II abdicated and joined his father, King Victor Emmanuel III, in political exile.

Despite Italy's lack of natural resources and its unenviable position at the end of World War II, the achievements of the Italian economy over the past 15 years have been increasingly impressive. The Italian people have shown particular vitality in the areas of fashion, tourism, shipping, motion pictures, and literature in the postwar period.

PART I

PART I

A Survey of Italian Educational History

During the medieval period, through the Renaissance, and up to the 18th century, the clergy enjoyed a virtual monopoly in the field of Italian education. Certain forces combined in the 18th century to break the Church's monopoly of education and to institute in its stead the beginnings of lay education under the civil powers. But, though the Jesuits lost their hold on several Italian states, religious instruction continued to retain its important position.

The Laic Trend in Education

It was not until the Napoleonic invasions that the modern laic trend in education began and the first steps were taken toward an entirely lay and modern organization of education. After Napoleon's defeat, however, the Jesuits returned and reassumed control of secondary education. Thus, Italian education became again a dominion of the clergy. But it was increasingly clear that a unified and centralized school system was bound to follow, once Italy, a collection of individual states, was politically unified.

Beginning near the middle of the 19th century, a series of laws, decrees, regulations, and constitutions shaped the Italian educational system.

The Boncompagni Law

The Boncompagni Law (October 4, 1848) abolished many of the privileges of the clergy and eliminated their interference in state schools. It was the most important educational enactment of the State of Piedmont and later became the basis and foundation of the Casati Law of 1859, which in turn remained the nucleus of Italian educational law until the Gentile Reforms of 1923.

The Casati Law

The *Legge Casati* of 1859 was named after the then Minister of Public Instruction, Count Gabrio Casati. Originally the law was

meant to provide basic education for the states of Piedmont and Lombardy, but it later came to form the basis for a national system of education. The 374 articles of the law attest to its all-encompassing character, regulating all levels of education, primary through university, on a nationwide scale. The educational system was organized in three branches: Primary, secondary, classical, and higher education. The law visualized education for all children between the ages of 6 and 12 as the task of the municipalities, while other levels were left to the state.

Mario Pagella has reprinted the entire text of the Casati Law in his *Cento anni di storia della scuola Italiana (One Hundred Years of the History of the Italian School)*.¹ Based, as was the Boncompagni Law, on the French system of centralization of authority, the Casati Law continued the process of secularization of the schools. Religion was retained, however, as a required subject in the elementary grades, but was elective in the secondary. Private educational institutions were permitted to continue with their work as long as they complied with state requirements as laid down in the law.

Abolition of Theology in State Universities

A further step in the secularization of education was taken in 1871 with the introduction of a bill in the Chamber of Deputies calling for the abolition of the faculty of theology in all state universities. The bill was introduced by Minister of Public Instruction Correnti on May 13, 1871, and was subsequently pigeonholed. Reintroduced by Correnti 2 years later, it was passed by the Chamber on January 26, 1873.² Thus, chairs of theology in state universities were abolished.

The Coppino Law

The Coppino Law of 1877 was, in effect, the first to make education compulsory in Italy. The Casati Law had basically formulated the educational system, but left the provision of the first 6 years of education to the municipalities, which could evade the law as being too expensive to implement; approach it half-heartedly; or make every effort to live up to the letter of the law, as they saw fit. This resulted, as might have been expected, in very "spotty" education. Some municipalities provided excellent facilities and instruction; others made no effort in this direction.

¹ *Cento anni di storia della scuola Italiana—dalla legge Casati al 1958*. Roma: Edizione dell'unione cattolica Italiana insegnanti medi, 1958. p. 47-81.

² *Indice generale degli atti parlamentari storia dei collegi elettorali 1848-1897*. Roma: Tipografia della Camera dei Deputati, 1898. p. 620.

To counteract this situation, the Coppino Law made obligatory the provision of elementary education for all children between the ages of 6 and 9. It also extended education to every part of Italy, which the Casati Law of 1859 had not effectively done. However, where the Casati Law had been very explicit about the provision of religious instruction, the Coppino Law failed to mention religion, substituting in its place moral instruction under the heading, "The Elemental Duties of Man and the Citizen".³

The Orlando Law

Another forward step in the provision of education for all Italian youth was the passage of the Orlando Law, July 8, 1904, under which compulsory education was extended from 3 to 4 years. A sixth year was added to the 5-year school, and education for the ages 6-12 was made compulsory in the larger towns. Furthermore, a concerted effort to defeat illiteracy began, the communes being obliged to provide instruction for illiterates among the adults.

The Daneo-Credaro Law

On June 4, 1911, the Daneo-Credaro Law was passed, nationalizing the majority of the communal schools. This law was inevitable after Camillo Corradini's report of 1909,⁴ showing that the communal schools were indeed at a disadvantage, used for political purposes, and were often unfavorably looked upon because they drained limited resources at the local level—in short, that they were the step-children of education. Reports of the high rate of illiteracy, particularly in the south of Italy, also contributed to the movement toward nationalization and state monopoly, provided for in the Daneo-Credaro Law.

The Gentile Reform

The reform of 1923, largely the work of Lombardo Radice, was implemented by Giovanni Gentile. A professor of philosophy at the University of Palermo from 1907 to 1914, and later at the University of Pisa, Giovanni Gentile (1875-1944) became a senator in 1922, and for the next 2 years he also served as Mussolini's Minister of Public Education. In this office, he revised the structure of public education, working out the first major reform since 1859.

³ For provisions of the Coppino Law, see *ibid.*, p. 607.

⁴ Dina Bertoni Jovine. *La scuola italiana dal 1870 ai giorni nostri*. Cassino: Editori Riuniti, 1958. p. 182.

In Gentile's view, the Italian schools had placed too much emphasis on arid memorization and not enough on reasoning. At the heart of his "actual idealism" (the name he chose for his particular brand of Hegelian philosophy), education is seen as the formation of personality rather than the mere inculcation of knowledge. And it was this view that permeated the schools after 1923.

The title, Minister of Public Instruction, was changed to that of Minister of National Education in 1929, in keeping with the increasing centralization of education during the Fascist era in Italy. The title reverted to Minister of Public Instruction in the postwar period.

Education Under the Fascists

From the beginning, the Fascists had made no secret of their expectation that youth would be brought up to serve the state, and probably no state since Sparta made greater efforts in this direction. The law of April 3, 1926 (No. 2247), instituted a youth organization called the ONB (*Opera nazionale Balilla per l'assistenza e per l'educazione fisica e morale della gioventu*) for the assistance and for the physical and moral education of youth. The institution, later known popularly as the *Balilla*, in homage to a youth who had been martyred in earlier Italian history, had as its function the task of providing moral guidance and physical education for youth between the ages of 6 and 18. Designed at first for leisure activities of youth, the *Balilla* later became an integral part of many school activities, as well.

The Royal Decree of October 27, 1937, brought the *Balilla* and another youth, the *Avanguardisti* (Advanced Guards), into one central organization called the *Gioventu Italiana del Littorio* (Italian Youth of the Littorio), G.I.L. The youth organizations remained much the same, except that the G.I.L. maintained greater central control and administrative efficiency.

The G.I.L. had two divisions, for boys and girls, and others for age groups. For the boys, the divisions were: 6-8 years of age, *Figli della lupa* (wolf cubs); 8-11, *Balilla*; 11-18, *Balilla moschettieri* (Balilla Musketeers); 13-15, *Avanguardisti*; 15-17, *Avanguardisti moschettieri* (Advanced Guard Musketeers); 17-21, *Giovani Fascisti* (Young Fascists). Girls were divided into similar groups.

On all levels, the training varied according to age groups, but emphasis was placed throughout on health, militarism, gymnastics, parades, discipline, and patriotism. The girls' divisions stressed the domestic sciences, especially homemaking and the care of children. The boys were to grow up as fighters, "doers," and conquerors. It was no coincidence that the motto inscribed on the walls of the youths' meeting places and on their banners was the militant *Credere!*

Obbedire! Combattere! (Believe! Obey! Fight!). And the obedience to the Fascist state that was thus inculcated was also evident in the motto, *Mussolini ha sempre Ragione* (Mussolini is Always Right).

The School Charter of 1939

Eventually, almost all Italian youth between the ages of 6 and 21 came under the banner of the G.I.L., even though enlistment in the organization was supposedly voluntary. In the early 1940's, over 8 million youths were included in its militantly fascist programs, an integral part of Italian education during the period. The process was completed by the School Charter of 1939, which declared that "in the Fascist order, school age and political age coincide. School, G.I.L., and G.U.F. (Gruppo Universitaria Fascista) form together a unitary instrument of Fascist education."

While Gentile's reforms were largely an idealistic remaking of the Italian school, based as much on elitist views in pedagogy as on nationalism, the School Charter of 1939 was an unabashed effort to bring about complete Fascism in the schools of Italy.

After World War II

Defeat in World War II made complete the Italians' disillusionment with fascism. At the same time, the Italian people were confronted with the task of rebuilding a school system that had been almost totally destroyed physically. School buildings had to be repaired and others built. The problem was compounded by the extreme poverty that had followed in the war's wake. Equally important was the need, once the classrooms were provided, to eliminate fascism from the educational system, to train new teachers, to retrain the old, and to provide new textbooks, cleansed of the totalitarianism that pervaded the Fascist texts.

The organization of the educational system was not changed appreciably, though the spirit and objectives were democratized. In fact, the structure of Italian education, though it has been modified and retouched through the years, is basically the same as it was in 1859, on the eve of Italian unification. The credit for this is largely due to the excellent groundwork laid by Casati at that time, and by Boncompagni in 1848.

PART 2

PART II

Italian Education Today

The fundamental principles of modern Italian education were enunciated in the Constitution of 1947, which went into effect in January 1948. Seventeen articles in that important document deal with education. Since the full text of the Italian Constitution is not widely available in English, its most significant articles in the area of education are presented in Appendix A.

The Constitution makes it clear that schools are open to all Italian youth irrespective of sex, race, or religion. The rights of linguistic minorities are protected by the establishment of special schools where instruction is given in German, Slovenian, or French (Article 6).

In accordance with agreements made in 1929 between the Italian Government and the Pope, and later incorporated into the Italian Constitution (Article 7), religious instruction is included in the curriculums of both primary and secondary schools. Pupils have the right of conscience, however, and may be excused from religious instruction at the request of their parents.

Administration of the Schools

The Minister of Public Instruction, a member of the President's Cabinet, is responsible for the administration, supervision and coordination of all activities in the areas of education, culture and the arts. The main museums and public libraries, for example, as well as the schools, come under his supervision. His official title is *Ministro della Pubblica Istruzione*, though the ministry itself is usually referred to as the Ministry of Education.

On the local level, all schools are supervised by the *Provveditorati agli Studi* (provincial education departments), which in turn are responsible to the various *Direzione Generale* (general directorates), mainly those for elementary, secondary, and higher education. A separate directorate is responsible for the private schools.

Working with each state school is the *preside* or *direttore* (principal), the *consiglio di presidenza* (school board), and the *collegio dei professori* (teachers' board).

The curriculums in Italian schools are standardized. Emanating from the Ministry of Education, they must be followed by all schools, private as well as public. The purpose is to facilitate passing from a

private to a public school. If students in private schools deviate from the state-established curriculums, they do so at their own risk. All those who wish to obtain official certificates and degrees, essential for most of the better positions in Italy, must comply with the state regulations in curriculums.

There are three sections in the Higher Council of Public Education—primary, secondary, and university. This council plays an important role in Italian education, as the chief advisory body. It is made up of 60 members elected by the teachers of the aforementioned three groups. The Minister of Public Instruction acts as chairman of the council.

The methods by which Italian educational establishments are financed are rather complex, since money is supplied for different purposes from four major areas: State, regional, provincial, and municipal. Broadly speaking, the ministry pays teachers' salaries, while other expenses are absorbed by the regions, provinces, and communes. Since approximately 75 percent of the ministry's budget in recent years has been allotted to teachers' salaries, it is evident that this is the most important educational item on the national level.

In elementary and lower secondary education, less than 10 percent of the pupils are enrolled in private schools. In upper secondary education about 16 percent are in private schools. The situation is much different at the nursery and kindergarten level, where almost 99 percent of the pupils are in private schools. The total number of pupils and teachers in state and nonstate schools in Italy for the year 1962-63 is shown in the following table:

Total pupils and teachers in State and non-State schools, and percent of pupils in State schools, by age level and type of education: Italy, 1962-63¹

Type of education (1)	Age level: years (2)	State schools		Non-State schools		Total		Percent of pupils in State schools (9)
		Pupils (3)	Teachers (4)	Pupils (5)	Teachers (6)	Pupils (7)	Teachers (8)	
Preparatory education...	3-6	13, 069	428	1, 185, 041	35, 163	1, 198, 170	35, 591	1. 1
Primary education.....	6-11	4, 041, 710	186, 704	324, 575	12, 362	4, 366, 285	199, 066	92. 6
Junior high school.....	11-14							
Academic.....		751, 519	58, 530	106, 056	9, 834	857, 575	68, 364	87. 6
Vocational education.....		712, 459	64, 399	38, 133	3, 494	750, 592	67, 893	95. 0
Upper secondary education.....	14-19							
Liceo.....		189, 420	14, 710	39, 080	4, 445	228, 320	19, 155	82. 9
Teacher-training institutes.....		87, 114	7, 549	37, 487	3, 914	124, 601	11, 463	70. 0
Technical institutes.....		342, 225	26, 009	51, 051	5, 210	393, 276	31, 819	87. 0
Technical schools.....		11, 521	1, 135	4, 212	521	15, 733	1, 656	73. 2
Vocational institutes.....		229, 050	11, 845	7, 281	964	136, 311	12, 779	94. 7
Art and music education.....	10-20	26, 202	2, 960	5, 265	775	31, 467	3, 755	83. 3
University education.....	19-24	181, 300		32, 448		213, 838		84. 8
Total school population		6, 484, 979		1, 539, 629		8, 016, 768	451, 541	78. 0
Adult courses (of school type).....						265, 720	19, 158	

¹ Republic of Italy, Ministry of Public Instruction. *Report on the Educational Movement in 1962-63*. Presented at the XXVI International Conference of Public Instruction, Geneva, July 1963, p. 93.

School Organization and Structure

In general, the pattern of education in Italy today is as follows: Children may attend the *scuola materna* (nursery school/kindergarten) from 3-6 years of age, though attendance is optional. Elementary education is of 5 years duration, after which students are separated into two streams. Those who continue their education because of superior mental ability and ambition attend the 3-year *scuola medica* (junior high school-academic), which is the avenue to the *liceo* (academic secondary), and *istituto* (vocational secondary school). These students, upon passing the examination at the end of the secondary school, are assured entrance to the university. Others attend the 3-year *scuola di avviamento* (vocational junior high school), thus for the most part completing their education at the age of 14.

As of September 1963, a major change was instituted in Italian postelementary education. Under the provisions of a recently enacted law, all the vocational junior high schools were merged into the *scuole medie*, which became unitary junior high schools, offering grades 6, 7, and 8. In addition, enrollment in the unitary school became compulsory for the first time; heretofore it was possible to complete one's compulsory education in the last three grades, 6, 7, and 8, of the elementary school.

After completing the junior high school, usually at the age of 13 or 14, students may choose from various institutions, depending on the kind of education they wish to obtain, as well as their professional plans. Some students complete the vocational junior high school and then enter a terminal-type vocational school of 2 or 3 years (grades 9, 10, and possibly 11). Graduates of the academic junior high school may enter one of the higher secondary schools. The major types of these schools are:

1. *ginnasio e liceo classico* (gymnasium, 2 years, plus classical lyceum, 3 years); emphasis is placed on Latin and Greek, and preparation for a classical education.
2. *liceo scientifico* (scientific lyceum, 5 years); emphasis is on mathematics and science in preparation for a scientific career.
3. *istituto magistrale* (teacher-training school, 4 years); emphasis is on courses in pedagogy for preparation of elementary school teachers. Practical work is required in the last year of the course. It is expected that this will become a 5-year school in the near future.
4. *liceo artistico* (artistic lyceum, 4 years); specialized training of an academic character in art and culture. Graduates of this school are admitted to university faculties of architecture; they may also attend the Academy of Fine Arts, which specializes in painting, sculpture, and scenic design.
5. *istituto tecnico agrario* (secondary school of agriculture, 5 years); emphasis on scientific agriculture.

6. *istituto tecnico commerciale e per geometri* (vocational secondary institute of commerce and surveying, 5 years); emphasis on business subjects.
7. *istituto tecnico industriale* (vocational secondary institute of industry, 5 years); specialization is offered in various fields, such as textiles, mining, metallurgy.
8. *istituto tecnico nautico* (vocational secondary institute of nautical studies, 5 years); emphasis on navigation, marine engineering, and ship-building.

Students who complete the programs in the various *licei* as well as the *scuola magistrale* (teacher-training school) take government-controlled examinations (*esame di maturità*), leading to higher education. Students of the various *istituti* take instead the examinations for the *diploma di perito*. Students who attend the technical institutes are qualified to practice their vocation upon receipt of the diploma. Many choose to continue their studies in higher institutes, at university level, specializing in such areas as economics, commercial studies, and architecture. Once the student has earned his secondary school diploma (*maturità*) he is free to enter any university of his choice.

From this brief sketch, it can be seen that the emphasis in Italy, as in Europe generally, still rests on early student selection and on education for the elite. However, a number of reform movements, especially since World War II, have had as their aim a broadening of Italian educational opportunities to meet the needs of all youth.

Teacher Education

Since education in Italy is under the direct supervision and regulation of the central Ministry of Education, most Italian school teachers are, in effect, civil servants. Teachers for the primary schools are trained in a 4-year teacher-training institute on secondary school level, after successful completion of the 3-year junior high school. Elementary school teachers in Italy, thus, are ready to commence teaching usually at the age of 17 or 18.

The 4-year curriculum of the *istituto magistrale* includes the following subjects:

Philosophy	Physics
Psychology	Chemistry
Pedagogy	Natural Sciences
Italian	Foreign Language (1)
Latin	Drawing
Mathematics	History of art
Geography	Music and singing
History	Civic education
Physical education/Religion	

Students also engage in practice teaching in neighborhood schools. In addition, a *scuola materna* is attached to each teacher-training school, providing much-needed actual observation of children, as a means of keeping teacher education from being too theoretical. After completing the 4-year program of the *istituto magistrale*, students must then take competitive state teachers' examinations, in order to teach in the public schools. If they have not taken the state examinations, but have been awarded the primary teacher's certificate by the *istituto magistrale*, certifying to successful completion of the teacher-training program, they may obtain employment in private schools or as tutors.

Teachers in the lower types of technical and vocational schools, because of the practical training required, must have qualifications different from those of other secondary school teachers. These technical-practical teachers (*insegnanti tecnico-pratici*) must hold a technical teacher's diploma. Like other teachers, they are selected on a competitive basis.

In other types of secondary schools, teachers, with few exceptions, must hold the *laurea* (university degree), usually earned after 4 years' study. They, too, must take competitive national examinations.

Higher Education

Almost half of Italy's state universities were founded before 1350. The University of Bologna, the oldest in the Western World, was established in 1088, 548 years before Harvard University.

There are approximately 40 universities or higher institutes in Italy. Most of these are state institutions, though there are several private or "free" universities. Appendix B contains a list of Italian institutions of higher education and their constituent faculties. Many of the universities have faculties of law, literature and philosophy (humanities), science and mathematics, agriculture, commerce and economics, education, and medicine.

Graduates of the *licei*, having passed the *maturità*, are admitted to the universities without examinations. Graduates of the classical *liceo* may enroll in any faculty of a university, while those from the scientific *liceo* may enroll in all faculties except law, philosophy, and literature. After passing an examination, graduates of the teacher-training institute may attend courses in the faculty of education. Graduates of the various *istituti tecnici* are free to enroll in the faculties of agriculture, economics and commerce, statistics and actuarial science, nautical studies and oriental studies.

The number of Italian university students has nearly tripled over the past 25 years. In 1938, the number of students was approximately 75,000;² enrollments in 1963 were approximately 214,000.³

The major problems facing Italian universities today were well summarized in *The Italian Scene*:⁴

The number of students in Italian universities is growing beyond the capacity of absorption of these ancient and unevenly distributed institutions, posing a problem whose solution appears to some pedagogists like chasing the end of the rainbow. Remedies proposed 3 years ago already seem inadequate.

This year (1962) 249,588 young men are enrolled in institutions of higher learning . . . Perhaps a fifth of these are *fuori corso*—students who are still trying for a degree which they failed to obtain in the regular 4 to 6 years required by their faculty. [The more refined figure for university enrollment in 1963 was 214,000, as stated above.] The others, however, are routine pacers advancing steadily toward the brink when, with a doctorate in their pocket, they will pour out like a steady brimming river into the professions. In the present industrial boom, those from the scientific faculties have no difficulty in finding a prompt niche.

In fact, students enrolled in engineering have jumped in one year from 14 to 24 thousand, thus placing their faculties in the worst crises of all through lack of staff and teaching space. There is instead a slight, yet hard-to-explain, contraction of enrollment in the faculties of natural sciences, physics and pure mathematics.

The highest enrollment today is found in the faculties of Economics (55,000), followed by Jurisprudence (43,000), *Magistero*, or Education (25,000) and *Belles Lettres* (21,000).

There was talk some time back of suppressing certain of the smaller universities . . . Now, naturally, this talk is outdated. The problem is how to open and staff new universities in the south—and especially how to increase the science faculties in the ones already existing there.

There is also a call for more variety of specialization within each faculty, although this is opposed by scholars who believe that a university's purpose is to turn out other well-rounded scholars, and not simply youngsters to be fitted into the grooves of the ever more complex industrial world. Meanwhile, in many university faculties, such as the Rome Engineering School, students are arriving in the morning with camp stools because the class seats cannot hold them all.

Although Italian universities are regulated and supervised by the Ministry of Education, they are permitted almost unlimited freedom, operating with very little interference from the state. The well-established tradition of academic freedom, even if it is "frozen" at times—as during the Fascist era, when professors, in order to teach, were required to take loyalty oaths⁵—remains the cornerstone of higher education in Italy.

² Newburn, H. K. "Organisation and Administration of Universities in France, Italy and Great Britain". *The Educational Record*, July 1963. p. 247.

³ Republic of Italy, Ministry of Public Instruction. *Report of the Educational Movement in 1962-1963*. Presented at the XXVI International Conference of Public Instruction. Geneva: July 1963. p. 98.

⁴ May 1962, pp. 14-15.

⁵ Twelve, including Benedetto Croce, refused to do so.

University Administration

The Italian professor plays an important part in the administration of the institution in which he teaches. Professional administration, as it is studied, practiced, and developed in some other countries, is relatively rare in Italy. In brief, a university council, made up of all the full professors of the university, elects the rector, who is chosen for a 3-year term. A dean for each faculty is elected in the same manner and for the same length of time. He presides over the faculty council, which comprises all the regular professors of the individual faculty. It is the faculty council which plans courses, designates instructors, and governs the internal affairs of the faculty, among other things. Each institution also has an academic council, which oversees the detailed operations of the institution. It will be seen that the professors thus have many opportunities of expressing themselves, and of participating in the university administration. In fact, they are the administration.

Also, the caliber of the teachers, academically speaking, is unquestionably high, for the universities are staffed by competitive examinations. Thus, the concept of an intellectual elite commences with the selection of the student body and is carried through logically in the competitive staffing of the various faculties.

Lecturers in Italian universities must have a university degree, and in order to qualify as professors, must pass further examinations judged by professors of the faculties in which they wish to specialize. At present there are approximately 5,000 full-time professors and lecturers in the universities and higher institutes of university level. To this figure must be added several thousand qualified, part-time teachers.

The Italian university school year runs from November to June. Fees at state-controlled universities are low by American standards, averaging less than \$150 per year. It should be noted, too, that the university year is not divided into terms, so that it is difficult, if not impossible, to initiate one's study at any time other than at the beginning of the academic year.

The course in the faculties of letters, law, agriculture, pharmacy, and economics and commerce lasts 4 years. In sciences and engineering the course lasts 5 years, and in medicine and surgery, 6. One degree is awarded, the *laurea*, which, except in medicine and surgery, is probably the equivalent of an American M.A., or in some cases, slightly more. Generally speaking, the *laurea* is not up to the level of the Ph. D., but every degree holder in title-conscious Italy is referred to as *dottore*.

PART 3

PART III

Current Issues, Problems, and Trends

Since the end of World War II, discussion in Italian educational circles has centered around a number of persistent and recurring issues, which have properly occupied the attention of the various leaders of the educational reform movement.

Attention is usually focused on four major problems: (1) the continuing high rate of illiteracy in the nation's *mezzogiorno*, or the south; (2) the need for more and better training in vocational and technical education; (3) the apparent inability of the nation to educate all youth—at least up to the obligatory age of 14; and (4) the continuing church-state conflict in education.

Among other topics which have engendered great interest among Italian educational leaders are: how much Latin, if any, should be required; the weaknesses of the teacher-training institutions, the *scuole magistrale*; inadequate finances for the educational needs of a growing population; continued parental demands for white-collar education for children at a time when Italy is in great need of trained engineers, technicians, and educated industrial workers; and the rising tide of juvenile delinquency, which has become increasingly apparent over the past decade in Italy, as elsewhere.*

Dr. A. Armando, who has long sought revision of the *scuole magistrale*, recommends that comparative studies of teacher-training institutions, for the preparation of nursery school and elementary school teachers, be continued with a view toward eventually strengthening these schools, which are generally considered to be the weakest link in the nation's teacher preparation. Critics of the present *magistrale* schools hold, among other opinions, that the training period is too brief to develop competent teachers, and that more practice teaching is needed.

The Latin Question

In recent years, the teaching of Latin has been under indictment in Italy as never before. The main charge leveled against the subject

* See Luigi Volpicelli, *La scuola in Italia e il problema sociale* (Roma: Armando Armando, Editore 1959). p. 85-120.

in the past has been its so-called "uselessness" in a society that cries out for functionalism. Politics has colored the argument, with the Socialists and the Communists, particularly the latter, holding that Latin is a class subject, which divides the youth of Italy into the "aristocrats," those who have studied Latin, and the "plebians," those who have not. One writer has put the Latin issue this way:

To accuse Latin of being "aristocratic" is perhaps to come unwittingly to its defense. Where the mind is concerned, to achieve *aristos*—the best—must always be the goal. On the other hand, no one can really pinpoint how Latin benefits a youngster apart from opening his eyes to a civilization which is at the root of ours. Curiously enough, the best justification for Latin rests on experience and practice, which is the very same test that modernizers always invoke. Take this fact: there are some Italian university courses (for instance, in architecture), which are open to students who may have, or may have not, previously studied Latin. All architectural teachers are agreed that the "non-Latin" students, who have taken more mathematics courses, are definitely ahead during the first year. However they definitely lose this lead during the second year and never regain it."

While the fate of Latin in the *scuole medie* of Italy was being settled in the Chamber of Deputies during 1962, Deputy Riccio spoke in defense of its retention as a required subject. Signor Riccio, a Christian Democrat, argued that though it was true that a definite need existed for increased emphasis on science, mathematics, and technology in modern education, it should not be sought at the expense of the humanities, at the foundation of which was Latin.

Despite Riccio's eloquence, the bill was passed, and as of September, 1963, Latin became optional in the lower junior high school. At the same time, the Parliament passed a bill making it obligatory for all children to have 3 years in the junior high school following their elementary education of 5 years. This served to make the Latin argument somewhat academic, for:

There is a dearth of Latin teachers in the schools as they are at present, and in many instances university students have been offered the job of teaching beginner's Latin. If Latin were kept on as an obligatory course in the expanded *scuole medie*, there would be no one to teach it to so many moppets. *Ad impossibilia nemo tenetur* the school authorities could answer. Which, in the evicted language, means that no one can be compelled to the impossible."

Though Latin is optional in the junior high schools, only those who have taken it are admitted to the classical *liceo*, the elite of the secondary schools. Others must be content with pursuing their upper secondary education in the modern *liceo*, the teacher-training institute, or the much more technical *istituto tecnico*.

The progress which has been made in the *scuola media* revisions and the redefinition of the place of Latin in education are the out-

¹⁰ *The Italian Scene*, August-September, 1962, p. 11.

¹¹ *The Italian Scene*, January 1963, p. 15.

growth of the many reform movements that have developed in postwar Italy. Education ministers Gonella, Rossi, Medici, Bosco, and Gui all proposed ambitious plans for educational reforms, a number of which have been implemented.

The Gonella Plan for Educational Reform

The most thorough of the proposed reforms was that of Minister Gonella in the immediate postwar years. The main provisions of the Gonella Plan were:

1. Extension of school for those between the ages 3-6 (*scuole materne*) to the poorer and more remote areas of the nation by making it compulsory for all communes to establish such schools with the assistance of state aid.
2. Developing a workable system of vocational schools.
3. Closing the gap between theory and practice in the schools.
4. Seeking to eliminate illiteracy.
5. Making the schools truly belong to the people by enforcing the principle that all children should be educated at least to the age of 14.

Democratically inspired, the product of sound educational thinking by those inside as well as outside the Ministry of Education, the plan was shelved at the same time that Gonella left the Ministry. Many of his ideas, however, were eventually incorporated into the school system, particularly those dealing with vocational and technical education. Perhaps most damaging was the defeat of his proposals for a *scuola unica* (single school) which would have provided a relatively common education for all in the 11-14-year range. This continued to be the heart of the controversy. Minister Paola Rossi, Gonella's successor, appointed a special commission of inquiry in April 1958 to pursue study of the subject of the *scuola unica*, but the Rossi Plan was similarly shelved.

The Fanfani 10-year Plan

In 1958, the most ambitious educational plan in the nation's history was proposed by Prime Minister Amintore Fanfani.¹² Covering the years 1959-69, the Fanfani plan called for a \$2,200,000,000 additional expenditure over the entire period, representing 36 percent more than would ordinarily be spent for the reorganization and extension of Italian schools.

As salient points of his plan, Fanfani enumerated three:

First: The introduction, according to the provisions of the Constitution, of absolutely free education until the age of 14 and the extension—something which not even the Constitution required—of this principle to free education in professional schools regardless of age.

¹² Borghi, Lamberto and Scarangello, Anthony. "Italy's Ten-Year Education Plan," *Comparative Education Review*, June 1960. p. 26-30.

Second: The construction of 150,000 new schoolrooms in addition to the rooms necessary for the new university construction program. Thus we will satisfy all present needs and will meet requirements for an increase in the student population in the next few years.

Third: An increase in personnel and services on every grade and level to the extent of 70,000 positions.¹³

Summary of the plan:

1. Extension and integration of extraordinary appropriations for the building of new schools.
2. Special building appropriations consisting of contributions for day schools . . . appropriations for the construction or remodeling of rural elementary schools totaling \$1,700,000 for each of the 10 fiscal years.
3. Appropriations for university construction.
4. Appropriations for the functioning of day nurseries . . . [and] for aid to needy students . . . [and] for people's schools.
5. Appropriations for the institution of additional elementary school classes.
6. Appropriations for scholarships.
7. Increased expenditures for assistance to university students.
8. Expenditures for supplies and equipment for laboratories, workshops, and libraries in elementary and secondary schools . . . [and] for donations to scientific and teaching equipment required by universities.
9. Increase of regular state grants to universities and special scientific institutes.
10. Assurance of appropriate personnel requirements with staff increases where needed.
11. Creation of an additional 180 university chairs and of 900 additional posts of university assistant.
12. Absolutely free education in compulsory and professional schools, free of taxes and other fees of any kind for matriculation, attendance, or examinations in the above schools, beginning with the 1959-60 scholastic year.¹⁴

Though the Senate approved Fanfani's 10-year plan, and the Chamber of Deputies was favorably disposed to it, the Government decided to shelve it, and instead reduced the duration of the program to a 3-year period from July 1962 to June 1965. During this period about \$10 million a year will be appropriated for scholarships for secondary education. The Government is to prepare a new long-term school plan, which may, incidentally, proceed along the lines formulated in the original Fanfani proposals.

Also basic to the new 3-year plan are the following objectives:

1. Destruction of the last remnants of illiteracy in Italy (now approximately 2 percent in the north and as high as 25 percent in some sections of the south).
2. Making certain that all youth attend school until the obligatory age of 14 (truancy in the south has always been high).
3. Giving to all young people the opportunity to continue their studies, including university level; and providing necessary teachers and buildings wherever these are in short supply.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 26.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

Compared with the planned additional expenditures of \$2,200 million envisioned in the 10-year plan, the present 3-year plan calls for extraordinary expenditures of approximately \$416 million during the 1962-65 period. The specifics of the 3-year plan have been summed up as follows:¹⁵

School buildings: The Ministry of Public Works during the 1962-65 three-year period will contribute a total of \$5,200,000 in each fiscal year to the interest on loans incurred by local administrations for the construction of school buildings. During the same period an additional sum of \$800,000 will be added to the \$2,400,000 already appropriated for the construction of public nursery school buildings.

A sum of \$4,500,000 in each fiscal year is allotted for loans for the construction of private nursery school buildings. This loan may be paid off within a twenty-year period, free of interest.

Nursery schools: The sum of \$2,400,000 is allotted for 1962-63, a larger appropriation for 1963-64, and \$2,800,000 in 1964-65, to operate the state nursery schools. For private nursery schools \$4,000,000 will be contributed for each of the three fiscal years. These contributions, however, are subordinated to the admission of needy pupils free of charge.

Aid to needy students: Contributions will be increased, starting from 1962-63, by \$8,000,000 over their present total and will remain at this level. An additional \$2,400,000 will be allotted for free transportation of school children in each of the three fiscal years covered by the plan.

Text books: An appropriation of \$20,500,000 has been allotted for the supplying of free text books to elementary school pupils during this three-year period.

Teaching and scientific equipment: Appropriations of \$14,200,000 in each fiscal year have been allocated for teaching and scientific equipment in elementary and secondary schools and art institutes and schools.

Scholarships: These will be granted up to a total of \$9,600,000 in each fiscal year on the basis of competitive examination in each province. Pupils of State schools and of officially recognized private schools will be eligible.

Staff: For additions to the teaching staffs of elementary, secondary, and art schools, appropriations of \$20,700,000 have been requested for in 1962-63; \$44,200,000 in 1963-64; and \$64,200,000 in 1964-65.

Universities: For each fiscal year in the three-year period, there will be appropriations of \$11,300,000 for the construction of university buildings and \$4,800,000 per year for ordinary equipment.

The appropriation for various forms of aid to university students, including scholarships, will be \$4,600,000 in the fiscal year 1962-63 and \$5,000,000 in 1964-65. The ordinary State contribution to universities will be \$11,200,000 in 1962-63 and \$12,300,000 in 1964-65. A further \$8,000,000 a year will go for the scientific equipment; \$400,000 a year will be allocated to the libraries of State universities.

University chairs: Sixty new chairs will be available for the 1963-64 scholastic year, and a further 60 for the 1964-65 scholastic year. (At least one-third of these posts will be allocated to departments which already have chairs.) In addition, 75 new chairs will be instituted in new universities to be built.

¹⁵ "The New Three-Year Education Plan," *Italian Report*, June 1962, p. 15-16.

Speaking of the plan at the time it was instituted, the Minister of Public Instruction, Luigi Gui, said: "For the first time the Chamber of Deputies has approved an organic and comprehensive education plan. This plan is limited to 3 years, instead of 10, but it is the beginning of a broader and more extensive programming which will be based upon the results of the Committee."

The new requirement of compulsory education to the age of 14, and required attendance at the *scuola media* signify a notable advance in Italian education, and may permit more mobility within the Italian society.

It is not without good reason that both the proposed 10-year plan and the present 3-year plan are largely concerned with financial appropriations. In the Fascist period, appropriations for national education were approximately 6 percent of government expenditures, or slightly more than 3 percent of the national income. In the postwar period, expenditures for education approximated 13 percent of government expenditures, or 3 percent of the national income. Since instructional costs absorbed over 75 percent of the national appropriations for education, it can readily be seen that little was left from the national treasury to assist the regions, provinces, and municipalities with funds for school buildings, scholarships, textbooks, and teaching equipment. Largely because of the additional appropriations called for in the present 3-year plan, allocations for fiscal year 1963 amounted to approximately \$1,250 million, about 18 percent of the national budget, and 5 percent of the national income of Italy.

Despite the dimensions of the educational problems facing the nation, notable advances have been made. In the postwar period, reading centers were opened throughout Italy, and there are now 6,000 in operation, with another 4,000 in the planning stage. In the field of adult education, the *scuola popolare* (people's school) has played an important role. The school was proposed in 1947 by Guido Gonella, then Minister of Public Instruction, to combat adult illiteracy and juvenile delinquency, as well as teacher unemployment. It is open to children over 12 and adults in general who wish to learn to read and write, or to complete elementary studies.

Educational Television

Particularly successful have been the early Italian efforts to utilize television as an educational tool. *Non è mai troppo tarde* (It's Never too Late) was initiated in 1960 to teach illiterate adults to read and write. An advanced section was added in 1961, as enthusiasm for the program developed and the audience grew. A broader course was added in 1962, including material on history, geography, arith-

metic, civics, drama, music, and literature. In 1961, "Political Forum" was introduced, a television program designed to educate voters on issues and political figures on the current scene.

In fact, television is being used more extensively for educational programs in Italy than in most other countries. An advanced program taught by university personnel is offered in science. There are well-established *scuola media* and *liceo* level programs for those who, because of distance or other reasons, cannot have a proper secondary education. In addition, *Telescuola* (television school), now in its sixth year of operation, offers a regular vocational school course entirely through its medium for those children who have not completed their postprimary studies. Even Latin lessons are given, making up part of the general *scuola media* television offerings by which RTI (*Radio Televisione Italiana*) attempts to bring education to the more remote regions of the land. Most of these programs emanate from Rome.

Recurrent Educational Problems

The vocational and technical training of Italian youth, as well as the plight of unskilled workers, is of topical importance and often discussed. The knowledge that by the age of 14, almost 70 percent of Italian students have dropped out of school altogether is understandably of concern to educational authorities. It has been noted that today about a million young people between the ages of 14 and 21 have no training that would qualify them for a skilled job or profession.

Over and above the real concern with vocational education and technical training there is the perennial question of inadequate finances. It has been estimated that 7,500 new elementary classrooms must be constructed annually in the course of the next decade to make up for the present shortage of 80,000 classrooms. Science laboratories in the schools are often inadequately equipped with the result that the teaching of science is often more bookish and theoretical than it need be. It is sometimes held that this is due to the theoretical propensities of the teachers, but the blame probably lies elsewhere: Books cost less than properly equipped laboratories.

School libraries are not as widespread as they need to be, nor are they as well equipped as school officials would desire, for the same financial reasons. Perhaps worst of all, teachers continue to supplement their inadequate salaries by giving private lessons and by accepting other part-time employment. Teachers' salaries on all levels have been notoriously low in Italy, and the present Minister of Education's problem has been compounded by the industrial boom.

More attractive positions in industry in Italy, as elsewhere, bring about a decline in applicants for teaching positions.

But the picture of educational finances is not entirely dark. Eighteen percent of the present national budget—5 percent of the national income—is being currently spent on education. Though critics feel this is still low—the United States, for example spends about 6 percent of its national income on education—much progress has been made in providing more adequate funds, especially since 1959. At that time, a UNESCO report placed Italy 39th in a list of 52 countries on the basis of per capita expenditure for education. Based on the extraordinary (over and above usual budgetary allocations) appropriations for education, called for first in the 10-year plan and later in the 3-year plan, a similar study would show that Italy has advanced considerably in the past 5 years. In this period, there has been a great increase in the number of scholarships awarded another forward movement in the democratization of the schools.

The construction of school buildings is of special concern, for the mobility of the nation has increased with prosperity. Major shifts in population are from south to north, and from farm regions to urban areas. One of the results of this movement has been a disproportion in the available classroom space in different areas. For example, in country districts, from which many have migrated to the industrial north, classrooms are half empty, while in the most urban areas, schools working in double sessions are not uncommon.

Italian universities, too, have their problems. Despite the great need for university graduates in certain fields, particularly science and engineering, there is a problem of the educated unemployed, or the educated underemployed. Many university graduates, especially those who have majored in law and literature, are having difficulty in finding positions consonant with their training because of the surplus of college-trained people in certain fields.

Starting with the 1963 academic year, all needy students who have earned above average grades in the final examinations of the secondary schools receive a *presalario*, or stipend. The sum varies between 200,000 and 350,000 lire for each academic year (the present rate of exchange is 625 lire per \$1.00). This measure is part of the nation's effort to insure a sufficient number of university-trained people to fill the posts that are rapidly opening in the technological world. Critics of the law which provides for these stipends wished to limit the funds to those pursuing courses in engineering, science, mathematics, physics and similar faculties, but were defeated.

Of the approximately 25,000 university students who complete their studies annually, fewer than 3,000 are trained as engineers and only 4,000 as mathematicians. Experts who have devoted their special

attention to the problem feel that in the near future students in universities and higher institutes of university level will double in number. At the same time, it is their hope that those in the scientific faculties will quadruple, if Italy is to fulfill its promise in the technological age.

To present the foregoing problems in Italian education is not to detract from the splendid advances made over the past decade. Rather, it is only to emphasize that this progress must be maintained and accelerated if Italy is to continue to compensate with trained intelligence for the other resources which nature has denied her.

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Glossary

- bibliobus*—traveling library
- Biblioteca Pedagogica Nazionale*—National Education Library (Florence)
- Centri Didattici Nazionali*—National Teaching Centers (These are research and experimental centers with major centers in Florence and Rome.)
- Centro Didattico Nazionale per la Scuola Secondaria*—National Teaching Center for Secondary Education
- centro di cultura popolare*—center of people's culture
- centro di lettura*—reading center
- certificato di proscioglimento dall'obbligo dell'istruzione inferiore*—certificate awarded to students completing their obligatory education at elementary school level, comprising total 8-year program.
- collegio dei professori*—teachers' board
- commissari*—inspectors
- conservatorio di musica e liceo musicale*—vocational training school of music; total program 10 years after 4 years of *scuola elementare*
- consiglio di presidenza*—school board
- *Consorzi Provinciali per l'Istruzione Tecnica*—Provincial Unions for Technical Education
- diploma di abilitazione all'insegnamento*—diploma certifying that the graduate is qualified to teach; awarded after successful completion of the *scuola di magistero professionale*, *magistero*, and the *conservatorio di musica e liceo musicale*.
- diploma di artiere specializzato*—diploma awarded after successful completion of the *scuola d'arte*.
- diploma di maestro d'arte*—diploma awarded after successful completion of the *istituto d'arte*
- diploma di perito*—diploma attesting to successful completion of the various *istituti* programs (*istituto tecnico agrario*, *istituto tecnico commerciale e per geometri*, *istituto tecnico industriale*, *istituto tecnico nautico*)
- diploma tecnico*—technician's diploma; awarded after successful completion of the 2-year programs of the *scuola tecnica agraria*, *scuola tecnica commerciale*, and the *scuola tecnica industriale*
- direttore (or preside)*—school principal
- Ente Nazionale per l'Educazione Marinara*—National Organization for Maritime Education
- esame di ammissione*—examination taken for entrance to the *scuola media*
- esame di idoneità*—examination for promotion from grade-to-grade
- esame di licenza*—leaving examination taken at the end of the programs in *scuola media* and *scuola di avviamento professionale*
- esame di maturità*—examination taken after completion of upper secondary studies (*liceo classico*, *liceo scientifico*, *istituto magistrale*, *liceo artistico*); requisite for university admission
- insegnanti tecnico-pratici*—technical-practical teachers; must hold a technical teacher's diploma
- istituto d'arte*—vocational training school of art; an 8-year program, including 2 years of teacher preparation in the final stage; entered after 5 years of elementary school

- istituto magistrale*—teacher-training institute for *scuola elementare* teachers
- istituto tecnico agrario*—secondary institute of agriculture; 5-year program; entrance from *scuola media*
- istituto tecnico commerciale e per geometri*—secondary institute of commerce and surveying; 5-year program; entrance from *scuola media*
- istituto tecnico industriale*—secondary institute of industry; 5-year program; entrance from *scuola media*
- istituto tecnico nautico*—secondary institute of nautical studies; 5-year program; entrance from *scuola media*
- laurea*—Italian university degree
- licenza elementare*—elementary school-leaving certificate, awarded after successful completion of 5-year program
- liceo artistico*—secondary school with emphasis on fine arts
- liceo classico*—upper secondary school; emphasis on classic languages and literary subjects
- liceo scientifico*—upper secondary school; emphasis on mathematics and sciences
- Museo Nazionale della Scuola*—National School Museum (Florence)
- professori di ruolo*—registered teachers of the secondary schools
- professore ordinario*—secondary school teacher who has successfully completed the 2-year probationary period
- professore straordinario*—secondary school teacher who is undergoing the 2-year probationary period
- provveditorati agli studi*—offices of the provincial superintendents of education; there is one office in each provincial capital
- provveditore agli studi*—provincial superintendent of education
- scrutini*—grades given for academic work at year's end
- scuola d'arte*—art training school; 5-year program; entrance from *scuola elementare*
- scuola di avviamento professionale*—lower general secondary pre-vocational schools
- scuola di magistero professionale*—specialized girls' teacher-training school for teachers in vocational schools for girls; of 2 years' duration; entrance based on the completion of the *scuola elementare* and the lower secondary school as well as the *scuola professionale femminile*
- scuola elementare*—elementary school
- scuola materna*—preprimary school
- scuola media*—lower secondary school
- scuola popolare*—the people's school; open to children over 12 and adults who wish to learn to read and write or to complete elementary studies
- scuola professionale femminile*—vocational training school for girls; 3 years' duration; entrance after completion of lower secondary school
- scuola tecnica agraria*—vocational training school of agriculture; 2-year program; entrance from lower secondary school
- scuola tecnica commerciale*—vocational training school of commerce; 2-year program; entrance from lower secondary school
- scuola tecnica industriale*—vocational industrial training school; 2-year program; entrance from lower secondary school
- scuole all'aperto*—open air schools
- scuole itineranti*—traveling schools
- servizio centrale per l'educazione popolare*—center for popular education
- telescuola*—television school
- unione nazionale per la lotta contro l'analfabetismo*—National Union for the Struggle Against Illiteracy

APPENDIX A

Educational Provisions of Italian Constitution of 1947 *

Article 9. The Republic shall promote the development of culture and scientific and technological research.

Article 30. Parents have both the duty and the right to support, teach and educate their children even though born out of wedlock.

The law makes provision for the fulfilment of these obligations where the parents are unable to do so.

Article 33. Arts and science are free, as is their teaching.

The Republic determines the general norms of instruction and institutes state schools of all types and grades.

Institutions and private individuals have the right to establish schools and educational institutions without any burden [financial] on the state.

In fixing the rights and obligations of the non-State schools which request equality, the law must assure them full liberty and must assure their students equality of scholastic treatment the equivalent of that accorded State students.

A state examination is prescribed for admission to the various types and grades of schools or for the conclusion of studies and for qualification for professional work. Institutions of higher learning, universities and academies, have the right to rule themselves autonomously within the limits established by the laws of the state.

Article 34. Schools shall be open to all.

Primary education shall last at least eight years and shall be compulsory and free.

Students of merit and ability, even if lacking finances, possess the right to pursue their studies to the highest levels of education.

Toward this end the Republic shall provide scholarships and family and other allowances, which shall be awarded on a competitive basis.

Article 35. . . . the Republic . . . shall provide preparatory training and specialized courses for workers.

Article 38. . . . Disabled persons and minors have the right to education and to professional training.

The provisions of this article are carried out through agencies and institutes established or organized by the State.

Private assistance is not restricted.

*There are a total of 139 articles in the Constitution of the Republic. For the full text, see Giuseppe Talamo, editor. *Gli ideali del risorgimento e dell'unità*. Roma: Ente Nazionale Biblioteche Popolari e Scolastiche, 1961. p. 199-222.

Article 117. Within the limits of the general principles established by the laws of the State, the region promulgates statutory legislation for the following matters, provided such legislation does not contrast with the national interest. . .

Professional and artisan instruction and help to students. . .

Article 118. Administrative functions connected with the matters listed in the preceding Article are exercised by the region, with the exception of those of purely local interest, which may be assigned by law of the Republic to the provinces, communes, and other local agencies.

APPENDIX B

Italian Institutions of Higher Learning

State Universities

Faculties

Bari

Agriculture
Commerce and economics
Law
Medicine and surgery
Pharmacy

Bologna

Agriculture
Commerce and economics
Engineering
Industrial chemistry
Law
Literature and philosophy
Medicine and surgery
Pharmacy
Physics, mathematics and natural science
Veterinary science

Cagliari

Education
Law
Literature and philosophy
Mathematics, physics, and natural science
Medicine and surgery
Mining engineering
Pharmacy

Catania

Commerce and economics
Law
Literature and philosophy
Medicine and surgery
Physics, mathematics, and natural science

State Universities

Florence

Faculties

Agriculture
 Architecture
 Economics and commerce
 Education
 Law
 Literature and philosophy
 Medicine and surgery
 Physics, mathematics, and natural science
 Pharmacy

Genoa

Economics and commerce
 Engineering
 Law
 Literature
 Medicine and surgery
 Pharmacy
 Physics, mathematics, natural science

Macerata

Law

Messina

Education
 Law
 Medicine and surgery
 Pharmacy
 Physics, mathematics, natural science

Milan

Law
 Literature and philosophy
 Mathematics, physics, natural science
 Medicine and surgery

Modena

Law
 Mathematics, physics, natural science
 Medicine and surgery
 Pharmacy

Naples

Agriculture
 Architecture
 Economics and commerce
 Engineering
 Law
 Literature and philosophy
 Medicine and surgery

State Universities

Naples—Continued

Padua

Palermo

Parma

Pavia

Perugia

Pisa

*Faculties*Pharmacy
Physics, mathematics, natural
science

Veterinary science

Engineering

Law

Literature and philosophy

Medicine and surgery

Pharmacy

Physics, mathematics, natural
science

Economics and commerce

Engineering

Law

Literature and philosophy

Medicine and surgery

Pharmacy

Physics, mathematics, natural
science

Law

Medicine and surgery

Pharmacy

Veterinary science.

Law

Literature and philosophy

Medicine and surgery

Pharmacy

Physics, mathematics, natural
science

Agriculture

Law

Medicine and surgery

Pharmacy

Veterinary science

Agriculture

Engineering

Law

Literature and philosophy

Mathematics, physics, natural
science

Medicine and surgery

Pharmacy

Veterinary science

State Universities

Rome

Faculties

Aeronautical engineering
 Architecture
 Civil industrial engineering
 Economics and commerce
 Education
 Law
 Literature and philosophy
 Mathematics, physics, natural
 science
 Medicine and surgery
 Mining engineering
 Pharmacy
 Statistics and actuarial science

Sassari

Law
 Medicine and surgery
 Pharmacy
 Veterinary science

Siena

Law
 Medicine and surgery
 Pharmacy

Turin

Agriculture
 Economics and commerce
 Education
 Law
 Literature and philosophy
 Mathematics, physics, natural
 science
 Medicine and surgery
 Pharmacy
 Veterinary science

Trieste

Economics and commerce
 Engineering
 Law
 Literature

Private Universities

Camerino

Law
 Mathematics, physics, natural
 science
 Pharmacy
 Veterinary science

Private Universities

Ferrara

Milan (Catholic University
of the Sacred Heart)

Urbino

National Polytechnic Institutes

Milan

Turin

Faculties

Law

Mathematics, physics, natural
science

Medicine and surgery

Pharmacy

Education

Law

Literature and philosophy

Education

Law

Pharmacy

Architecture

Engineering

Architecture

Aeronautical engineering

Engineering

Higher Institutes of University Level

Higher Institute of Architecture of Venice

Higher Institute of Economics and Commerce of Venice

Higher Institute of Oriental Studies of Naples

Higher Teachers' Institutes of University Level

Higher Teachers' Institute of Catania

Higher Teachers' Institute of Genoa

Sister Orsola Benincasa Higher Teachers' Institute of Naples

Maria SS Assunta Higher Teachers' Institute of Rome

Higher Teachers' Institute of Salerno

Universities Offering Special Courses

Luigi Bocconi University of Economics and Commerce of Milan

Naval Institute of Naples

Special courses for foreigners, who desire to study the country first-hand while acquiring a knowledge of Mediterranean history and culture, are offered in the *Università per gli stranieri* (University for foreigners), in Perugia. This institution is completely separate from the State University of Perugia, listed above, and its courses do not lead to university degrees.

It should be mentioned also that, in addition to the institutions listed, a number of schools of fine arts, music, et cetera, in Italy offer part of their work on the higher education level, but do not have university status.