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EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS
IN SPAIN

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EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS IN SPAIN.

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I. INTRODUCTION.

Though Spain maintained her neutrality throughout the World War, her educational, economic, and political conditions—in all countries inextricably bound up with each other—were affected nearly as much as those of the nations participating in it. In France, England, and Italy, educational reforms began early to press for recognition; and popular education came to be seen clearly as the supreme means upon whose efficient organization depended ultimately the salvation of national ideals in the perhaps even more trying period of adjustment after the war. Even Germany was constrained to seek ways of adapting the schools to such national service; and movements like the tentative *Begabenschule* show the working of the leaven. In Spain, on the contrary, the dominant classes were plunged, almost over night, into enormous prosperity.

The Spanish Government awoke to its opportunities, as was evidenced in many official acts. With the approaching expiration of the charter of the Bank of Spain, the minister of finance appointed a commission to draft a new bill for the Cortes, setting forth a comprehensive and far-reaching program, and calling for the purchase and operation of railroads by the state, and the development and utilization of all natural resources and waterpower. The minister of public works outlined unprecedentedly bold steps for a complete economic reconstruction of the Kingdom, involving a greatly enlarged sphere of activity and intervention by the state, based on an intensified economic survey of all national resources. The Association of Spanish Civil Engineers was granted by the Government the privilege of convening a congress in Madrid in the spring of 1919 for the purpose of discussing numerous phases of national development to which this profession can contribute. Among these are elementary and higher technical instruction, the organization of labor, sanitation and hygiene, and social questions relating thereto.

The advent of this material prosperity, however, has been accompanied by results positively unfavorable to the spiritual and educational life of the nation. It was a prosperity from its very nature unevenly distributed, being confined virtually to the great mining corporations of the mountainous Provinces, and to the shipping companies of the coast cities. The cost of the necessaries of life soared beyond all proportion to the wages and incomes of the great majority of the inhabitants of the Kingdom. The 25,000 or more teachers of Spain found existence increasingly difficult as the war went on. The increasing economic pressure lent a welcome excuse to the classes who are by tradition unfavorably disposed to popular education and constitute through the press and the Cortés the vocal elements of the nation; they declared all attempts to enlarge the educational system out of the question in the face of such dire national stress.

Against these well-organized forces, the schools and the teachers, uninfluential and poorly organized, could make no headway. The nation-wide desperation of the teachers, began to be openly expressed in their local, communal, and provincial assemblies early in 1918, and was voiced in a corporate demand for increased salaries by the national association. Upon Don Santiago Alba's acceptance of the ministry of public instruction in March, 1918, the movement received his cordial support, genuinely interested as he was in the improvement of the schools and the welfare of the teachers. There has been no national, and very slight local and communal, increase in the salaries of teachers since 1857, when the present school system was initiated. The average salary, of men and women, has always been less than \$200. Sr. Alba planned systematic increase of salaries and far-reaching reorganization of the entire educational system. He contemplated the rapid training of an immediately available supply of primary teachers by sending a larger number for study abroad at one time than ever before. A system of libraries and intensive institute courses for teachers already in active work were also planned.

Unfortunately for the success of his plans, Sr. Alba's only nucleus of aid was found in the socialists, whose very support could but discredit his cause before the nation, inasmuch as they were held responsible for the serious strikes of 1917. Sr. Alba's policies, calling for nearly five million dollars to be used for more and better schools, and especially for increasing the salary of all teachers to a minimum of \$300 per annum, encountered powerful opposition from many quarters.

¹ A minority of influential individuals and progressive newspapers constituted exceptions to this general statement.

Teachers salaries. Struggle of the school world.

Six months of factional struggle in the Spanish Cabinet ensued, centering around the activities of Sr. Alba, and culminated in the definite refusal of the majority to assent to his reforms, and in his resignation. Count Romanones, Minister of Justice, and formerly minister of public instruction, a man of liberal views, believed to be in sympathy with Sr. Alba's main plans, and acceptable to the teachers of the Kingdom, was appointed in his stead. But the storm raised was fomented by the liberal element of the nation at large, and could not be laid by any half-way measures. The liberals continued, in every issue of a minority of influential journals, to set before the nation the elements that had compassed the downfall of the minister of public instruction. Early in November, 1918, the resignations of the entire Cabinet were called for, and Count Romanones was asked by the King to form a new ministry. It is true that other causes, international in character, were also operative in precipitating these events; but the significant fact remains that the position taken by a progressive minister of public instruction furnished the clearly marked line of cleavage leading to the resignation of a ministry originally selected for its personal strength and political experience.¹

The pressure of the demand for increased salaries was undiminished by the change of ministers. More successful than his predecessor, Count Romanones, just before he became premier, obtained the consent of the ministry to an increase of the salaries of primary teachers ranging from a maximum of \$1,000 per annum to a minimum of \$300. Subject as the decree was to serious modifications in actual practice, it yet constituted a signal proof of the power of public sentiment. The teachers, too, through their associations, not only bore an active part in the agitation for increased salaries, but they pressed for urgent reform on the administrative as well as on the purely instructional side of the schools. They repeatedly submitted these reforms in recommendations to the minister, which will be discussed under their several heads.

II. NATIONAL PRIMARY EDUCATION.

ILLITERACY.

In 1916 Spain had an estimated population of twenty and a half million. The figures for illiteracy are not tabulated for that year, but it may be safely assumed that they did not fall below that of the year 1910, when nearly twelve million people of all ages, a percentage of 59.35, were reported as unable to read and write. Indeed, with the continuous closing of primary schools in all parts of rural Spain

¹ For the suggestion of some of the above lines of discussion acknowledgment is made to the very illuminating volume *La Educacion Nacional* by Don Oscar Silló y Cortés, Madrid, 1914.

through lack of funds to attract teachers, it is possible that the illiteracy for the latter year would surpass even the high figure given. The Provinces showing greatest illiteracy (estimated, 1916) are as follows: Almer a, Malaga, Jaen, Albacete, Murcia, the Canaries, Ciudad, Real, Cordoba, Catillon y Alicante, all of which range above 70 per cent. Those showing illiteracy ranging below 40 per cent are Segovia, Burgos, Palencia, Madrid, Alava y Santander. The decrease in illiteracy has been slow since 1860, when statistics were first gathered for the nation at large. In that year the percentage was 75.52; in 1877, 70.01; in 1887, 68.01; in 1900, 63.78. Spain's leaders have never been slow to recognize the extreme seriousness of this menace; but beyond a few provisions in the national budget, and those of the most advanced communes for a supplementary fund for teachers holding night schools for adults—seldom rising for the individual above \$50—nothing constructive has been attempted. Sr. Alba worked upon definite ideas along this line, but his brief tenure of office precluded the realization of his schemes. In 1916 throughout Spain 12,713 separate classes were conducted for the instruction of adult men and women. At a meeting of the National Assembly of Teachers held in Madrid in February, 1918, resolutions were passed, calling upon the Government to take vigorous measures for the suppression of illiteracy. It was recommended that the Government should:

1. Not permit any man to vote who could not read or write.
2. Not issue an honorable discharge to the soldier who remained illiterate.
3. See that the law be enforced forbidding the admission of a workman into an industry without a certificate of instruction.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The legal administration of the schools of Spain is under the supreme control of the minister of public instruction, an official created in 1900, appointed by the King, and sitting as a member of the royal Cabinet. He is charged with the duty of reporting to that body periodically the state of education throughout the Kingdom, with recommendations for its encouragement and improvement. In him is vested the appointment, to be approved by the King and Cabinet, of all educational officials, administrative and instructional. Taking up first the basic division of the system of public instruction, that of primary education, next under the minister of public instruction ranks the director of primary education (created in 1911), responsible to the minister and with special charge of the administrative and inspectional sides of that branch of public instruction. Immediately subordinate to the director general are the provincial inspectors, named by the minister upon the recommendation of the former, who are charged with the periodical visitation of the local

primary schools, the assembling and instruction of the local juntas in their duties and powers; and the submission of full and regular reports to the office of the director general. For the 49 Provinces, which embrace the 24,299 national primary schools, there are 171 inspectors and subinspectors. The number is three times that of 10 years ago. They rank in nine categories, according to length of service and salary. Upon their energy and the degree of fidelity with which they discharge their duties hinges vitally the well-being of the system. Responsible to the provincial inspectors, and required by law to cooperate with them, are the local juntas (committees). These are named by the *ayuntamientos* (boards) of the respective municipalities, and consist of the *alcalde* (mayor) *ex officio* and designated members, including one or more householders who are patrons of the primary schools. In the juntas are vested the powers of frequent visitation and general oversight of the local schools, their enrollment, physical, and social conditions. The juntas have no financial duties or powers whatsoever, all such, relative to the establishment or maintenance of the schools, remaining entirely in the hands of the *ayuntamientos*. Upon the periodical visitations of the provincial inspectors the juntas are required to assist them in every way in their inspection of the primary schools and to meet in conference and to formulate with them the needs of the schools.

Despite this inspectional machinery, it is estimated that one-third of the schools of this grade go unvisited each year. León had 618 schools unvisited in 1917, and many Provinces have as many as 100, 200, or even 300 such schools. Some explanation may be found in the fact that for many zones the posts of inspectors have, for various reasons, been intermittently vacant. A brighter side of the picture, however, is presented in Cadiz, which leads with all the schools visited within the period of two years, in the Balearic Isles, and Valladolid, with all but a very few visited. Inspectors claim in their defense that they have been made responsible for zones besides their own, and that in many instances they can not secure reports as to location of actually existent schools. They complain of the indifference of secretaries of the *ayuntamientos* in furnishing information that schools have been closed; and that, further, despite their activity in localities where the need of new schools is most urgent, and their clear outlining of the legal terms on which such localities may, in cooperation with the State, secure the needed schools, they are unable to arouse interest on the part of the local authorities. In brief, they maintain that the law for compulsory education of June 23, 1909, is not enforced for the larger number of the municipalities, which neglect to draw up or revise the annual school registration reports.

In January, 1918, a numerous committee of the National Association of Inspectors waited upon the minister of public instruction and the director general of primary education, and presented as the composite sense of that body, for enactment into law, a number of recommendations, the salient ones of which are here given:

1. Both men and women inspectors should be required to remain not less than 8 or 10 days in the rural districts and villages of their zones, visiting and studying all the schools, and examining personally as many boys and girls as possible; upon this material they should present ample reports, to be published by the director general of primary education. In turn, the inspectors should be relieved as far as possible of clerical labor, and should be sent to provincial sections to establish personal relations with the local civil officials.
2. General questionnaires should be drawn up and sent to all teachers of primary schools, inquiring as to changes and reforms deemed most urgent for the development of the schools.
3. The Government should at once take up the construction of school buildings of modern and sanitary type, and on sites answering the legal requirements, and should at once take steps to improve the existing ones, borrowing money and issuing bonds on the national credit.
4. Every school building erected in villages of less than 1,000 inhabitants should have annexed to it a teacher's dwelling conforming to sanitary and architectural requirements.
5. Every effort should be directed by school authorities, both municipal and national, to improve the school attendance, and to awaken educational interest by the incentive of school lunches, playgrounds, libraries, school loan funds, and all extra-scholastic activities possible.
6. In agricultural and industrial communities, at least one full section of daily work in school should be required of all children over 10 years of age whose labor is usually regarded as necessary for the aid of the father in the support of the family.
7. All inspectors and local teachers should be required to take part in all activities of their respective spheres, studying and working for the development of all matters relating to education of the children, and the correction of juvenile delinquency.
8. All matters relating to the visitation of private schools should be passed upon by the body of inspectors; and, unless otherwise agreed upon, the scope of such visits will be restricted to points of hygiene and ethics.
9. In rural schools special importance should be attached to agricultural and horticultural teaching, and in those of mining and industrial centers to elementary technology and related sciences.

10. There should be established in provincial capitals special schools for adults, analogous to those projected for men, to give to women ample preparation for vocational work.

11. Inspectors should have the power of intervening in all matters affecting the rights of teachers.

12. Tenure of office for inspectors should be better safeguarded, inspectors being removable from office only by royal decree, and upon proven charges of incompetence or bad conduct.

13. In every provincial capital there should be established a well-equipped permanent pedagogical museum and school exposition.

PRESENT STATE OF THE NATIONAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The national primary schools of Spain are administered according to the territorial lines of the 49 Provinces of the Kingdom. They are taught by teachers who are paid wholly or in part out of the national treasury. In 1916 they included 7,409 one-room schools for boys and 7,075 for girls; 243 graded schools for boys, 158 for girls; 8,935 mixed graded, and 479 for very young children, a total of 24,299 national primary schools in the Kingdom. In 10 years, only 250 new school buildings have been reported as erected in the entire country. In 1917, according to the statement of the late Deputy Giner de los Rios, member of the committee of the Cortes, appointed to investigate educational conditions, from 27,000 to 40,000 schools were lacking of the number contemplated even by the establishing law of 1857.¹ Sr. Alba's projected reforms included the establishment of 20,000 additional schools within eight months, with modern sanitation and equipment and the guarantee of the appointment of that number of men and women teachers within that period.

The number of schools vacant for one or more years constitutes the most serious problem the educational authorities have to face.² The suggestion has been made that the minister of public instruction be authorized by law to transfer from the State back to the commune all responsibility for such a school remaining vacant for three years.

In the phase of primary education, naturally most efficient, that of the graded schools located in the centers of population, dissatisfaction is expressed by Spanish educational thinkers with the infrequency with which they are visited and the continued failure to secure reports

¹ This seems an overstatement in the light of the estimate by Count Romanones, then minister of public instruction, in his memoria for 1910. He put the number at 9,579 schools.

² The statement is made in *La Escuela Moderna* for September, 1917, that there were in that year 30,000 towns and villages in Spain without schools and without teachers; that 3,000,000 children were, at one time, not in the schools; and that 10,000 men and women were needed in addition to those already in service.

³ Even in the Province of Navarra, which, until November, 1918, had charge of its own public school system, an attempt to require all incoming teachers to take the schools longest vacant met with but doubtful success. The maximum salary of \$200 is not sufficient to attract new teachers.

on many of them. Persistent attempts have been made, both by local teachers' associations and the press, to have all the royal decrees relating to them reduced to one section of the code.

The clearest exposition of the condition and needs of the graded schools was made in the recommendations of the graded-school teachers' division of the National Association at their meeting of 1917. The reforms then urged included greater care in the matter of the appointment of graded-school directors, less regard to political and personal influence, and participation by the teaching force in such appointment, sanctioned by the inspector; enlarged responsibility for the directors in the recommendations of the members of the teaching staff for appointment, including at least one supply teacher; the formulation of programs of study, exercises, and school excursions, in cooperation with the section teachers, to be transmitted to the regional delegate in the Cortes for presentation to the educational committee of that body.

These recommendations bore fruit in the very progressive royal decree of September 19, 1918, the salient points of which are as follows:

1. In graded schools instruction shall be given in the subjects determined for national schools by present legislation now in force.
2. The local junta for the school, named according to law by the *ayuntamiento*, shall have wider latitude as to prescribing hours, division of classes, etc., and especially in organizing school outings, excursions, etc. The director shall have wider and more definite duties, especially in visiting classes, and correspondingly more thorough and frequent reports to the inspector.
3. The number of pupils enrolled in graded schools shall not exceed 50 for each section, except in cases of exigency, sparsity of population, or other valid reason agreed upon by the director and inspector.
4. The director, advised by the teachers, shall lay before the local junta the physical needs of the schools as a whole and by grades, and all necessary equipment shall be provided at the expense of the State.
5. All pupils admitted shall have completed the sixth year of their age, been vaccinated, and be suffering from no contagious disease. All corporal punishment shall be forbidden. The State and the local junta combined shall furnish books and paper free, and in girls' schools all equipment and material for household and domestic instruction free, the finished products to be the property of the school. All provisions shall be made for sanitation, light, and ventilation.
6. The directors and teachers shall take part in all extra-scholastic activities of the school and community pertaining to the improvement of school conditions. School outings and excursions of a didactic nature shall be held at proper intervals, and the children shall be required to keep diaries and records of the same, examined and graded by teachers, samples of which shall be forwarded ultimately to the director general of primary education.
7. Every graded school shall maintain a circulating library, a branch of the Mutual Loan Society, regularly organized according to law, school lunches, and facilities for dressmaking and tailoring. Anthropological measurements of each child shall be taken upon entering and leaving school. A committee of teachers shall, so far as possible, give motion pictures and lectures and hold conferences, local and district, and maintain international correspondence with teachers of other countries.

8. Special provisions shall be made by the director and teaching force for the instruction of adults by lectures and special courses in mathematics, languages, drawing, and the rudiments of science, keeping always in view the needs, predominant industries, etc., of the locality. Qualified persons in the community shall be called upon by the director to confer with him informally at least once a month upon civic matters as related to the schools, especially those touching callings and industries into which pupils are most likely to enter. The duties and powers of the director of classes for adults shall be similar to those he possesses in the day schools.

In these provisions, taken as a whole, is seen a uniform advance toward an efficient correlation of the administrative parts of the system; an enlarged social and civic activity by the teaching force, with articulation of primary education with community life; an enrichment of the content of the schools, and, inclusive of all these, a scientific attention to the physical and recreational upbuilding of the children. It is to be hoped that the financial provisions to make the decree effective will soon be made.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

In 1916 the total number of schools privately founded or maintained by private aid, assimilated to the national schools and subject to governmental supervision, was 6,367; the great majority are those founded, maintained, and taught by the religious orders. They enjoy almost entire freedom in courses and methods, the inspection of them required by law being usually restricted to their sanitation and training in ethics. Of private schools not under religious control, conducted wholly or in part in English, French, or German, and intended primarily for children of foreigners, there were 116. The latter are naturally grouped in commercial and diplomatic centers and are largely patronized by the children of the noble and wealthy few, especially those not in sympathy with the new social and political order in Spain.

Some of the schools founded by private benefactions and closely assimilated to the national primary schools are excellent and progressive, the salaries paid being far above the average for the Government schools and the buildings and equipment modern and sanitary. A sample of this type of school is the group entitled "La Colonia Garcia Diego," situated in the city of Cordoba. It pays teachers \$270 the first year and guarantees periodical increases of \$25 up to \$500, with retirement at 65 years at \$250 and a modern dwelling. Such teachers are also under express obligation to serve the community, being required to impart instruction to adults, men and women.

Other private schools are above the average in progressiveness and efficiency. A number distinctively secular show the influence of Ferrer's life and pedagogical teachings, which, exercised as they were in the city of Barcelona, in the 10 years preceding his execution

in 1909, could not but have their influence. Especially in their practice of coeducation as a preference, they have been imitated by the schools of republican and socialistic tinge.¹

Most noteworthy among the schools conducted avowedly under religious influences, but not by members of an order, are those commonly called, from the name of their organizer and teacher, a former barrister and student of social problems, the "Siurot System," though their official title is "The Schools of the Sacred Heart." They are located in the town of Huelva, in the Province of Andalusia, and enroll 1,000 boys. Maintained by private and voluntary subscriptions, they are housed in buildings of the plainest character, originally a seventeenth century convent; but sanitation, fresh air, and good food are regarded as essentials. They proceed entirely upon the theory of the predominant importance of the graphic method of instruction, with its appeal to the pupils' imagination and interest. Mind and memory are cultivated and stimulated by the dramatic and skillful use of the pupils themselves as material.

The cement-floored basement is marked off into squares, each pupil having his own allotment of space on which to reproduce material both from blackboard demonstration and of original design. The application of the method to the several subjects taught is of interest. In geography the traditional start is made with the physical elements; the unique feature is the intensive and leisurely study of the large contour map of Spain, modeled in cement. Thorough familiarity with this is absolutely prerequisite to the pupil's passing on to the large line map drawn upon the wall. The next step is to fit into the setting of coast, plain, hill, and mountain the centers of population, accompanied by the exposition of reasons for original settlement, and the local productions and industries. Then comes the study of political and civic divisions, with means of intercommunication. Historical connections are always woven in, often without the pupil's realizing that he is learning anything outside of geography. The hour of examination upon the morning's instruction, so far from being a dreaded burden, becomes by the aid of games a diversion. Each boy as he takes part calls out the name of some place, person, or event connected with the country selected, or if the method of debate is adopted, the detailed facts of instruction become vitalized by the personal interest and emotions of the pupil. Spanish history connects with geography by the use of the physical geography divisions already established. Pupils representing the succession of tribal and racial groups that entered Spain take positions agreed upon after preliminary study, and depict the resultant conflicts, fusions, readjustments, and ethical, governmental, and economic

¹The Life of Francisco Ferrer, by Wm. Archer (1911), pp. 245-6; *La Escuela Moderna*, by F. Ferrer published by the Ferrer Association (1912).

results. Similarly, period after period of Spanish, medieval, and modern history is portrayed, involving the wider study of nations affected by contact with Spain and Spanish civilization. The claim is made for this unique method of historical instruction that it results in the desire on the part of the pupil to read all that can be secured outside the school bearing on historical events. In arithmetic the graphic method begins with homely proverbs, such as *Cada oveja con su pareja* (Birds of a feather flock together), and applies the principle of likeness to the four basic processes of this subject. Thence the pupils proceed to play at being units, tens, dividends, quotients, etc., applying the same methods of visualization on through the more complex stages into geometry and algebra.

The results on the sides of morals and behavior accruing from the training in these schools are reported as being even more noteworthy than those on the mental side. Accounts of the condition of the prospective pupils at the time of the inauguration of these schools represented them as at a low stage, which, indeed, culminated in such scenes as to cause Sr. Siurot himself, then an advocate in good practice, to abandon his profession and devote himself to so vital a task as the reclamation of these future citizens of Spain.

These schools early attracted the favorable notice of the minister of public instruction, and, encouraged by English visitors, accommodations have been provided for the training of 30 teachers in this method. International educational arrangements with France and England are contemplated whereby this system may be studied and its practical features carried as "an educational evangel to other countries."

ENROLLMENT IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The total enrollment in the national primary schools for 1916 was estimated at 1,712,261, and the average attendance at approximately 1,133,557, a percentage of 67. This enrollment of less than one and three-fourths millions on an estimated general population of twenty millions is disproportionately low. The absence of a provision in the school law definitely fixing the compulsory school age renders any treatment of this subject unsatisfactory. The total enrollment in the private primary schools of all kinds is estimated at 300,000. No figures are available for attendance, but it is fair to assume that the percentage is higher than for the national schools, because of the greater interest of their patrons, as evidenced, among other things, by willingness to pay fees for instruction.

The discrepancy between the enrollment and the attendance figures in the national primary schools may, in some degree, be explained for the capital cities of the most populous Provinces by the existence of the private schools above mentioned. The city of

Barcelona may perhaps be taken as a fair example of this situation. In this city a unique legal arrangement exists whereby private schools are subsidized by the *ayuntamientos* but not counted as belonging to the public-school system. On the city's estimated school population of 82,000, only 16,000 children are enrolled in the national schools of all kinds. The attendance on private schools of all kinds was estimated at 50,000. This leaves 16,000 children of school age still unaccounted for, and in the most progressive city of the Kingdom. Speaking for the Kingdom at large, it is estimated that a total of from two to three million children of school age receive no instruction whatsoever.

Nonattendance, or poor attendance, of children enrolled in the rural primary schools is assumed by all the educational writers of Spain.¹ Teachers complain of the unwarrantable extension by the school administrators of the radii of school districts. Others emphasize the almost insuperable difficulties country children have in reaching schools and the disastrous physical effects upon them of the lack of school lunches and facilities for drying clothes and shoes. They blame the rotation of farm work for the recurrent periods of absence and indifference and the call of the industrial centers for children workers from the tenderest years.

The local *ayuntamientos*, also, with whom rests all financial responsibility for the schools, are blamed by teachers and inspectors for neglect of manifest duties as regards both the selection of school sites and the upkeep of the schools after they are established.

COST OF NATIONAL PRIMARY EDUCATION.

The total amount expended by the Government upon national primary education in 1917 was \$6,894,236; a slight decrease from that for 1916 but an increase of 33½ per cent since 1902. On the basis of a population estimated in 1917 at 20,875,844, this was an expenditure of 34-cents per capita, or for each child of school age, \$4.28.²

By the law of 1902 local *ayuntamientos* were empowered to appropriate annually from local taxes additional funds for the maintenance of necessary assistant teachers and for the upkeep of the schools, the same to be applied for by the juntas and approved by the provincial inspectors. Statistics are not available as to the extent to which the *ayuntamientos* have availed themselves of this law.

¹ Gilig y Cortés, in the chapter *La Escuela Pública*.
² It should be borne in mind, however, that this calculation takes account only of the few more than one and one-half million children enrolled, and not of the ever larger number who, it is claimed, should be enrolled but are not.

SANITATION AND HEALTH OF SCHOOLS.

In all Provinces schools of insanitary conditions are reported. Those of the Balearic Isles make the best showing; those of Barcelona, both city and Province, the worst, with more than 640 reported in 'bad condition. In the city of Madrid there are 59 municipal schools combining conditions both unhygienic and unpedagogical, and the Province of Madrid has 256 such schools. It is difficult to fix responsibility for the physical condition of school buildings, because comparatively few of the latter are owned by the State. In 10 Provinces no school buildings are reported as owned by the State, and most Provinces report only very few. Accurate statistics are not available. The estimate is based upon informal reports of teachers that at least 15,000 schools in Spain constitute a menace to the health and life of the children attending them.

There is scarcely a Province in which the children of all of the schools are vaccinated. The record is unsatisfactory throughout the Kingdom. Even the city of Madrid has five schools in which few, if any, of the children have been vaccinated. There are, however, legal and municipal regulations requiring vaccination.

By royal decree of December 21, 1917, school medical inspection was established in Madrid and Barcelona, and an institute of school hygiene was founded at Madrid. This is to be directed by a council of which the director general of primary education shall be chairman. It is composed of the inspector general of the medico-scholastic division, of the secretary of the institute, and of members chosen from teachers of upper normal schools, the faculties of medicine and pharmacy, the Academies of Medicine and Natural Sciences, and the Higher School of Architecture. Upon the publication of the decree, the institute was required to organize the following courses: Paedology; care of children; school hygiene; anthropology and physiology of the abnormal; digestive system of children. Only 30 attendants upon each course were to be accepted. If there should be more applicants the preference would be given physicians and principals of schools. Reports from the individual instructors were to be required; and these, collected by the director general for a number of years, were to constitute a valuable aid to hygienic progress in Spain. This composite report is to be transmitted every year to the minister of public instruction. The institute is to cooperate in every way with teachers and municipalities. The institute will also be further charged with the organizing of meetings and conferences of a scientific and popular character, in order to diffuse a knowledge of the fundamental principles of hygiene among the general public.

The law of September, 1913, requiring the competitive selection of medical and dental officers for inspection of national schools in

Madrid had ceased to be executed. It was revived by the public-spirited physicians of Madrid, who in September, 1917, waited upon the minister of public instruction with the request that he enforce it. The apparent partiality shown Madrid, however, aroused the executive committee of the National Association of Teachers to protest against the spending of considerable sums in inspection which had much better be used in preventing diseases by providing fit school sites and buildings of a hygienic and pedagogical character, and paying teachers salaries enabling them to live in comfort and self-respect.

The seventh annual award of prizes was announced in 1917 by the executive committee of the Spanish association for the protection of infancy and the suppression of mendicancy, for the best work along the following lines:

Five prizes of 280 pesetas each to rural physicians distinguished for work in behalf of mothers and children; ten of 200 pesetas each for teachers of rural schools or private teachers distinguished for social and protective work; five of 200 pesetas each and a certificate for the author of the best unpublished monograph on the popularization of schools; a prize of 500 pesetas for the author of 12 drawings in color best illustrating a historical anecdote or short narrative, in prose or in poetry, for the instruction or recreation of children.

MINIMUM CURRICULUM OF NATIONAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The minimum curriculum prescribed by law for the national primary schools is as follows:

1. Christian doctrine and sacred history.
2. Spanish, reading, writing, composition, and grammar.
3. Arithmetic, geometry, and drawing.
4. Geography, history of Spain, elements of national law.
6. Elements of physical and natural sciences, physiology, hygiene, agriculture.

In the schools of Madrid, Barcelona, Santiago, and Malaga, singing, manual arts, and physical training are also compulsory.

These subjects are divided into two grades, elementary and higher, of three and five years, respectively.

There is, of course, wide diversity in the methods and the extent to which the five nationally prescribed subjects are taught. In some Provinces, and in districts of certain Provinces, the law is indifferently executed. According to the report for 1916-17 of the director general of primary education, 35 Provinces have no religious instruction maintained at the expense of the State. On the contrary, Navarra has 46 teachers of religion, Barcelona 14, and Madrid 22, paid in whole or in part from the national treasury.

EXTRA-SCHOLASTIC ACTIVITIES¹

As has been seen, a provision of one of the royal decrees of 1918 prescribed periodical outings or school excursions for every national school in the Kingdom, requiring that they be conducted under the supervision of the teacher, or, in the case of a graded school, of the director, and that each pupil prepare a diary or formal account of the same, to be submitted to the teacher, and, if of merit, to be forwarded to the inspector, and by him to the director general of primary education. Akin is the revival of the decree of the Queen, Regent (1892) establishing "La Fiesta de la Raza," the celebration by the schools of October 12, the anniversary of Columbus's discovery of the New World under Spanish auspices, observed by many of the Spanish American countries, whose purpose is to keep alive the remembrance of racial and filial ties. Latitude is also given the individual teacher and director to hold local holidays of a religious and patriotic nature.

A decided movement for the establishment of open-air schools in many of the centers has been perceptible. Madrid has several of these, encouraged by the educational and civic authorities, though as yet in the experimental stage. One is noteworthy as embracing six grades, enrolling 216 pupils, and providing midday lunches, gymnastics, and playground facilities.

The school lunch room has been instituted in a few of the larger cities and in scattering Provinces. Branches of the society as established by law are annexed to the schools of most of the cities and the more progressive Provinces.

The system of circulating libraries under the director general of primary education was established in 1912 by royal decree, intended primarily for teachers and pupils of the primary schools. Fifty libraries, 48 in the Provinces and 2 in Madrid, compose the system. Each consignment of books coming to the schools of a Province in succession is under the direct management of the primary teacher in charge of the school.

In September, 1918, was held at Monriza perhaps the first exhibition of school work in Spain done by individual teachers and groups of pupils of the national primary schools of the Province. It consisted of designs and executions of manual arts, free-hand drawings, maps, geometric designs, weaving, and embroidery. It was visited by large numbers of people of all classes, and evoked enthusiastic interest.

¹ The first system of school lunches in Spain was initiated in Madrid in 1902, with two in operation furnishing 9,000 meals for the school year; in 1906, six furnished 160,000 meals; in 1911, eleven furnished 160,000 meals.

TEACHERS, SALARIES, AND PENSIONS.

In 1916 the national primary schools of Spain were taught by 13,034 men and 11,755 women, showing a larger number of men than women engaged in primary teaching. In the non-national primary schools, of a private and voluntary nature, a total of 8,124 men and women were teachers.

In any serious study of the teachers of a system, next in importance to the consideration of qualifications comes that of salaries. This has been touched upon in the introduction. The inequalities of the present scale of salaries are shown by the fact that less than 600 teachers receive from \$700 to \$2,300; 6,700 teachers receive from \$220 to \$300; 14,423 teachers receive \$220 and less.

An agreement was reached in October, 1918, by the ministry headed by Count Romanones, which fixed the maximum salary for teachers in primary education at \$1,000, and the minimum at \$300. The important exception, however, was made that nearly half the salaries of primary teachers should be left at \$250, inasmuch as this class is limited in their rights to promotion by the organic law of public instruction. Even this is encouraging when it is recalled that the great majority of this class have hitherto received only about \$12⁵. The new salary scale applies to men and women without discrimination, and is as follows:

50 teachers receive \$1,000.
 100 teachers receive \$900.
 150 teachers receive \$800.
 800 teachers receive \$700.
 600 teachers receive \$600.
 1,500 teachers receive \$500.
 3,000 teachers receive \$400.
 9,000 teachers receive \$300.

Primary

The remaining teachers, approximately 10,000 in number, receive \$250. Provisions are appended by which many teachers secure additional fees by extra teaching in adult classes, and still others may obtain admission to the \$300 class by passing examinations for promotion.

Akin to the matter of salaries is, of course, that of retirement age and pension. The activities of local branches of the National Teachers' Association and Sr. Alba's progressive labors bore fruit in the royal decree of May 2, 1918, by which the retiring age of Spanish teachers was fixed at 70 years; the pension fund was nationalized; the assessment on each teacher's salary for the national fund was reduced from 10 to 6 per cent per annum. From January 1, 1919, retired teachers are to enjoy a pension equivalent to two-thirds of the maximum salary received for two consecutive years; widows and

minor orphans are to receive two-thirds of what the deceased relative would have received.

In the matter of the professional training of primary teachers, Spain has made creditable progress within the past few years, thanks to the activities of the normal schools. As related to them, the subject will be resumed later. Taking into account the many obstacles confronting it, the primary school system of Spain shows gratifyingly few teachers without professional training of some kind. True, in the case of the older teachers who antedate the present normal schools, this training is very slight, and no claim is made that it is abreast of modern demands; but the fact remains that decidedly less than a thousand teachers at present wholly lack professional training. The Province of Leon with 160 untrained teachers has most; eight Provinces show fewer than 30 each. In eight others all teachers receiving salaries out of the national treasury are trained and hold certificates.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The royal decree of 1902 reorganized the normal school system, putting it under the control of the minister of public instruction and the director general of primary education, and outlining the following types: (a) Two central normal schools in Madrid, one for each sex, requiring for entrance, that the student shall have reached the age of 18 years and have passed satisfactory examinations upon the subjects embraced in the courses required in the provincial normal schools. The aim of these central normals is to prepare teachers for normal schools and for directors of graded schools. A normal academic course of a year as provided includes religious instruction, ethics, church history, anthropology, and elements of pedagogy, social economy and school legislation, Spanish literature, English, or German. The regular course covers two years and embraces the following subjects: Spanish and universal literature, religion and ethics, sacred, Spanish, and universal history, advanced geography, Spanish and general, physics, chemistry, physiology and hygiene, elements of general law, school legislation, French or English, penmanship, manual arts, gymnastics, drawing, and singing. For women, household arts and expression are substituted for manual arts. Observation of methods of teaching in the annexed practice schools is required every year, and intensive study and practice of teaching the last year.

(b) District higher normal schools, one in each university district, requiring students, if men, to have reached the age of 18 years, if women, that of 17 years, and to have passed satisfactory examinations upon the subjects required in the courses of the elementary normal schools. The aim of these district normal schools is the same as that for the central normal schools. The course covers three years.

and includes the following subjects: Elements of the physico-natural sciences, mathematics, geography, history, Spanish, pedagogy, French, ethics, religious instruction, manual arts, singing, and drawing. In the normal schools for women, music and household economy are added.

(c) Elementary normal schools, numbering at least one for each sex in each Province, requiring for entrance that the student shall have completed the sixteenth year of his age, or be exempted by the director of the normal, completed the subjects offered in the schools of primary education, and passed the following examinations:

1. The preparation of a paper or document upon a subject assigned by the examining board; an exercise in writing from dictation; the solution of a problem in arithmetic.
2. The reading aloud of a selection of prose or poetry, giving a summary of the sense.
3. Correctly answering questions upon Christian doctrine, sacred history, Spanish grammar, and arithmetic.

The aim of the provincial elementary normal schools is to prepare teachers for schools of primary education, one-room, graded, and mixed. The subjects are embraced in a two or three years' course, and are as follows: Christian doctrine and sacred history, penmanship, physics and chemistry, natural history, and manual arts, physiology, hygiene and gymnastics (for women, domestic arts), pedagogy and practice-teaching, with rudiments of school law. In view of the urgent demand for teachers in primary education, these courses are so arranged as to allow some students to complete certain of them in January and others in June; and some to enter in February and others in September. The 43 elementary normal schools for men enrolled in 1916 a total of 8,158, of whom nearly 2,000 were admitted to teach; the 49 for women enrolled 10,531, of whom about the same number as for men were admitted to teach.

The efficiency of the normal school in Spain is higher than that of any other division of the educational system. For this, credit belongs largely to former Minister Bergamin, to whose changes and reforms in 1915 the present form is due. In spite of the criticism launched at his policies at the time, especially on the score of making religious instruction compulsory, giving the naming of teachers of religion to the bishop of the respective diocese, and separating the sexes, the normal structure of Sr. Bergamin has commended itself in actual practice. His ideas marked an advance in giving solid content to the training of teachers, in continuity of studies, in fostering scientific study, and in contributing to the molding of teachers who should in their turn mold in the primary schools religious and patriotic citizens.

Dissatisfaction has, however, long been felt by the progressive teachers and press of Spain with the normal schools; and this found expression in recommendations drawn up by the Association of Teachers of Normal Schools, at their meeting in Madrid in July, 1913, and presented for the consideration of the minister of public education. Their salient points were as follows:

1. The establishment in elementary normal schools of a five-year course, the first four years of which are to be of a general and cultural nature, and the fifth devoted to practical training in pedagogy.

2. The establishment of technical and middle schools with three grades for both sexes in order that pupils at the age of about 12 years may, on emerging from the primary schools, have the way plain to them to continue until the age suitable for entering normals or vocational and professional preparatory schools. Such schools already exist in Spain in preparation for schools of arts, trades, industries, and business; none have been provided for normal preparation.

3. The establishment of annexed practice schools, consisting of eight grades, six for regular primary work, one for review work, and the last for special training of retarded and abnormal children.

4. Thorough scientific training of teacher-pupils by means of practical exercise in teaching.

5. The establishment of more and better paying scholarships, and subvention of traveling scholarships.

6. The fixing of a new scale of salaries for teachers in normal schools, both men and women, with an increase of \$100 every year for 5 years, the initial salary to be fixed at \$500.

7. The taking over by the State of the buildings and equipment of all normal schools.

8. As the cardinal administrative reform, the designation of the director of each normal school by vote of its teachers, the submission of his name for the approval of the minister, and his confirmation for a term not longer than four years.

In accordance with these recommendations, a royal decree empowered the minister of public instruction to issue questionnaires to the faculty of every normal school in Spain, calling for answers to queries upon the following points, each department of related studies to deal with the questions concerning it: The number of normals necessary as based on the number, general training, educational preparation, and attitude of pupils toward the profession of teaching; size, number, condition, etc., of grounds and buildings; school equipment, scientific and pedagogical; library facilities; pedagogical exhibits and museums; relation of the individual normal school to others, to centers of education, and to provincial inspectors; annexed practice school; entrance requirements; plan of studies, how far

realized and pupils' attitude toward it; length of course; schedule and hour scheme; school dormitories and residences for teachers; good or bad results to the system from the instruction of pupils not pledged to teach.

By royal decree of 1918 there was founded at Madrid an Institution of Secondary Teaching, under the direction and inspection of the Commission for the Advancement of Studies and Scientific Research. By its provisions, lodging will be supplied all pupils. Conditions of entrance are to be set by the minister of public instruction. The course shall cover not less than six years, when fully developed, and shall have a preparatory department. The subjects studied shall be at least those embraced in the programs of secondary instruction. To be admitted to the school as a candidate for post as teacher, the student must be a Spaniard, be over 17 years of age, and have pursued, or be pursuing, university courses. The training of students shall combine three main lines of training: (1) University studies, (2) practical teaching in primary schools, (3) reading, criticism, personal and experimental work in the pedagogical seminary, studies and practice in foreign educational centers.

The suggestion is probably drawn from South America, where it was worked out first in Chile, and then in Argentina.

The establishment of supplementary courses for teachers in Oviedo, by royal decree of June, 1918, is also to be noted as the first of its type in Spain. The junta of the pedagogical conference at Oviedo had petitioned for this, and the rector's council of the university had favorably reported upon it. It was to be under the director general of primary education, and for men and women teachers of national schools, and to embrace fundamental training in educational problems, reading of pedagogical books, methodology and school organization, conferences on all phases of education, elements of physical and natural sciences, agriculture and industry, social problems and excursions. It was to be held in October and to last 15 days. One man and one woman were to be selected from each judicial district of the Province by the inspector of the district. Living and traveling expenses were to be paid.

SUMMARY: PROJECTED REFORMS.

Spain's patriotic educational leaders sincerely deprecate the popular idea that a panacea is to be found in expecting the State to initiate the necessary reforms. In marked contrast, for example, are the Scandinavian countries and England, where, as shown in the history of the Fisher bill, all desire of reform and all effective initiative is born of localized units of government and communal life, and associations of diverse kinds, private societies, etc. In all those countries

the State only gathers up the movement already initiated, fosters it, and diffuses it. As has been seen, a marked and powerful industrial revival has shown itself in Spain within the past four years. Friends of popular education unite in urging that advantage be taken of this by every agency to further education of all kinds. The perplexing problems of training in apprenticeship, and those of the technical and vocational education of the masses, should at once be taken up by local agencies and pressed upon the Government, without waiting for the latter to move.

Among the summaries of the urgent need of educational reform, and the deplorable results to Spain's national life from her indifference to hygiene in particular, perhaps the most forceful was uttered by Don Alejandro Rossello in the Cortes in May, 1918. Speaking to the report of the Commission on Education, he said:

The steady impoverishment of Spain is due in great part to the total lack of attention to hygiene. Two hundred thousand lives are lost annually that could have been saved, representing on a conservative estimate 300,000,000 pesetas (\$60,000,000). Sickness and loss of time from work represent 200,000,000 pesetas in addition. Educational authorities may no longer close their eyes to this frightful drain on the national resources, for on it hinges ultimately the welfare, even the existence, of the nation. The smaller nations are already in great danger; if the minister of public instruction has the power to protect existing industries and encourage others, surely he has the right, a priori, to encourage and safeguard health, the matter of the most vital importance. The number of recruits rejected by the army because of deficiency in weight and height, as reported by medical officers, and the mortality among the civil population, are appalling. To provide more and better food, and radically improved sanitation, is the plain duty of the Government; and to the Government's chief agent, the minister of public instruction, the nation looks for immediate and vigorous action. What could be more tragically absurd than that the Government should have the power to take over the nutrition and education of the youth while under arms, and yet take no heed whatsoever of it during the formative years and conditions preceding military age?

This leads inevitably to the entire question of physical education, of which there is total lack in many lines of instruction. Most important of these are the manual arts. These constitute the basis of all apprenticeship schools, of all arts and trades schools, of all polytechnic schools. * * * The aim of such schools should not be confined to the development of mere manual dexterity. The development of the brain is in close relation with that of the hand. There is furthermore a fundamentally ethical meaning, inasmuch as a just emphasis put upon labor does away with artificial social categories. * * * Spain has before this had gleams of her duty. Twenty-five years ago she sent investigators to the far-famed school of manual arts in Naas, in Sweden; they returned, arrangements were made for the systematic instruction of Spanish teachers for national schools and normals, but the movement was allowed to die, and nothing came of it. The same was true of the sending of pupil teachers to the well-known Italian school at Ripatransone. * * *

So with school and national games. Spain does not know how to play. School games, school grounds fostered by the nation, do not exist. Even the word is becoming unknown, the good old Spanish word *horuelo*. The playground of a generation ago should be restored; old national ones should be restored, and new ones should be introduced from other countries. This is of interest primarily to the working class, first because health is their capital, economically speaking, and secondly, as part

of the nation they have the duty and right to share in a complete and well-rounded education.

The development of primary schools immediately needed is that which enhances manual dexterity as an educational element, viz, the schools for apprentices. In Spain these are as yet only on paper; but they must at once be organized, as must the schools of arts, industries, and trades, and all kindred schools. The practical work of the shop must be stressed. And yet the teacher must not be merely a mechanic. Spaniards may never again, for historical reasons, be a world-governing race like the English; but they can for the self-same reasons, be a directing race in matters of the mind. France, even in time of war, set herself to the making over of her apprentice schools; and England is discussing them as one of the chief features of her pending education bill.¹

But it is still by means of the primary schools that the minister of public instruction must touch and mold the people. The Crown is already alive to the imperative necessity of constructing none but hygienic schools. If a start can be made here, it will be some offset to the appalling mortality from tuberculosis. The location of the school building is of supreme importance. A start should be made in the towns and villages which are to build schoolhouses by the appointment of a local provisional council to select fitting sites at fair prices, and to dedicate them to the school and to playgrounds and plots for garden and agricultural experiments by the pupils. Primary instruction must be radically overhauled and changed, and so of course must the form of teaching back of and beneath it, namely, the training of the teachers of the primary schools. We run the risk, more than all other countries, of useful men being attracted from teaching into the trades and better paid employments. The teachers' salary must be increased until it is fair, and will bear comparison with the pay of other skilled men and women. * * * The teachers should, if possible, have university training, or at least a part of it. They should be encouraged to go to the universities, and the universities should be required to institute a faculty of pedagogy as leaven to the lump; all teachers should attend such courses, especially those aspiring to be professors in institutes or in normal schools of four grades, inspectors, and principals of normals. The normal schools should specialize in preparing technically all pupil teachers by constant and unceasing practice in teaching from the first to the last day of their training.

III. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

INSTITUTOS GENERALES Y COLEJIOS.

But fall
Secondary education in Spain is organized along the territorial lines of the 11 university districts. The local administrative side is controlled by a rector for each university district, who is appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the minister of public instruction, and is generally the rector of the university of that district. Cooperating with the rector is the provincial junta, of which he is a member, together with the civil governor of the Province, an ecclesiastic delegated by the diocesan bishop, a member of the normal provincial commission, a member of the *ayuntamiento* of the provincial capital, a judge of the provincial courts, the inspector of primary education, the director of the provincial instituto, and three patrons of the provincial instituto named by the minister. (Law of 1876.) Three inspectors general are required to visit periodically all institutes and to present reports to the minister for

¹ This speech was delivered before the passage of the education act, August, 1911.

transmission to the cabinet. In accordance with the legal requirement, there is in each Province at least one instituto of secondary education for boys which confers the bachelor's degree. Of these there are 58, including both general, that is, traditionally classical, and technical.

To be admitted to the studies of the instituto the student must be at least 9 years of age, and pass the prescribed examination, both theoretical and practical, in all subjects included in the course of the national primary education, before the examining board appointed by the minister. Examinations on the theoretical side must be individual; those on the practical side may be by groups, each student being required to write at dictation a simple grammatical paragraph, and to solve in writing simple problems illustrating the four fundamental rules of arithmetic.

The subjects taught in the cultural institutos cover a six-years course, and are as follows: Spanish, grammar, rhetoric, and literature; Latin and Greek; French and English or German; history, general and Spanish; geography, physical and political; cosmography, mathematics, natural history, physiology and hygiene.

The technical and commercial institutos omit Latin and Greek, and require physical sciences, accounting and bookkeeping, commercial geography, and two modern languages in their place.

By royal decree there must be for each instituto at least the following teachers: Five for the section of languages and literature; four for the section of sciences; three for the section of religious instruction, drawing, and gymnastics; and two assistants for each full section. Salaries are, of course, higher than in primary education; but no statistics on this point are available. Students completing the full six years' course of the classical instituto receive the bachelor's degree, and upon examination are admitted at not earlier than 15 years of age to the universities.

Preparatory to the cultural institutos are the annexed schools called the *colegios*, of which there are 253. In 1916 a total of 48,311 students, of whom 1,936 were girls, were admitted to both these types of secondary schools. For 1916 the cost of maintenance of the system of secondary education was a little over \$1,100,000, an increase of 48 per cent since 1902.

At a meeting of the teachers of institutos held in June, 1918, reform in the subjects taught was urged, in order that the traditional course might not be merely instructional, but educative as well. A clear division of the courses into the cultural and the scientific was also urged, with the creation of additional institutos in the populous centers. Enlargement of the teaching staff was advocated, with teachers specially trained for their subjects. Lengthening of the traditional six-year course to eight years was also advocated, by

means of the development of the courses in Spanish, science, and modern languages, and the addition of others in civic and sociological fields, in order to keep the pupil in school until greater maturity, and for the attainment of a riper and more solid culture, essential to the ability to determine special vocation and to the formation of character and personality. A 50 per cent decrease of expense for students in secondary education was also urged, and an increase of scholarship funds for residence of students in provincial capitals.

Of the special institutos (*enseñanza técnica*) dependent upon the ministry of public instruction, the following are most noteworthy:

1. Schools of veterinary surgery, at Madrid, Cordoba, Leon, Santiago, and Zaragoza, enrolling (1916) 2,234 students.
2. Nineteen business schools, located in coast cities and centers of population, enrolling (1916) more than 5,000 students.
3. Twelve nautical schools, enrolling (1916) 963 students.
4. Central School for Industrial Engineers; School of Industrial Engineers of Barcelona; Higher Architectural School of Madrid and Barcelona; Royal Conservatory of Music and Declamation (Madrid), enrolling (1916) 3,042 men and women.
5. School of Higher Pedagogical Studies, enrolling (1916) 470 men and women; Woman's Domestic and Professional School, Central School of Languages.
6. Thirty-one establishments for the instruction of deaf-mutes and blind, enrolling (1916) 939 deaf-mutes and 658 blind. Many are aided by religious and municipal subventions.¹

Under the head of schools of arts and industries are grouped:

Seven schools of arts and trades sustained by the State, enrolling (1916) 1,146 students.

Five schools of arts and trades with artistic and industrial apprenticeship, enrolling (1916) 6,758 students.

Thirteen industrial schools, enrolling (1916) 11,908 students.

Akin to the above group are five schools maintained by deputations and *ayuntamientos*, enrolling (1916) 4,093 students; and seven maintained by State and local authorities, enrolling (1916) 6,425 students.

The total appropriation of funds for the last three types of secondary schools was, in 1916, nearly \$700,000, or an increase of 161 per cent since 1902.

To these should be added the special schools dependent on the ministry of public works and grouped as follows:

1. Special school for road engineers, canals, and harbors, 25 enrolled.
2. School of assistants in public works, in existence only one year, 19 enrolled.
3. School of mining engineers (1916-17), 49 enrolled.
4. Schools for mine superintendents and foremen, located in seven mining centers, enrollment 55.
5. Special school of agronomy (1915-16), 29 students finished course.

¹ By royal decree of Aug. 26, 1817, there was organized within the ministry of public instruction a three-fold national foundation for the study and encouragement of the education of deaf-mutes, the blind, and the mentally abnormal.

The committee of the Cortes appointed in 1917 on the survey of educational conditions recommended that all the above extraeducational institutions, as well as the institutions established abroad, such as the Spanish College of Bologna and the Academy of Fine Arts at Rome, should be transferred from the control of the minister of public works to that of the minister of public instruction.

IV. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

University education in Spain, like secondary education, is administered along the territorial lines of the 11 university districts. In the rector of each university, named by the minister, is vested entire local control on the disciplinary and scholastic sides. Associated with him in an advisory capacity is the junta of full professors. The rector is responsible immediately to a designated one of the three inspectors general, to whom he must render periodical reports of the condition of the university under his charge. Likewise, the inspectors general are by law required to inspect the universities, and to render reports of their visits to the ministry for transmission to the Cabinet. Each of the universities is possessed of its own property holdings in law, donated or bequeathed to it; but the expenditure of such funds is subject to the consent of the State, and the State maintains the university by the subvention necessary each year. As has been seen, the administrative connection of the universities with the cultural instituto is very close, the same territorial lines and system of inspection prevailing for both. Preparation for the universities is the almost exclusive aim of the institutos. For entrance into the university, the student must have completed the full six years' course of the institutos, have received the bachelor's degree, and have passed satisfactory examinations upon the subjects studied in the institutos. In 1916 the 11 universities enrolled 21,300 students in all schools, cultural and professional, with slightly more than half pursuing official or prescribed courses. For that year, the appropriation for university education was \$1,316,062, nearly twice the amount for 1909.

Recommendations have been made advocating the suppression of the weaker universities, and the diversion of funds toward the strengthening of the others; their closer articulation with the general educational system, and the abolition of the exclusive connection with the institutos; the modernizing and broadening of the courses offered so as to touch the lives and careers of the youths of poor and middle-class families, and the throwing open of the universities to the people of Spain; the adoption of more rigorous disciplinary and administrative measures, with stringent requirements as to conduct and residence of students; the abolition of the present overemphasis upon formal examinations; the establishment of free election of courses; greater care in selection of professors and in attention to

their qualifications and activities; encouragement of foundation of private institutions of university rank; and university extension carried to all the agricultural and industrial points, no matter how remote.

University extension work in the Province of Oviedo, the pioneer for Spain, has continued its remarkably useful career. Free popular classes have been conducted by teachers of the normal school and the university in law, civic instruction, history of civilization, general geography, Spanish grammar and literature, elements of natural science, physics and chemistry, and practical arithmetic.

HOLIDAY COURSE FOR FOREIGNERS.

The sixth session of the vacation course for foreigners was offered during the summer of 1918 in Madrid. It is under the auspices of the minister of education, and designed primarily to offer to foreign teachers of Spanish, or to foreigners interested in Spain and the Spanish language and literature, the opportunity of continuing their studies through practical work in classes conducted by teachers in the central normal schools and professors in the University of Madrid, authorities in their respective lines. Short courses and lectures were also given on the history, arts, and social life of Spain. Excursions to museums and places of historic and literary interest were announced.

V. EXTRA EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES.

In conclusion, certain agencies not organically related to the educational system of Spain but making for intellectual progress in cooperation with it, deserve mention. Of these, undoubtedly the most active is *La Junta para Ampliación de Estudios e Investigaciones Científicas* (Commission for Enlargement of Studies and Scientific Investigations). It is composed of eminent educational and scientific experts, chosen with due regard to the diversity of intellectual and religious tendencies in the country. It supports Spanish students in foreign countries, encourages new types of educational institutions in Spain itself, diffuses knowledge of scientific progress in other countries, and encourages by subvention research along scientific and sociological lines.

As an intellectual movement, which, while it does not reach the body of the people, yet affects the rising generation in the capital city, and ultimately the administrative side of popular education, may be mentioned the Association for Woman's Education, founded in 1870. It conducts in Madrid a system of schools, primary, preparatory, secondary, and commercial, besides offering special classes in language, drawing, painting, manual and domestic arts. The business courses are this year recognized as equivalent to national schools, and pupils certificated from them are admitted to employment by the Government.