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THE UNIVERSITY OF DURHAM

THE ZWEITER BILDUNGSWEG IN WEST GERMANY. AN ALTERNATIVE ROUTE TO
HIGHER EDUCATION IN WEST GERMANY. A CRITICAL APPRAISAL.

being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of

Master of Education

in the University of Durham

by

C. R. ANTHONY, B.A.

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Abstract

That a need for a Zweiter Bildungsweg existed at all in Germany is principally due to the deep division between the concepts of Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung, general academic education and vocational education. Since Humboldt's time, the path to university had been limited to those who passed the Abitur, an examination which could only be taken at the Gymnasium. Just as it was the Gymnasium's task to prepare its pupils for university, so it was the task of the Volksschule to impart a practical education which its pupils would find useful in their future careers.

Kerschensteiner was one of the first to point out the educational value of the world of work, but it is in the educationally fertile years of the twenties that we find initial experiments designed to circumvent the rigid tripartite system and allow former Volksschüler access to university. After 1945 West Germany was presented with an excellent opportunity of reorganising her education system on more democratic lines, but so strong was her cultural and educational heritage that she reverted to the traditional system. As the Gymnasium was still virtually the only school where Abitur could be taken, an alternative route which took as its starting point the world of work had to be opened up. The Gymnasien and universities still largely opposed the idea, but the needs of a modern society and the demands of the technological age rendered essential the tapping of all available talent. The introduction of a Zweiter Bildungsweg was important not only in educational and economic terms, but also had far-reaching sociological implications. Although the route is difficult, it is

open to anyone, regardless of his previous education. Formerly comprising primarily the Berufsaufbauschulen and Kollegs, its scope has now been widened to include virtually every attempt to allow talented working people to attain university status.

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Introduction

In recent years the idea of an alternative route to higher education has become increasingly popular in West Germany. The name Zweiter Bildungsweg, which was first used in 1946 at an industrial conference in Nienburg in the British zone of occupation, has now been accepted as the term for a second avenue of education. This concept presupposes the existence of a first which is represented by the traditional Gymnasium course which leads after nine years' study to Hochschulreife or Abitur, the certificate of maturity. As entry to a university cannot be attained without Abitur, this meant in the past that pupils who have not been to a Gymnasium have been excluded from study at a university. If these pupils, therefore, were to be able to progress to the highest educational levels, it was realised that a new path would have to be introduced in order to supply the need for a type of education which was not based upon the traditional concepts of academic learning, but one which was more technically and vocationally orientated. The Zweiter Bildungsweg was intended for those in full-time employment who had attended either the Volksschule or the Mittelschule, or who had left the Gymnasium before taking Abitur. It was not meant to compete with the Erster Bildungsweg, but rather to complement it. The two together would meet all demands for access to higher learning.

Unlike the continuous nine-year Gymnasium course, the Zweiter Bildungsweg is made up of stages, each one complete in itself with

its own final examination and leaving certificate. A student may pause after completing a stage before passing on to the next higher one. The two avenues differ not only in time, but also in content. The first imparts a broad, general academic education, subject specialisation ensuing only after Abitur has been passed, that is, at the university: the second builds on the professional and vocational experience of its students, giving a broader general and theoretical education based upon the specialist knowledge gained in their jobs and leading via Abitur to academic study at the university or Technische Hochschule.

The Zweiter Bildungsweg comprises a number of institutions:

1. Berufsaufbauschulen which lead to the examination of Fachschulreife.
2. Abendrealschulen which lead to the examination of Mittlere Reife.
3. Ingenieurschulen and Höhere Fachschulen which lead to a limited form of Hochschulreife called fachgebundene Hochschulreife or Fakultätsreife which allows the students to study in certain university faculties only.
4. Abengymnasien and Kollegs which lead to allgemeine Hochschulreife.

It may seem paradoxical that a country which has the best-organised vocational education system in Western Europe, and arguably in the world, and a fine academic tradition, could not find sufficient common ground between the two types of education to bring about a mutually advantageous reconciliation. Yet on closer examination,

it soon becomes apparent that here lies the crux of the problem. It is because these two systems are so steeped in tradition that they have become such irreconcilable entities in the past. To understand how this deep division between Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung arose, it is necessary to examine the historical development of the various schools and this is done in Part One. Special attention has been paid to the development of the Fortbildungsschule and Berufsschule and to the work of Georg Kerschensteiner, for a clear understanding of his contribution to the vocational school and to vocational thought and education is basic to the whole Zweiter Bildungsweg theme. Part Two deals with the Weimar years which gave birth to many progressive ideas on educational reform. It was at this time that the first measures were introduced to enable gifted Volksschüler to reach university level. Part Three outlines the post-war situation and discusses the various influences active in West German society which rendered some sort of reform essential. Once the need for a Zweiter Bildungsweg was recognised, the answers to many questions had to be found before its final form and organisation were decided. Part Four discusses these problems, the solutions arrived at, and the role played by industry. Part Five examines critically the separate institutions which today form the Zweiter Bildungsweg and attempts to predict their future development. The work is rounded off by Part Six which seeks to summarize the basic problems and also to indicate overall trends for the future.

A word is necessary about the terminology used. It was considered advisable to leave the names of schools and other institutions in German and a translation is to be found either as a footnote or in the glossary at the end. Quotations used in the text, however, have been translated into English, except where they are particularly graphic, in which case the English rendering is given at the bottom of the page. Two matters of style may be noted at this point. Sometimes both the German and English word will be found, for example Volksschüler/Volksschule pupil: Berufsbildung/vocational education: and in order to avoid a fussy appearance, inverted commas have not been used when typing German words.

PART ONE

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT
OF THE SCHOOLS

The Gymnasium

The Gymnasium traces its origins back to the Klosterschulen of the Middle Ages. The sixteenth century Protestant reformer Melancthon influenced the future pattern of the Gymnasium, advocating that it should be based upon a study of the Classics. Though during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was a gradual broadening of the curriculum, the Classical languages remained at the core until modern times.

The growth of the middle classes in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries saw the introduction of a new type of school with a practical bias, the Realschule. ¹⁾ Geography, History, Mathematics, French and Drawing were taught as well as Latin. It proved very popular and was the forerunner of the Realgymnasium and the Mittelschule. By the end of the eighteenth century the middle classes had taken the lead in education and they determined the type of education in the nineteenth century. The state, not the Church, was now the dominant partner in the field of education as can be seen from this statement in the Prussian Code of 1794: ²⁾ "Schulen und Universitäten sind Veranstaltungen des Staates." ³⁾

In the early nineteenth century the development of the Gymnasium was greatly influenced by Wilhelm von Humboldt. Deeply shocked by

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- 1) Not to be confused with the modern Realschule, the school was still a grammar school.
 - 2) Prof. Dr. Gerhardt Giese: Quellen zur deutschen Schulgeschichte seit 1800: Göttingen 1961: p. 61
 - 3) Schools and universities are state institutions.

Prussia's defeat at Jena, he saw the rebirth of Prussia in the systematic building-up of the nation's spiritual and intellectual forces. There were three levels of education which he called Elementarunterricht, which was given at the Volksschule, Schulunterricht, which was given at the Gymnasium, and Universtätsunterricht. ¹⁾ The aim of the Gymnasium education was not to teach as many subjects as possible. Rather was the subject matter to be so presented that it developed the student's whole personality, broadened his outlook and taught him how to learn. Humboldt states this quite clearly in the Koenigsberger Schulplan of 1809: the student is mature and ready to enter a university when "he has learned so much from others that he is now capable of learning for himself." ²⁾

On the 4th June 1834 university entrance examinations were abolished and in the future all students had to take the Abitur at the Gymnasium. This gave them matriculation and entrance to later state examinations.

The Abitur, introduced by an edict of 1788, had already taken on neo-humanistic traits in Humboldt's time. Latin and Greek formed the core of the curriculum and were supplemented by German, Mathematics, Science, History, Geography, Religious Instruction and Gymnastics.

1) Über die mit dem Koenigsbergischen Schulwesen vorzunehmenden Reformen. (Sommer 1809): Giese: op. cit. p. 66.

2) ibid. p. 66.

This was to be the academic general education (Allgemeinbildung) which was to provide the student with "ein Lernen des Lernens." By 1850, however, Humboldt's conception of Allgemeinbildung had degenerated into encyclopaedism as more and more subjects were added to the curriculum. The burden on the student became intolerable. Reactions against this and against the predominance of the Classics, together with the growth of the middle classes who desired a type of education more suited to the positions in industry and commerce which they would later assume, led to the establishment of the Realgymnasium with its emphasis on modern languages, and the Oberrealschule which stressed Mathematics and Science. Today these are the neusprachliches Gymnasium and the mathematisch-naturwissenschaftliches Gymnasium. They were finally recognised as being of equal status with the altsprachliches Gymnasium in 1900. All three types had a nine-year course culminating in the Abitur examination. Thus since 1834, the path to university study and the learned professions has been via the Gymnasium.

The Volksschule

Before 1650 the Volksschule was primarily an annex of the Church, ¹⁾ but the next hundred and fifty years saw the state assume control in popular education. Under Pestalozzi's influence, the Volksschule was regarded as an institution where the children's

1) Prof. Friedrich Paulsen: German Education Past and Present: Fisher Unwin 1908: p. 236.

natural powers were released and developed. It was no longer a place of rote learning and the cramming of knowledge. An air of liberality pervaded the schools and training colleges, but as early as 1822 the reactionary tendencies which were to culminate in the stifling effect of the post-1848 years were already beginning to make themselves felt. In a circular of 1822, Altenstein, the head of the Ministry of Culture, stated that Emperor Frederick William III "could not but approve of the zealous endeavours for the cause of primary education, but at the same time wished to point out that a line must be drawn somewhere, as otherwise the masses might be turned into half-educated sciolists, quite unfit for their future vocation." ¹⁾ The Volksschule was to give its pupils a basic knowledge of German, Arithmetic and Reading which they would need in their future jobs, whereas the Gymnasium was to educate an élite. An academic liberal education was not for the Volksschule pupil. In fact it could be dangerous. The Third Regulation of the Elementarschule of 1854 stated that the idea of a liberal and general education by the formal development of one's mental powers by abstract subject content had been proved by experience to be futile and dangerous. ²⁾ The pupil should be taught the fundamentals of Christianity and prepared for a practical life. A gulf between

1) Paulsen: op. cit. p. 242.

2) Giese: op. cit. p. 151.

general education (Allgemeinbildung) and vocational education (Berufsbildung), between the educated élite and the worker, had already opened up. Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung were basically separate and must not be mixed, for according to the Litauischer Schulplan of 1809: "Both types of education - the liberal and the special - are motivated by different basic principles. The liberal will strengthen, refine and regulate man's powers, the special will impart skills which can be put to use. ¹⁾ Thus man is separated into two distinct types: one enjoys an education which tends his inner needs, the other is taught useful, practical skills.

After 1870 efforts were made to return to the principles of the period of Pestalozzi's influence. The General Regulations of 1872 showed the new liberal and humanistic tendencies in Prussian administration. Rote learning was to be kept to a minimum and the subjects taught were German, Arithmetic, Religious Instruction, Geometry, Drawing, Singing, Gymnastics and Handwork. These regulations remained in the same form for fifty years and only in recent times has the curriculum been broadened to include such subjects as modern languages. ²⁾

The Mittelschule

The General Regulations of 1872 recognised a new type of school,

1) Giese: op. cit. p. 71.

2) ibid. p. 37.

the Mittelschule. Its function was that of a higher grade primary school and it was to have five or six classes. ¹⁾ The curriculum was similar to that of the Volksschule but of a more advance nature. French was to be taught. The school owes its emergence to the needs of the growing middle classes who required a type of education beyond that which the Volksschule offered, one which was more suited to the demands of commerce. The General Regulations of 1910 acknowledged the expansion of the Mittelschule and made provision for a second foreign language to be taught during the last two years. To meet the commercial requirements of its pupils, Bookkeeping was to be part of the Arithmetic syllabus. ²⁾

Today the Mittelschule, or Realschule as it has been called since 1964, seeks to combine both a practical and an academic education. Its aim, as stated in the Hesse Regulations, is: fachliches Können, allgemeine Menschenbildung und soziale Erziehung. ³⁾ Its prestige is higher than that of the Volksschule, and the Mittlere Reife, the school's leaving certificate which is granted after six years' study, allows entry to the middle professions, for example the Civil Service, banking and management training. Moreover, as there are more opportunities today of transferring from the Realschule

1) Paulsen: op. cit. p. 255.

2) Giese: op. cit. p. 185.

3) ibid. p. 317: "specialist knowledge, general education and social education."

to the Gymnasium, parents feel that they can send their children to this school without depriving them of the chance to take Abitur, and hence of a university education. Though in many ways the curriculum of the Realschule is still similar to that of the Volksschule, the courses are more academic and theoretical and a higher standard is required of the pupil. A foreign language, English, is compulsory, and French is offered as an optional subject.

The development of the various types of school, beginning in medieval society, has been based upon Church, civic, vocational and class needs. The Lateinschulen, Lese-, Schreibe- and Rechnenschulen, Küsterschulen in rural areas, Elementarschulen in town, Realgymnasien and Oberrealschulen, were all institutions created to serve a definite purpose. The more the Volksschule developed as Germany changed in the course of the nineteenth century from a predominantly agricultural state to an industrial one, the more the Fortbildungsschule ¹⁾ was able to follow trade and industrial needs.

The Fortbildungsschule and the work of Georg Kerschensteiner

The Fortbildungsschule traces its roots back to the Sonntagsschule which taught the Sunday catechism demanded by the Reformers and was attended by both children and adults. As state influence in education grew, the Sonntagsschulen became Wiederholungsschulen or Nachholungs-
schulen, schools whose object it was to repeat work which had not

1) Continuation school.

been properly learned in the Volksschule. In the early part of the nineteenth century, they had no connection with any trades and were, in fact, poorly attended because of the uninteresting, formal and repetitive character of their work and methods. The economic development of the mid-nineteenth century altered this, however, and the curriculum assumed a technical and vocational bias. ¹⁾ As the curriculum was now directly related to the pupil's vocation, interest began to grow. German, Arithmetic and Drawing were the main subjects and were adapted to each trade and profession. By 1850 there were 220 Fortbildungsschulen in Prussia, run either privately or by interested trade organisations. ²⁾ Progress was, however, not uniform throughout Germany and it was not until 1919 that the Fortbildungsschule became compulsory for all up to the age of eighteen.

The drawing together of the various forces and ideas of the nineteenth century in the sphere of vocational education is the work of educationalists like Oskar Pache, Richard Seyfert and Georg Kerschensteiner. From 1890 onwards the development of an education linked directly with one's vocation owed much to these men. The work of Georg Kerschensteiner was particularly outstanding in this respect and it would be impossible to discuss the growth of the

1) Paulsen: op. cit. p. 262.

2) Abel/Groothoff: Die Berufsschule - Gestalt und Form: Darmstadt 1959: p. 84.

Fortbildungsschule in this century without considering his aims and ideals.

As we have seen the tenor of German education required that the Gymnasium should produce educated and cultured men and this was to be achieved by a general academic education. When the Sonntagschule became the Fortbildungsschule, the curriculum was given a much broader basis. Kerschensteiner was, however, against too general a curriculum and argued that the pupils did not derive the greatest benefit from the Fortbildungsschule because the curriculum was often irrelevant and that it needed to be related much more closely to the pupil's own work and profession. It must not be a mere continuation of the Volksschule curriculum, offering the same subjects at a slightly more advanced level. This irrelevance stultified the pupil's interest and the situation was aggravated even further by the fact that tuition took place in the evening when he was tired after a hard day's work.¹⁾ Seyfert and Pache had both argued in a similar vein. In the 1891 Dresdener Lehrplan, Seyfert had opposed "das Wiederkäuen der schon in der Volksschule verabreichten Speise."²⁾ Oskar Pache, founder in 1892 of the Association of Teachers and Friends of the Continuation School, maintained that the school must not be allowed to become a prolonged Volksschule and demanded the setting up of vocational classes

1) Diane Simmons: Georg Kerschensteiner: Methuen, 1966: p. 24.

2) Abel/Groothoff: op. cit. p. 87: "chewing the cud of food already consumed in the elementary school."

linked with the pupil's job.

Until 1895 Kerschensteiner's efforts to provide a meaningful education for his pupils had been limited to the schools in which he had taught. His new post of Director of Education for Munich, however, gave him the opportunity to put some of his ideas into practice on a much broader scale. In 1900 the Prussian Academy for Useful Knowledge awarded Kerschensteiner their essay competition prize. The subject was: "How is youth best to be educated for citizenship in the years between the completion of elementary education and conscription?" The pupils referred to were those in the Fortbildungsschulen and the ideas formulated in the essay were to have a profound and lasting effect upon German educational thought. 1)

Kerschensteiner considered that the first aim of education for those in the upper classes of the Volksschule and in the Fortbildungsschule was training for trade efficiency and love of work. "With these is connected the training of those elementary virtues which efficiency and love of work have in their train - conscientiousness, industry, perseverance, responsibility, self-restraint and devotion to an active life. 2) Later we shall see that these qualities are regarded by advocates of the Zweiter Bildungsweg as essential to any student undertaking the long and arduous alternative route to higher education.

1) Simons: op. cit. p. 24.

2) ibid. p. 35.

The second aim was to understand man's relationship to his fellow-men. This understanding would lead to self-control, devotion to duty and personal responsibility. "One can call the first aim that of technical education, the second that of moral and intellectual education. But one must be conscious of the fact that the first aim also has high moments of intellectual and moral education, and that the second aim can only be attained through the first and as a continuation of it." ¹⁾ Thus, whereas most German educationalists saw academic and vocational education as separate entities, Kerschensteiner considered them to be two different aspects of the same whole. They overlapped and each could learn from the other. Each had something to give to the other and, in fact, neither could serve the best interests of the students without there being some interplay between them. These ideas were revolutionary in the early years of the twentieth century and met with much opposition. Indeed, with the exception of the reforming zeal of the Weimar Republic, these concepts were not accepted as valid until the middle of the century.

Kerschensteiner recognised very clearly the importance of interest in the pupil's development. "There is no possibility of educating a person unless he shows interest in the subject he is to be educated in." ²⁾ This fact must be borne in mind when we educate.

1) Simons: op. cit. p. 35.

2) Kerschensteiner: Berufserziehung im Jugendalter: in Die Bildungsfrage in der modernen Arbeitswelt: ed. by H. Röhrs: 1963: p. 61

The subjects taught in the Fortbildungsschule should, therefore, be related to his interests, aptitudes and inclinations, and learning must be seen to have an aim. "There is only one way of rendering an object interesting and that is to let the pupil experience it as a useful means of realising the aims of his interest." ¹⁾ Knowledge was too often imparted without any thought or consideration for the pupil, with the result that he was often bored and unwilling to learn. Kerschensteiner knew that the vast majority of pupils attending the Fortbildungsschule were not interested in academic subjects, but in their own trade. Practical interests prevailed in the young man and woman. They were averse to the abstract forms of thought found in the Gymnasium, but not to thought in its own right. Thought linked with practical work was willingly taken on. Kerschensteiner strongly maintained that it was wrong to consider practical thinking to be of lesser value than theoretical, academic thinking, for they were both equally valid and important. ²⁾ He further argued that the Fortbildungsschulen should become trade schools where the pupil could receive instruction in his own specific trade.

In 1900, on Kerschensteiner's advice, the authorities set up Fortbildungsschulen which concentrated on special work-related

1) Kerschensteiner: op. cit. p. 65.

2) ibid. p. 70.

subjects. The new schools were linked with trade associations which influenced their organisation, inspected them and provided specialist staff. The first associations to help were those of the butchers, bakers, cobblers, barbers, wigmakers and chimney-sweeps. ¹⁾ The success of these courses soon brought about the establishment of others. In 1902 there were twenty-two, in 1906 forty, forty-six in 1907 and fifty-four by 1912. ²⁾

Kerschensteiner maintained that if the pupils were to develop a responsible attitude to their work, the best way of achieving this aim would be by introducing group methods of work. Working together towards a common goal, experiencing common success and failure, would ensure pride in one's work, dedication and a feeling of responsibility to one's fellow-workers. These ideas were to have a profound effect upon German educational thinking in later years. We meet them again in the educational writings of the Weimar Republic. The Berlin educationalist and reformer, Fritz Karsen, was to use group methods in his school at Berlin-Neukölln and he duly acknowledged his debt to Kerschensteiner. ³⁾ It was in this school that the most successful Arbeiter-Abiturienten-Kurse were held in the middle and late twenties and here again group methods of tuition and group work were practised. The courses represented the first

1) Simons: op. cit. p. 73.

2) ibid. p. 74.

3) See Alfred Ehrentreich: Das Arbeitsschulverfahren in Neukölln: in Festschrift für Fritz Karsen: ed. by Gerd Radde: Berlin 1966: p. 17.

tentative steps towards the establishment of the Zweiter Bildungsweg and it is significant that their present-day successors, the Volkshochschulen, make use of similar methods and have had these recognised as most suitable by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education. ¹⁾

In 1907 attendance at the Fortbildungsschule was made compulsory in Munich up to the age of eighteen. Practical work was introduced into the final optional class of the Volksschule and as attendance immediately leapt, the class was made compulsory in 1907. Here again, Kerschensteiner foreshadows much later developments. Practical work in the form of a day spent in industry is an important part of the Polytechnic education of the German Democratic Republic and the recommendations of the German Committee for Education ²⁾ for the final year of the Hauptschule also includes some pre-vocational training.

Noting Kerschensteiner's success in Munich, other states soon set up their own vocational school systems, and vocational education now became a question of national importance. Attendance at the Fortbildungsschule was not generally compulsory before 1919, but in that year the new Constitution stated that school attendance was

1) See Appendix V.

2) Empfehlungen und Gutachten des Deutschen Ausschusses für das Erziehungs- und Bildungswesen: Folge 7/8: Ernst Klett Verlag: 1965.

obligatory, first at the Volksschule for a minimum of eight years, then at the Fortbildungsschule until the age of eighteen. ¹⁾ In 1921 the Committee of the Imperial School Conference changed the name from Fortbildungsschule to Berufsschule.

The years between the wars are marked by the continual expansion of the Berufsschule. Before the 1914-1918 war it was mainly the craft trades which were interested in the Fortbildungsschule. From the mid-twenties, however, industry began to take an active interest and the emergence of the Zweiter Bildungsweg owes much to this continued and developing interest. Abel considers the two main achievements of the Berufsschule between 1920 and 1939 to be the specialist theoretical knowledge it gave, and the education of working youth to a sense of vocational consciousness and pride in its job. ²⁾ However, although university men like Spranger, Fischer and Petersen had done much to make the Berufsschule accepted in Germany, the Volksschule/Berufsschule branch of the education system was still regarded by most as providing a second-class education. The proud tradition of the Gymnasium, conservative attitudes and class consciousness prevalent in Germany were not an ideal seed bed in which the thought of men like Kerschensteiner and Spranger could take root. The value of experience gained in industry, the maturing

1) E. Spranger: Zur Geschichte der deutschen Volksschule: Heidelberg 1949: p. 91.

2) Abel/Groothoff: op. cit. p. 93.

effect of the world of work would not be generally accepted as a different, though equally valid, avenue to higher education until after the Second World War.

On the credit side, however, the wide variety of courses held at the modern Berufsschule is ample proof of the success of Kerschensteiner's pioneering work in the sphere of education. The basis of all work undertaken in the schools is trade instruction. Kerschensteiner's conviction that most people will find their way to a general education and the full development of their personalities via vocational education ¹⁾ has been acknowledged by the introduction of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. The majority of pupils following this alternative route to university have attended the Volksschule and Berufsschule. An essential part of their further education is a general education which will help develop their personalities and enable them to take up leading positions in industry and commerce. We can see how far the pendulum has had to swing from its original position where only a classical and academic Gymnasium education would suffice for university entry. The Zweiter Bildungsweg student will attain the same goal via a practical education which becomes more theoretical as he progresses. Kerschensteiner was not the only reformer to equate Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung,

1) Simons: op. cit. p. 73.

but it was he, who, by his tireless efforts, was instrumental in bringing about an extremely efficient and richly differentiated system of vocational education, thus laying a firm foundation upon which others could build.

PART TWO

A. THE WEIMAR YEARS

B. INITIAL STEPS TOWARDS

A ZWEITER BILDUNGSWEG

A. The Weimar Years

The tenor of German educational thinking in the last twenty-five years of the nineteenth century had been decidedly intellectual, but the period from 1900 to 1918 saw a reaction against this intellectualism. Kerschensteiner had successfully shown the way to a child-centred theory of education and many reformers returned to the precepts of Froebel and Pestalozzi, namely that the child should direct his energies into creative activity. The years after 1918 were characterised by a genuine desire for reform and attempts were made to infuse a spirit of democracy into the education system. The Weimar Constitution contained a long section on education and it was hoped to base upon it a general law for the whole country. The Reich, province and local community were responsible for the education of all youth. All teachers were to receive a university education and the freedom to teach the arts and sciences was guaranteed by the state. These points are still valid today. ¹⁾ The criteria for entry to the secondary school should be ability and aptitude, not wealth or religion and the province should give financial assistance to children from working-class homes who had the necessary ability for a Gymnasium or Mittelschule education.

It was in these years that the idea of the Einheitsschule

1) Franz Hilker: Die Reformpädagogik der zwanziger Jahre: in Bildung und Erziehung: October 1966: p. 354.

flourished. ¹⁾ Although not specifically mentioned in the educational clauses of the Constitution, the spirit of this school was written into the system. ²⁾ Its aim was to allow every capable young person access to all forms of higher education, regardless of his social status or economic background. The Einheitsschule was to have a lower level, or common basic school, for the first six years, followed by a differentiated upper level to the age of eighteen. By allowing pupils of varying social backgrounds and different abilities to mix together as far as possible in lessons and in play, it was hoped to break down the social barriers which existed in the normal tripartite system. Many reformers saw in the Einheitsschule the answer to all social and educational problems. Fritz Karsen, whose contribution to the Zweiter Bildungsweg will be discussed in the next section, considered it to be the "Schule der werdenden Gesellschaft" ³⁾ and persuaded the authorities to build an Einheitsschule in Berlin-Neukölln. Although building was begun, financial difficulties in the first instance, and then the Nazi's

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- 1) Literally "unified school": similar in concept to our comprehensive school, it did, in effect, take children from their first day at school.
 - 2) See Article 146: "The public school system is to be built up organically. The middle and higher school systems are built on to a basic school which is common to all. Decisive factors for this structure are: 1) the variety of professions found in life: 2) acceptance into a particular school is dependent upon the child's gifts and inclinations, not upon economic or social position or religious confession."

rejection of an 'Einheits- und Gemeinschaftsschule' ¹⁾ prevented its completion.

As we have seen, the climate was at its most favourable for the introduction of new ideas in the early twenties. This was the time when Richert introduced his liberal and enlightened Guiding Principles for the Grundschule and Volksschuloberstufe. He attempted to break down the rigidity of the curriculum and wanted imaginative, creative activity on the part of the pupil. The emotions were to be given much freer rein, emphasis was placed upon the development of the individual's personality and education was to be meaningful. Arbeitsunterricht and Gesamtunterricht ²⁾ were concepts in the forefront of the writings of the educational reformers of the time. The twenties were the years when interest in youth movements began to gather momentum and the underlying principle of the whole period was freedom.

The democratic wave which passed over Germany did not, however, last long. Inflation, rising unemployment and resentment at the terms of the Treaty of Versailles all took their toll and contributed to the change of mood. Political unrest, propaganda directed at the overthrow of the Weimar Republic, engendered the now famous slogans of the "stab in the back" and the "November criminals". The

1) Gerd Radde: Auf den Spuren Fritz Karsens: in Festschrift für Fritz Karsen: Berlin 1966: p. 8.

2) Activity methods and the integration of subjects.

Imperial School Law which had been promised never materialised and the school became the centre of political wrangles. And always ready to oppose any reform of the tripartite system were the Gymnasien and universities.

Nevertheless the Weimar period was one of high thought and endeavour. The ground was prepared, the seeds were sown for the future and although the land would apparently lie fallow for many years to come, the dormant seeds would eventually burst into life a generation or so later. The first clear contributions to the human aspects of vocational life stem from the twenties. The modern Berufsschule, seen by Röhrs as the synthesis of philosophical, cultural and neo-humanistic ideas and ideals, was founded. ¹⁾ Genuine attempts were made to humanise the vocational world, and work in its many forms became a centre of interest for medicine, sociology, psychology and education. ²⁾ Here, too, we find initial research into the problems of boredom and monotony, fatigue, industrial accidents and milieu. In such an enterprising and enlightened atmosphere, it is hardly surprising, then, to find the first halting steps being taken to enable gifted Volksschule pupils to attain university entrance. The stimuli for these projects

1) Röhrs: op. cit. p. 3.

2) ibid. p. 5.

which took place in Bavaria, Württemberg, Altona (Hamburg) and Berlin-Neukölln, were in the main social and political rather than educational, and each one stressed the word "workers." 1) Let us now consider these courses and their contribution to the Zweiter Bildungsweg.

1) Helmut Belser: Zweiter Bildungsweg: Verlag Julius Beltz: Weinheim 1965: p. 31.

B. Initial steps towards a Zweiter Bildungsweg

Arbeiter-Übergangskurse in Bavaria

The scheme owes much to the ideas formulated by Aloys Fischer in a manuscript of June 1919 entitled "Über Arbeiter-Übergangskurse an den bayrischen Hochschulen." ¹⁾ It discussed how the university could be extended and adapted to help workers who had attended the Volksschule and who had completed their apprenticeships. Fischer stressed that talent latent in the masses should be harnessed for the common good and considered that the setting up of these courses would go a long way to achieving this end.

It was intended that twenty-five workers over the age of twenty should attend a one-and-a-half year course under the aegis of Munich University. They were to undergo full-time tuition for three to four hours daily and also spend a similar length of time on homework. Their wages were to be paid by the university. Unfortunately we lack more precise details as regards subjects to be studied, but from the fact that Latin was to have been the only foreign language taught, we may deduce that the number of subjects was to be strictly limited. The Bavarian Parliament eventually began discussing these proposals in 1922 but deferred them indefinitely for financial reasons.

1) "On workers' courses at Bavarian universities." See Belser: op. cit. pp. 32-34.

Umschulungskursus in Württemberg

In 1919 the Württemberg Ministry for Church and School Affairs put into effect plans which it had been working on for three years to help talented pupils whose families could not afford to pay for their education. The course was to lead to Abitur. The opportunity was given to male students between the ages of seventeen and twenty-one and in the first instance fifty applicants were asked to put forward their names for consideration. Only twenty-six did so and seven of these were rejected as being unsuitable. The remaining nineteen began their studies on 31st August 1919 and in the first year five dropped out. The course lasted three-and-a-half years and only seven of the fourteen who took the examination passed.¹⁾ The low pass rate was not encouraging, especially as the Ministry had borne all the costs and had even provided teachers who were specially chosen for the task. Belser considers the main reason for the lack of success to be the fact that all candidates were accepted, that no careful selection was carried out before acceptance. As we shall see later, this question of selection is regarded by advocates of the Zweiter Bildungsweg today to be of vital importance. The experiment was not continued, the reason given being the deteriorating financial situation. Belser does not wholly accept

1) See Belser: op. cit. pp. 31-32.

this argument and sees it as an excuse rather than as a valid reason. He points out that in the same years the workers' courses in Berlin-Neukölln actually began, proved popular and were able to continue.

Arbeiter-Abiturientenkurse in Altona

At the end of 1923 a plan was put forward to help talented workers reach the standard of Hochschulreife. The architect of this course was Senator Kirch who ensured that there were ample funds available for the participants from the city coffers and from private donations. The final number of selected applicants was thirty-four, including two women, and they began their studies in two separate classes on 14th January 1924 at the Gewerbeschule. ¹⁾ The student was not overburdened in the beginning and two hours' tuition was given daily from Monday to Friday. During this time he continued to work full-time. In Autumn 1924 this amount was doubled and a further selection of the students was made. This was deemed necessary first because of insufficient selection procedures before the course began and secondly because the students now had to exchange full-time for part-time employment and this brought financial stresses in its wake. From January 1928 they had to give up all employment and the number of hours of tuition was

1) See Belser: op. cit. pp. 35-37.

increased to twenty-nine. The authorities supported the experiment by giving grants to assist the students when they had to give up their jobs and by allowing the classes free use of rooms, first at the Gewerbeschule and later at the Reformgymnasium. Rooms were put at their disposal for private study at the Altona Museum and a small library was made available to them.

As the timetable was limited, no Religious Instruction, Drawing or Sport were taught. In contrast with similar courses at Berlin-Neukölln, Mathematics and the natural sciences were stressed, as can be seen from the following table. ¹⁾ German was not given much emphasis.

	Ger.	Eng.	Fr.	Maths Nat. Sci.	Hist. Geog.	Total
1a. Jan. 1924 to Michaelmas 1924						
b. Jan. 1924 to Easter 1925	2	4	-	2	2	10
2a. Mich. 1924 to Easter 1927	2	4	4	8	2	20
b. Easter 1925	3			6		19
3a. Easter 1927 to Dec. 1927	2	5	6	9	2	24
b. Easter 1927 to Mich. 1927	3		5	10		25
4a. Jan. 1928 to end	2	6	5	12	2	29
b. Mich. 1927 to end	4		5	12		29

1) Photostat from Neues Altona 1919-1929: Zehn Jahre Aufbau einer deutschen Großstadt: Paul Hoffmann: Jena 1929: p. 141.

After almost five years' study the Reifeprüfung took place in November 1928. Of the original thirty-four who began the course, twenty-two dropped out, mainly for financial reasons. Eleven of the remaining twelve candidates passed, four with the mark of 'Good.'

It had been originally intended that the successful students should return to their former spheres of work, though now with access to higher positions. It was felt that the working classes would be culturally enriched and strengthened, and by their example the students would encourage others to follow in their footsteps. In this way the course would have succeeded in a social and political sense, in that class barriers would have been broken down. ¹⁾ It was somewhat unexpected, however, when seven of the eleven successful candidates took up law studies. Thus for the first time it was realised that students would not necessarily return to their former employment. Today it is accepted that young men and women following the Zweiter Bildungsweg will change their minds as regards their careers during the course. The opening up of the world of learning to them, the new and varied stimuli they encounter and the new interests they develop, all contribute to this change of mind.

1) Hoffmann: op. cit. p. 212.

Arbeiter-Abiturientenkurse in Berlin-Neukölln

Strong political motives provided the original impetus for these courses in Neukölln which were undoubtedly the most successful of the twenties. In 1919 Fritz Karsen, together with twenty-three other like-minded Republican reformers, formed the League of Radical School Reformers. ¹⁾ Its aim was the reform of the existing school organisation and the creation of a system in which every citizen would have the opportunity to develop his talents to the full. ²⁾

In 1921 Karsen was given the chance to realise his aims when he was appointed headmaster of the Kaiser-Friedrich-Realgymnasium in Neukölln. Here he created a school complex which included not only the original Gymnasium, but also an Aufbauschule ³⁾ a Volksschule, a Deutsche Oberschule, ⁴⁾ a Studienseminar für Referendare ⁵⁾ and finally the workers' courses. ⁶⁾

1) Bund entschiedener Schulreformer.

2) Radde: op. cit. p. 21.

3) Extension classes usually held at the Volksschule to enable students to enter a Gymnasium course.

4) School having a nine-year course whose basic subjects were German language, literature and history, combined with general History, Geography, two foreign languages and Philosophy.

5) Intending Gymnasium teachers have to attend a Studienseminar for two years during their first appointment.

6) Radde: op. cit. p. 26.

Karsen himself states that the main purpose of the course was originally to ensure the future of the Republican Party and the State by educating young workers in the spirit of the Constitution and in the thought and aims of the Republic. ¹⁾ He quickly adds, however, that the course's significance soon outgrew these aims and came to encompass the right of all citizens to equal educational opportunity as stated in the Weimar Constitution. The course was open to candidates between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five and young men and women throughout Germany could apply.

In the first and second courses the candidates were selected on the strength of reports and testimonials. In the third, however, they were divided into groups depending upon whether their interests lay in the economic, social, technical or political fields, and they had to write an essay on a topic relating to one of these spheres. For the first three months, tuition was given in an evening, but this proved too strenuous after a hard day's work. The lessons were therefore changed to early morning when the students were still fresh. As the interests of most of them lay in the social and political sphere, rather than the technical, the curriculum was heavily biased towards German and its related subjects, with a strong emphasis on social content. The themes chosen were intended

1) See Karsen: Die Arbeiter-Abiturientenkurse in Neukölln: in Das Berliner Schulwesen: Jens Nydahl: Berlin 1928: p. 199-203.

to be relevant to prevailing conditions.

Timetable of the Workers' Courses in Neukölln in the 2nd and 3rd years

	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Hours</u>	
1.	German	4	} 19
2.	English	6	
3.	French, Russian ^{a)} or Latin	4	
4.	History and Geography	5	
5.	Mathematics	4	
6.	Physics	2	
7.	Chemistry and Biology	3	
8.	Drawing and Physical Education	2	

	Total of hours per week	30	1)
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a) Introduced after the first year

A further point noted by Karsen in those early days was the difficulty the students encountered with foreign languages.²⁾ The main one was English and the second was begun in the second year. In the first course this was French, in the second Russian and in the third Latin. As we shall see later, the problem of the foreign language is still very much with us today and is generally accepted

1) Belser: op. cit. p. 35.

2) Nydahl: op. cit. p. 201.

as the most difficult part of the course. In the first year the timetable showed twenty-four to twenty-six hours of lessons, and in the second thirty hours when a further foreign language was taken up.

Karsen complained that the lack of room space hindered what he considered to be a most important part of the course, namely the meeting together socially outside lesson times. He insisted that the teachers, who were from the Kaiser-Friedrich-Gymnasium in Neukölln, should mix and be on friendly terms with the students. Here again, the importance of these points has been fully understood by modern proponents of the Zweiter Bildungsweg and perhaps found their best expression in the working methods of and the atmosphere created in the Kollegs.

Grants varied according to which part of Germany the student came from, but in many cases they were generous. Saxony, for example, gave its students a hundred Reichsmark per month. Berlin provided the money for the tuition and payment of staff and Neukölln found free accommodation in hostels. ¹⁾

The first course began on 1st June 1923, others following in subsequent years up to 1932. ²⁾ The sixth course, beginning at Easter 1930, was the last which was able to be completed. (Easter 1933). At this point Karsen's school, together with the workers'

1) Karsen: op. cit. p. 203.

2) Bruno Gleitze: Erinnerungen eines Arbeiter-Abiturienten: in Radde: op. cit. p. 42.

courses, was closed by the Nazi Ministry of Education. The participants of the seventh and eighth courses, which began in May 1931 and at Easter 1932 respectively, were not able to take their final examinations. Only very few were able to transfer to the Peter-Silbermann-Abendgymnasium. ¹⁾

Of the sixty-four students who started in 1923, only fifteen were left by the time they reached their final year in 1926. Karsen was not discouraged by this high drop-out rate and indeed speaks of the first results as being beyond expectations. ²⁾ This optimism would appear to have been well-founded, for according to Erich Kummerow, by 1930 sixty-two young people had been successful in the Abitur examinations. ³⁾

Strong socio-political motives provided the original impetus for these courses, which were undoubtedly the most successful of the twenties. Some attempt had to be made to correct the social and educational inadequacies inherent in the system and in making the attempt the reformers were only acting in accordance with the Weimar Constitution which stated that everyone should be able to develop his talents to the full. This is not to detract from the

1) Letter from Gerd Radde to the writer: 5. 2. 68.

2) Karsen: op. cit. p. 203.

3) Kummerow: Begabtenförderung in Preussen: Leipzig 1931: p. 61: in Belser: op. cit. p. 35.

sincerity of these early pioneers, nor to underestimate their genuine concern for their educational welfare of the workers. But the key word in all these courses was 'worker' and Karsen went so far as to refuse to consider those who had left the Gymnasium before taking Abitur. Today the educational importance of the Zweiter Bildungsweg is stressed far more than the social. A further shift in motivational emphasis can be seen in the desire to provide an ever-increasing number of skilled technicians for a continually expanding economy. That this was not of prime importance forty years ago is natural enough, for then industry was able to train all the men it needed and what we know as the 'technological age' was as yet beyond the horizon.

Nevertheless the modern educational planner had much to learn from the mistakes and experience of the Zweiter Bildungsweg's early pioneers. The need for thorough selection was brought to the fore and the high drop-out rate pointed to the great psychological, mental, physical and financial strains attendant on such a course. All the afore-mentioned courses were intended to cut or actually did cut the number of subjects taken at Abitur. This was necessary because of the limited time available for study, and experience showed that this reduction of subjects was not detrimental to the students' general education, as had at first been thought. Of greater importance for us today was the question of priority of subjects. As we have seen, foreign languages proved the most difficult to master and this is acknowledged in modern

courses by the frequent inclusion of only one foreign language. The courses in Altona and Neukölln differed as to which subjects they emphasised, the former preferring the natural sciences, the latter being much nearer to the curriculum of the Deutsche Oberschule with the weight firmly placed upon the 'deutschkundliche Fächer.' Similarly today, there are not just one or two stereotyped courses. In spite of opposition from those who liked to see curricula in which the classical languages and highly academic subjects were stressed, we now find institutions offering courses with a strong sociological, linguistic, technical or natural science content.

Although these four experiments were never allowed to become firmly established, mainly owing to succeeding financial crises culminating in the downfall of the Republic and the Nazi seizure of power in 1933, they did represent the first serious, and in the cases of Altona and Neukölln, successful attempts to educate young people to university level outside the narrow confines of the traditional Gymnasium course.

Special examinations: the Begabtenprüfung

The Arbeiter-Abiturientenkurse pointed to further future institutional development, but because they were localised, they had a negligible effect on raising the Abitur quota throughout Germany. However, attempts were being made to find alternatives to the Abitur examination. In 1917 Spranger had suggested the opening of a route

to university for those who were especially gifted in certain fields, but who had not had the chance to take Abitur. They must have proved themselves in their jobs and shown themselves to be 'maturus' in every sense of the word. 1)

In an essay written in 1918 entitled "Probleme des Aufstieges", Spranger again advocated an alternative route to the university for those who had not been to a Gymnasium. Although it is not mentioned by name, Spranger is here very close to the idea of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. "In addition to the main existing direction, whose goal is the university and Hochschule, a second must be opened up. Certainly it is necessary to create organic possibilities for transfer leading from the Volksschule to a suitable branch of the Gymnasium and from there to a Hochschule. It is even more important, however, to lay the foundations for that which is missing. And what is missing is a well-equipped technical school system linked with the Volksschule. 2)

Steps were taken to fulfil these aims and on the 6th May 1922 the Bensheimer University Conference proposed that some way to the university should be provided for highly gifted students. A level of general education equal to that of Abitur was necessary, though

1) E. Spranger: *Begabung und Studium*: Leipzig 1917: p. 44: quoted in Belsor: *op. cit.* p. 54.

2) E. Spranger: *Probleme des Aufstieges*: quoted in Hans Wenke: *Die pädagogischen und psychologischen Aspekte des Zweiten Bildungsweges*: in R. Dahrendorf/H. Ortlieb: *Der Zweite Bildungsweg im sozialen und kulturellen Leben der Gegenwart*: Verlag Quelle u. Meyer: Heidelberg 1959: p. 69.

more emphasis was placed upon the student's ability to think rather than on his factual knowledge. In recognising the need for a course of preparation separate from that of the Gymnasium, the University Conference was automatically acknowledging that there were many gifted people who could reach the standard of university entrance by self-tuition, that practical experience and excellence in one's profession were valid avenues through which a person could attain Hochschulreife. The goal was not to be Allgemeine Hochschulreife, but Fakultätsreife. The candidate would not be able to enter any university faculty, but would be limited to the ones in which his particular strengths lay. "The University Conference recognises the necessity of opening up access to a definite field of university study to persons who, owing to special circumstances, were prevented from getting to university by the usual method." 1)

The universities' reaction to these proposals was rather cool. Speaking on their behalf Aloys Fischer agreed that certain allowances could be made, but insisted that the requirements in German and two foreign languages had still to be met. It was obvious that if such strict language requirements were adhered to, they would pose considerable difficulties for those who were scientifically or technically inclined.

1) Belser: op. cit. p. 54. The emphasis is mine.

The Conference of German University Rectors, which was held on 13th and 14th March 1923 took up the Bensheimer Conference theme and laid down minimum requirements for the proposed Begabtenprüfung. Only candidates who were over twenty-five and who were of exceptional ability were to be considered, and their level of general education had to be equal to that normally required for Abitur. Entry to a university was made dependent upon an examination, though the passing of the examination did not necessarily mean that the student would be accepted. The final decision lay in the hands of the university commission.

In 1924 Prussia introduced its "Regulations for entry to university study without the certificate of maturity," ¹⁾ and these closely followed the Bensheimer proposals. The examination comprised two sections, a written paper on a subject in a field of study offered by the candidate and an oral. The candidate was not allowed to apply for the examination, but had to have his name put forward by people who were in a position to judge his suitability. If he was successful he was able to study in certain faculties. Other Länder followed Prussia's example in compiling their own regulations, the last to do so being Bavaria in 1929.

1) Bestimmungen betreff Zulassung zum Hochschulstudium ohne Reifezeugnis.

The Sonderreifeprüfung and Ersatzreifeprüfung

The Sonderreifeprüfung, which is the oldest of the attempts to by-pass Abitur, is especially interesting in that it is the first recorded effort to link the Fachschule ¹⁾ with study at a university. Also called the Ersatzreifeprüfung, its aim was to ascertain whether the candidates' general education was broad enough for study at a university. It was introduced by a Prussian Ministry Decree of 3rd April 1909, but could only be taken by graduates of the Oberlyzeum ²⁾ after they had taken their state teaching examinations and had been teaching for two years. ³⁾ Moreover, their university study was limited to preparation for the Oberlehrerprüfung. ⁴⁾ In 1919 this opportunity was extended to all teachers in Prussia who had studied for at least six Semester and had two years' teaching practice. An examination had to be taken during the first two years' study which tested the candidates' knowledge in his chosen subject and in those subjects closely related to it.

A decree of 7th July 1922 gave exceptionally well-qualified graduates of certain Fachschulen a chance to study at a Technische

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- 1) Technical school.
 - 2) Teacher Training Institution for Ladies.
 - 3) See Belser: op. cit. p. 60.
 - 4) An examination qualifying the student to teach the higher forms in the Volksschule and in the Mittelschule.

Hochschule without Abitur. They had to pass a supplementary examination in German, Geography, History and one foreign language, and the rector of the Technische Hochschule made the final decision ¹⁾ as to the candidate's suitability.

The National Socialist Decree of 8th August 1938 was intended to make the requirements of the Sonderreifeprüfung the same for all Länder. The leaving certificate of the Fachschule or the Berufsfachschule ²⁾ was required and the written and oral examinations comprised the following subjects: German, History, Genetics, Ethnology and Geography. Greater emphasis was placed upon the student's ability to think and reason than on factual knowledge. In 1939 a further decree stated that graduates of the Ingenieurschulen ³⁾ would be admitted to university study if they had obtained a mark of "Good" in their final examinations and had been granted Hochschulreife by the examinations commission. ⁴⁾

The Begabtenprüfung, Sonderreifeprüfung and Ersatzreifeprüfung have never been fully accepted by German educationalists and the universities. They were criticised on the grounds that their subject

1) Belser: op. cit. p. 61.

2) Full-time vocational school.

3) College of engineering.

4) Belser: op. cit. p. 62.

limitation would inevitably lead to a lowering of standards. From our point of view, however, they are important in that they form part of a greater movement which was striving either to break down or to circumvent a rigid education system in which only the Gymnasium was able to grant Abitur and therefore only its pupils attend university. That the former Volksschule pupil was well represented in the Begabtenprüfung is shown by the following figures. Of the 604 successful candidates who had taken the examination by the end of 1931, 175 were from the Volksschule. ¹⁾

	Volksschule education only	%	more than Volksschule education	%
applicants	828	100	1,321	100
unsuccessful or failed examination	653	78.9	892	67.5
passes	175	21.1	429	32.5

They made inroads into the concept of Allgemeinbildung by recognising that people with one-sided talents should not be excluded from university study. Moreover, their requirement that the candidate had to prove his ability in his job is one which is still made by the Kollegs and Abendgymnasien today. As in the case of the

1) Belser: op. cit. p. 58.

Arbeiter-Abiturientenkurse, the students took a variety of courses at the university, most of which had little or no connection with their previous occupations. The examinations can still be taken today and have been recognised and standardised by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education.

The Abendgymnasium

Attempts to give the working classes the opportunity of a university education did not end with the Arbeiter-Abiturientenkurse and the special examinations. From the educationally fertile years of the twenties sprang a new concept, that of the Abendgymnasium. In his essay "Probleme des Aufstieges", Spranger had written: "The full inclusion of the working class into the whole of society, into its education system.....is still missing." ¹⁾ This need was keenly felt in the twenties and a further effort to solve the problem saw the establishment of the Abendgymnasien. Their precursors were the Arbeiter-Abiturientenkurse and in the first instance they were to meet a demand from the growing numbers of young people who wanted to take the Fremdenabitur, that is, the Abitur for external candidates.

The first Abendgymnasium was opened in Berlin in September 1927. The curriculum was very close to that of the Gymnasium and the course lasted five years with twenty hours' tuition a week for forty weeks. ²⁾

1) Spranger: Probleme des Aufstieges: op. cit. p. 264.

2) Belser: op. cit. p. 39.

That the Abendgymnasium was popular and supplied an educational and social need can be seen from its rapid expansion. By the end of 1928 five more had been founded in Cologne, Gelsenkirchen, Essen, Hanover and Kassel. The schools are the only surviving institutional development dating from the pre-war period which sought to enable students to find a way to higher education outside the traditional Gymnasium system. They are still flourishing and today an Abendgymnasium is to be found in almost every large West German town.

Though the courses did not take into account the vocational experience of the students, the schools' success is amply proved by the following table showing the results of students during the period from May 1930 to April 1932. ¹⁾

Abitur examinations at German Abendgymnasien

May 1930 to April 1932

Town	Time	No. of Ober-primaner	Admitted to examination	passes	exc.	good
1st exam. Berlin	May 30	26	26	23	1	7
.. Kassell	March 31	22	22	17	-	1
.. Cologne	March 31	18	12	11	-	3
.. Hanover	March 31	16	16	16	not known	
2nd exam. Berlin	April 31	24	24	22	2	8
1st .. Halle	Nov. 31	34	27	23	1	3
2nd .. Kassell	Feb. 32	14	14	12	-	4
.. Hanover	March 31	14	14	14	2	7
3rd .. Berlin	April 32	39	39	39	4	16
Total		207	194	177	10	49

1) Belser: op. cit. p. 40

One hundred and seventy-seven candidates out of the 194 admitted to the examination were successful. At first sight these numbers may appear small, but it did represent a sound and promising beginning. It proved beyond doubt the need for such institutions and above all that there was a considerable pool of ability yet untapped. That the thinking did not tally exactly with post-war Zweiter Bildungsweg thought, is not of the greatest significance. What is significant is that the foundation of the Abendgymnasien, together with the other experiments, represented a real, though sometimes inexplicit, desire for a second avenue to higher learning. It was evidence that the social conscience was beginning to stir, and the impetus they provided acted as a catalyst for the development of new trends of thought which would come to fruition after the Second World War.

The Vorstudienbildung of the Third Reich

The Vorstudienbildung, which was introduced in 1938, is the final attempt of the inter-war years to allow students without Hochschulreife to study at a university. ¹⁾ It is very close in outline to the suggestions which Fischer put forward in 1919 for the Arbeiter-Übergangskurse. As in the Begabtenprüfung, the candidates were not allowed to apply, but were proposed by the NSDAP and its affiliated bodies. ²⁾ They had to be between eighteen

1) See Belser: op. cit. p. 52.

2) Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei: The National Socialist German Workers' Party.

and twenty-four years of age and, as well as having to show exceptional talent, had also to be politically-minded and sympathetic to the aims of the Nazi party. The successful candidates underwent a one-and-a-half years' course at either Heidelberg or Königsberg university and if they passed an examination taken after one year's study, they were admitted to lectures in the Ausbildungshochschule. After a further six months' course they were granted the equivalent of full Hochschulreife.

This type of study, which became known as Langemarck-Studium, had obvious advantages over the traditional Begabtenprüfung which is undertaken entirely on one's own initiative. Although political motivation was strong, the Vorstudienbildung must rank among the precursors of the Zweiter Bildungsweg in that it sought to find a way around the normal system and enable gifted students without Abitur to attend university.

PART THREE

A. THE POST - WAR YEARS

B. FACTORS INFLUENCING

POST - WAR EDUCATION

IN WEST GERMANY

A. The post-war years

The years following 1945 provided an excellent opportunity to initiate far-reaching reform. The school system lay in ruins. Four-fifths of all schools and colleges had been either destroyed or badly damaged and new teachers had to be found quickly. Germany was wide-open to influences from the outside world. Yet today, the traditional system of the four-year Grundschule branching into the tripartite system of Hauptschule, Realschule and Gymnasium is still predominantly intact.

The men entrusted with the rebuilding of the German school system were, in most cases, the educationalists and politicians of the Weimar period. Educational administration had been centralised under the Nazis and there was an instinctive reaction against this, with the result that Land sovereignty was again recognised in cultural affairs. The memory of the dictatorship tended to strengthen the old order and it is both interesting and significant that the Christian Democratic Party (C D U), which won the first elections held in West Germany after the war, was the only party not to advocate drastic reform. 1)

The years after the First World War had seen the birth of many reforming ideas in the field of education. The post-1945 period,

1) Robert F. Lawson: Reform of the West German School System 1945-62: University of Michigan 1965: p. 87.

however, occasioned no real desire for educational change in West Germany. Administrators, politicians and educationalists did not consider that a complete reorganisation was necessary. Moreover, there was a conflict of ideas with the occupying powers and efforts made by the latter to democratise the system were viewed with suspicion. The West Germans thought their education system superior to most and regarded the introduction of foreign ideas as an attempt to undermine German cultural heritage. The Allied Control Commission Directive 54 of 1947 had called for educational opportunity for all, and especially required the provision of more opportunities for children from working-class families to enjoy higher education. ¹⁾ The various Länder authorities agreed that everyone should have equal educational opportunity, but did not consider that the vertical tripartite structure conflicted with this aim. They argued that selection had nothing to do with lack of educational opportunity and social inequality. The child was given an education which fitted his ability, aptitude and inclinations and this could best be effected within the tripartite framework.

It was not surprising, therefore, that when the Federal Republic was created in 1949, the Grundgesetz ²⁾ gave control of cultural

1) Lawson: op. cit. p. 56.

2) Basic Law.

matters, including education, to the Länder. It was felt that differences in race, confession and ideas made it impossible to have one centralised system of education. As in the 1871 decree, the Länder were given power to consider historical, geographical, social and philosophical differences. They are autonomous in educational affairs and independent in the organisation of their schools and universities. Article 20, however, recognised that cooperation is necessary, and therefore in the interests of society the eleven states have to accept some federal responsibility. Before introducing any political or cultural measure, the Land must consider it in relation to the other Länder. This presupposes consultation and in 1948 the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education was formed to fulfil this responsibility. Each Land sends its own Minister of Education to the full assembly of the Conference which is held every two months. Its aim is to help integrate and promote education. Decisions reached are not imposed upon any Land, but in practice they are agreements to which every Land conforms and which become law when the decisions are incorporated into their own state laws.

It was within this federal framework, then, that the need for a second avenue was being increasingly felt. Although there had been a reversion to the tripartite system in West Germany after 1945, many influences were at work which altered the thinking within that

framework. In the social and economic reorganisation of the post-war period, the old order of Europe had either lost ground or been completely uprooted. The age of the common man had arrived, class barriers were being broken down. Education was no longer the exclusive province of the teaching profession, for now sociologists, psychologists, economists, politicians, philosophers and the world of industry and commerce all felt that they had a contribution to make. It is necessary, therefore, to consider the various factors which led to the establishment of a Zweiter Bildungsweg and attempt to assess their importance and relevance to its development.

B. Factors influencing post-war education in West Germany

Educational factors

Research and surveys had shown that certain groups in German society were at a disadvantage as far as educational opportunity was concerned. The largest of these groups was formed by the children from working-class families where lack of family stimuli, combined with the low level of parental aspirations for their children, resulted in the channelling-off of many talented young people into lower-level institutions and employment. Parental poverty, unemployment in the home, illness, the physical strain of the Gymnasium course, one-sided talent, change of schools when the family moved from one district to another were all further valid considerations why these children were underrepresented at the Gymnasium and therefore subsequently at the university. When it is considered that the working-class families comprise almost fifty per cent of the population, the discrepancy, as illustrated in the following table, is somewhat alarming, and it is readily understandable why it was felt that something had to be done to increase the children's educational opportunities. If this could not be achieved within the traditional system, then ^{other} opportunities had to be created for the young working person.

	<u>Social classes in the student population in 1963</u>					
	workers	agricultural workers	white-collar workers	self-empl.	state empl.	higher profs.
% of total population	49	15	18	11	5	2
students	5	2	26	18	34	15 1)

1) De Graaff: West Germany's Abitur Quota and School Reform: Comparative Education Review: February 1967: p. 78

Very much the same applies to children from rural and agricultural areas. Parents' underestimation of the value of education, their unwillingness to make sacrifices for their children, the family tradition of the same job and the fear of social rise and prestige, long distances to travel to the nearest Gymnasium, all limit the children's chances. The lack of educational opportunity is further aggravated by the one-and two-class schools found in remote country and mountain regions. ¹⁾ In these Zwergschulen ²⁾ all pupils are taught together and this usually results in a lack of specialist teaching in the top forms. Many of these schools are in predominantly Catholic Länder and both the Catholic Church and the small communities themselves have usually actively opposed any efforts to reform the situation. What has been considered as a refusal on the part of the Catholic Church to understand the needs of modern society has led many critics to speak of the "Catholic educational deficit." Certainly, this claim is not unfounded. A survey carried out in Bavaria ³⁾ showed that Catholic parents were not as interested in their children's getting a better education as those of other religious denominations. Forty per cent of pupils at

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- 1) Dr. Hamm-Brücher: Auf Kosten unserer Kinder: Osnabrück 1965: p. 35: states that new one-class schools were still being built in the Saar in the early sixties.
 - 2) Literally "dwarf schools."
 - 3) A follow-up survey to "Bayern überprüft seine Begabtenreserven": (1961-1963): quoted in: Education in Germany: No. 3 1966: p. 12.

Catholic schools who were considered to have the necessary ability for a secondary school education did not accept the opportunity. This compared with twenty-five per cent at Protestant schools.

It was obvious, then, that these groups contained considerable latent talent. Because the children, through no fault of their own, were not able to follow the first avenue towards a university education, the necessity of providing a second so that they might develop their talents at a later stage became of prime importance.

A further important factor was that the gulf between academic and vocational education was beginning to narrow. Arlt voiced the opinions of many when he suggested that the maturing effect of vocational experience should be considered equal to that gained from the world of literature in the Erster Bildungsweg.¹⁾ Both had different beginnings and different philosophical bases, but both would arrive at the same goal. This maturity stemmed from several factors. Systematic and methodical thought and action, so important in complex modern industrial processes, good human relationships and responsible behaviour, pride, interest and skill - all these contributed to the formation of a sound and harmonious personality. Kerschensteiner had pointed out that professional training could impart fundamental social values and bring about spiritual development. Now these ideas, set out nearly half a

1) Fritz Arlt: Der Zweite Bildungsweg: Isar Verlag, München:
p. 45.

century before, were finally being accepted and were beginning to bear fruit.

Sociological factors

Sociological and educational motives were closely intertwined, and, indeed, at many points appeared to be inseparable. The main attacks on the education system developed from the premise that education in West Germany was based upon social inequality. It was argued that education was no longer a privilege and an expression of social status, though no one contested the fact that socio-economic status played a vital role when parents had to make a decision on their child's future education at the age of ten. Education received at school determined a person's position on the social ladder and as, according to the Grundgesetz, everyone had the right to develop his gifts and personality to the full, he could improve his social position by improving his educational standing. Four-fifths of children, however, had no opportunity of developing their talents to the full and therefore their basic guaranteed right was invalidated. Schelsky, in "Schule und Erziehung in der industriellen Gesellschaft",¹⁾ had noted that the type of education and the certificates received at school had become by far the most powerful factors in determining a rise in one's professional and social status. Moreover, modern

1) Schule und Erziehung in der industriellen Gesellschaft: Würzburg 1957: p. 17: quoted in Belser: op. cit. p. 128.

sociologists had shown that many young people accepted a particular job merely as a means of material security, ¹⁾ though few felt that they had done full justice to themselves or had made the best use of their talents. Most jobs were not freely chosen, but were directly influenced by parents, the social situation and one's milieu. It was felt that a second avenue to higher education would correct this by allowing them to follow their bents and inclinations and at the same time would realise the ideal of equality of opportunity.

It was further reasoned that this second avenue would help to relieve the social tensions which existed between the working classes and those with a higher academic education. Young people of the post-war generation were far more socially conscious than their predecessors, and if they were given the chance of improving their education, this would alleviate the feeling of social injustice. They would, by their own efforts, be able to reach top jobs in industry and commerce and the worker's feeling of isolation and exclusion would cease to exist. Moreover, by recognising vocational experience as a platform from which better paid positions and higher social status could be reached, the prestige of the world of work would immediately be raised. As there was a real desire for further education present among young people, the development of a second

1) Arlt: op. cit. p. 49.

avenue of education became necessary both as a means of self-realisation and a practical social necessity.

Industrial, technological and economic factors

The weight of the demands made upon it by rapid industrial and technological progress had caused cracks to appear in the framework of the education system. The traditional system had taken root and grown in an age when it was able to meet the demands of commerce and industry for both skilled and highly qualified workers. This was, however, no longer the case. The expansion of West Germany as an industrial state meant that its technological processes were becoming progressively more refined and complicated. Not only had the worker to develop new skills and a fresh understanding of these processes, but he had also to adapt himself to them. It was realised that in the technological age mechanisation and automation would require an ever-increasing number of talented, well-educated people for operational duties and, at a higher level, for development and research. Behind this reasoning lay the cogent economic argument that the future security of the state lay in its ability to make use of all available talent. As it was clear on the one hand that many talented young people did not have the chance to develop their gifts, and on the other that industry was not being supplied with sufficient numbers of qualified personnel to cover its needs, some way of solving both problems had to be found.

Socio-cultural factors

Perhaps not exerting so great an influence, but nevertheless worthy of consideration, was the influence of the mass media of film, television, press and radio. They have, without doubt, made a great impact upon modern society and have played their part in controlling the thinking of the working classes, thereby heightening social consciousness and increasing the demand for education. Better industrial production methods had resulted in better living standards and more leisure time and it was felt that it was the task of the education system to occupy this leisure time, render it meaningful and simultaneously to meet the demands of modern technological society for highly qualified men. In order to accomplish this, however, new opportunities for self-advancement had to be found outside the existing system.

Political factors

Comparison with the post-war educational achievements of West Germany and the German Democratic Republic caused many qualms amongst German educationalists and politicians. In 1945 the Communist-controlled state began an immediate reorganisation of its education system and abolished the tripartite system. One of its main aims was to ensure that the children of workers and peasants had the opportunity to attend all educational establishments, including the

universities. ¹⁾ All children between the ages of six and fourteen had to attend the new Grundschule. "This new Grundschule was completely different in every respect from the old Volksschulen of the Imperialist German Empire, the Weimar Republic and Hitler Germany. The dualism which had formerly existed between the Volksschulen and Gymnasien was overcome, and the Volksschulen were thus freed from their isolation. The Volksschule was no longer charged with giving almost ninety per cent ²⁾ of the children an elementary education, but had become the foundation for the democratic Einheitsschule, charged with the task of giving the children a thorough and comprehensive basic education, which would be differentiated, extended and consolidated in the upper forms of the Einheitsschule." ³⁾ The new system was to equip young people with the knowledge to tackle successfully the new tasks which presented themselves in industry, science and technology, and it recognised that in order to take into account the trends of modern scientific and technological development, the gulf between general academic and vocational education, between Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung, would have to be bridged. ⁴⁾ The

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- 1) Dr. W. Rosenkranz: Polytechnical Education for All: Dresden 1965: p. 10.
 - 2) The official figure of Hauptschule leavers given by the Standing Conference for the year 1964 is 68.4%.
 - 3) Rosenkranz: op. cit. p. 11.
 - 4) ibid. p. 14.

answer was sought in the ten-form Polytechnische Oberschule which gave an all-round education and prepared the student for his later work in industry. To draw general and specialised education closer together, basic vocational training was introduced in the seventh class and each week pupils were to spend a day training in industry or agriculture. ¹⁾ In 1966, 23,000 classes were receiving training in 7,500 industrial and agricultural enterprises. ²⁾

In 1955 the Association of German Employers had warned: "The idea is unthinkable that the Soviet system should succeed in discovering the talents of the sons of workers in industry and agriculture whilst we should allow them to atrophy." ³⁾ The warning would appear to have been well-grounded. The number of students receiving higher education in the German Democratic Republic rose from 8,200 in 1945/46 to 75,000 in 1955, and in 1964 stood at 111,500. ⁴⁾ In that year fifty-one per cent of all students at universities and Technische Hochschulen were children of workers and peasants, ninety-five per cent of whom received grants. ⁵⁾ The percentage of workers' children at institutes of higher learning in

1) Rosenkranz: op. cit. p. 13.

2) ibid. p. 26.

3) Arlt: op. cit. p. 14.

4) Rosenkranz: op. cit. p. 30.

5) Alfred Brückner: Die DDR stellt sich vor: Dresden 1966: p. 75.

the Federal Republic and West Berlin for the same year was 5.9. ¹⁾

The influence of psychological thought

The relatively new science of psychology had an important contribution to make to the thought of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. It had highlighted the many factors contributing to late development. The late developer was at a distinct disadvantage in the Erster Bildungsweg for it was not possible to allow for a gradual development of his gifts. Moreover, it was realised that a person's talent did not always reveal itself until he was at work and had become interested in his job. The stimuli did not originate from the traditional spheres of culture covered by the Erster Bildungsweg, but from vocational experience, from contact with the concrete and the practical. It was essential that any attempt to provide an alternative route to higher education should take this into consideration.

The influence of other countries

In the pre-war period Germany had paid little attention to the educational systems of other lands, for she felt that as hers was superior to most, she had little to learn from them. The occupying powers had tried to influence her educational thought, but had met with little success. However, as she once more began to assume an

1) August Rucker: Bildungsplanung. Versagen auch in der Zukunft?: Diessen/Ammersee 1965: p. 58.

important role in a stabler European society, her gaze turned to the world beyond her frontiers. She could no longer remain an island of isolated Germanic culture, for her education system was now beginning to show structural strains caused by the various pressures to which it was being submitted. In other West European countries equality of opportunity was the basis for all reform proposals. In England the 1944 Education Act had attempted to solve the problem and the first salvos in the fight for a comprehensive education system had been fired. In many lands the Classical ideal had been modified and new values and subject matter had been introduced into the curriculum. ¹⁾ Successful efforts had been made in equating the concepts of Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung. The Soviet Union had developed a system in which education was closely linked with production ²⁾ and this had been effectively adapted by the German Democratic Republic. The Scandinavian countries were expanding comprehensive systems which were intended not only to grant equality of opportunity, but also to ensure that the best use was made of all available talent. In other countries a second path to the university was an integral part of the existing system. In England, for example, students who did not go to the grammar school were still able to attain university entrance by attending courses

1) Dahrendorf: op. cit. p. xxii.

2) ibid. p. xxii.

at Technical Colleges and Colleges of Further Education.

All these factors led to the same conclusion. The possibilities for advancement in the Erster Bildungsweg were far too limited and were utilised by only a small section of the community. Moreover, it had become clear that the traditional idea of an academic general education as the only preparation for university study was no longer valid. As the social, educational and industrial needs of the country could not be met by the Erster Bildungsweg, a Zweiter Bildungsweg would have to be introduced in which equal recognition was afforded to those whose talents led them via a practical and professional training to a theoretical understanding and mastery of their subject. If there was not to be a complete restructuring of the education system, an alternative route was the only logical answer.

PART FOUR

A. THE PROBLEMS AND THEIR SOLUTION

B. THE ROLE OF INDUSTRY

A. The problems and their solution

Although the first and very difficult hurdle, namely the acceptance of the necessity for a Zweiter Bildungsweg, had finally been cleared, there followed a host of problematic questions, each of which demanded a clear and concise answer before any institutional forms could be decided upon. It was now apparent that the pupil's experience of the world of work would be the centre from which the Zweiter Bildungsweg would branch out and that vocational subjects would play an important role. This, however, gave rise to certain concern, for it was realised that if the final qualification was to stand comparison with that awarded by the Gymnasium, the whole course must not be directed at the practical and vocational. There would have to be a common core of subjects acceptable to both the Erster and the Zweiter Bildungsweg courses. The solution to this problem was to divide the course leading to university level into two stages. In the first there would be an emphasis on practical and vocational subjects, and the final stage, which aimed at a high standard of general education, would be theoretical and academic. It was felt that it would be unwise to begin with a purely theoretical course, since most pupils had not attended the Gymnasium because at an earlier stage they had shown themselves not suitable or mature enough for academic study. Clearly the Berufsschule was destined to fulfil a significant function in the first stage, but the diversity and

multiplicity of the fields of professional activity of its students created certain difficulties. For example, in the handicraft trades alone there were 145 different apprenticeship schemes and 24 training schemes. In industry the figures were 324 and 214 respectively. This totalled 707 educational possibilities,¹⁾ each of which could be a starting point from which the Zweiter Bildungsweg developed. With this high number of courses, a central unifying link had to be found so that the proposed tuition could come under the concept of a Zweiter Bildungsweg. This problem was resolved by the extension of courses leading to the examination of Fachschulreife. In 1949 the Ministry of Education of North-Rhine Westphalia had issued the first decree on Fachschulreife in which the future alternative route was described. "The vocational education system is a closed educational path leading to Hochschulreife with ever-increasing selection, via a series of stages, each with its own professional final qualification."²⁾ The decree also stated the conditions of acceptance to the examination. The student must have completed his apprenticeship and be able to point to a specialist practical education which was intended to complement his apprenticeship. He must also have received a general education. The tuition leading to this qualification was to be

1) Schwarzlose: Berufserziehung: in Wörterbuch der Soziologie: Stuttgart 1958: p. 51: quoted in Arlt: op. cit. p. 39.

2) Conradsen: Der Zweite Bildungsweg: in Begabtenförderung im Bereich von Wirtschaft und Betrieb: Köln 1959: p. 75.

given in the Berufsaufbauschule which would form part of the Berufsschule. Here, then, was the examination which would act as a model for the rest of West Germany. It would provide the vast expanse of professional education with a solid base from which more advanced study could begin. And the general subjects which the student took, regardless of his profession, would act as a further unifying influence. It would be a qualification equal to Mittlere Reife and would be a prerequisite for entry to such institutions as Ingenieurschulen, Höhere Fachschulen and Kollegs.

The Kolleg was to be the main institution for the second and most attractive stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. In the Berufsaufbauschule the student would have come into contact with the practical and the theoretical. The question was now whether the theoretical and academic knowledge required for allgemeine Hochschulreife in the Kolleg could be built up on a knowledge of technical and practical processes and experiences. The choice of subject matter, therefore, became of vital importance. Earlier theories which had hinted at a completely different subject matter were soon discarded. A new aim in the form of a new examination was not considered necessary, for it was thought that if the student had the ability, Abitur would be a suitable goal. Nevertheless, the Kolleg's courses should not be replicas of those at the Gymnasium or Abendgymnasium. Discussion on the overall standards required in the various subjects revolved to a great extent around the maturity of the candidates. It

was considered that experience gained in industry and commerce, and the fact that these young people were eager to learn, made up for any gaps in their factual knowledge. This thinking was not antithetical to the aims of the German Abiturial system, for the latter had always stressed the importance of the student's maturity and had attempted to examine his ability for clear, logical thought, rather than for rote learning. Since all parties were agreed that the student's general education should not be neglected, the subjects to be studied were basically the same as those taken by the Gymnasium sixth former, though the student's maturity was also taken into account by the inclusion of the Social Sciences into the curriculum. The latter would include German, History, Social Studies, Latin, Modern Languages, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Music, Art, Religious Education and Physical Education, but not all of them would be taken throughout the entire course. In most cases the Abitur would be closer to that taken at the mathematisch-naturwissenschaftliches Gymnasium than to that of the neusprachliches or altsprachliches Gymnasium. Again, however, the question of languages proved a thorny problem. They were held to be an integral part of any scheme of general education and opinion was that at least one would have to be taught throughout the full course. Some of the students, however, would have attended a Volksschule where no language had been taught. Their first contact had been occasioned by the requirements of Fachschulreife, and it was generally accepted that this field of

knowledge proved to be the student's weakest. To waive the requirements entirely, however, would be unacceptable, especially to the universities, and would have immediately caused the Hochschulreife of the Zweiter Bildungsweg to be regarded as inferior to that awarded by the Gymnasium.

The long-term solution was to begin the teaching of a foreign language in the Hauptschule, and to this end the Revised Länder Agreement on the Uniformity of the School System ¹⁾ (Düsseldorf Agreement) said of the newly formed Hauptschule: "A modern language, normally English, is included in the curriculum, commencing in the fifth class." ²⁾ This was not to say that languages had not previously been taught in the Volksschule, for in many of the larger towns and cities they had become a well-established feature of the upper forms during the fifties. Rather was it an attempt to apply the same criteria to all the states, ensuring that every pupil received a basic knowledge of one foreign language. ³⁾

Once the curricula of the Berufsaufbauschule and the Kolleg

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- 1) Neufassung des Abkommens zwischen den Ländern zur Vereinheitlichung auf dem Gebiet des Schulwesens: 28. 10. 1964.
 - 2) Education in Germany: No. 3 1966: p. 24.
 - 3) The progress made in the development of the teaching of English can be seen from the fact that in 1961 only 13.1% of pupils in the upper forms of the Volksschule were learning English. This figure had risen to 16.2% by 1963 and in 1966 was 36.2%. In addition, 1.2% were learning French.

had been agreed upon, an answer had to be found to the question of selection. It cannot be overstressed that at no time was the Zweiter Bildungsweg regarded as a route which everyone would use. Heinrich Abel has described its aims thus: "The Zweiter Bildungsweg makes it possible for talented and industrious young people to make their way from the Volksschule via a practical apprenticeship and the vocational school system to Hochschulreife." ¹⁾ The important words in this context are 'talented' and 'industrious.' In the lower stage the opportunity would be there for everyone to enter a Berufsaufbauschule, for all working youth, whether in skilled or unskilled jobs, has to attend the Berufsschule. It was agreed, however, that pupils would not be accepted into Berufsaufbauklassen unless they showed special merit and an aptitude for their studies in the first year at the Berufsschule. At Kolleg level, it was felt that students whose ultimate goal was Hochschulreife would have to undergo strict selection procedures, yet the problem was which selection method to use. Was there, for instance to be a searching entrance examination which would select the best candidates at the beginning, or would yearly or half-yearly assessments prove fairer and more reliable? The debate was finally decided by the nature of the Kollegs themselves. As they were going to be developed along boarding school lines, places would obviously be limited. They could

1) Quoted by Georg Geißler: Der Zweite Bildungsweg als didaktisches Problem: in Röhrs: op. cit. p. 447.

not, therefore, afford to risk the possibility of a high drop-out rate once the course had begun. The best solution was thought to be an entrance examination, but an assessment from the candidate's teachers and a report from his employers on his ability to cooperate with his fellow-workers and his sense of responsibility in the firm as a whole were also taken into account.

At both levels self-selection was seen as an important factor. As soon as the pupil embarked upon the first stage, he would be faced with a series of decisions which required high standards of judgement and self-observation. ¹⁾ Part-time study would cut his free time down to a minimum. As attendance at the Berufsaufbauschule did not exempt him from his Berufsschule course, it was clear that he would be subjected to considerable mental and physical strain. The extent of the pupil's commitments can be seen from the following timetable of a student from the Rhineland-Palatinate who is in his second year. ²⁾

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8 ⁰⁰ -17 ⁰⁰ §	8 ⁰⁰ -17 ⁰⁰ §	8 ⁰⁰ -18 ⁰⁰	8 ⁰⁰ -17 ⁰⁰ §	8 ⁰⁰ -17 ⁰⁰ §	8 ⁰⁰ -12 ³⁰
Practical training at work	Practical training at work	Berufsschule (obligatory)	Practical training at work	Practical training at work	Berufsaufbauschule Geography Mathematics Physics Technical Drawing Chemistry
19 ⁰⁰ -20 ³⁰	19 ⁰⁰ -20 ³⁰		19 ⁰⁰ -20 ³⁰		
BAS German Maths.	BAS English Technical Drawing		BAS German Maths.		

§ = including one hour's lunch break: BAS = Berufsaufbauschule

1) Arlt: op. cit. p. 43.

2) Education in Germany: No. 6 1965: p. 20.

Obviously singlemindedness, concentration, dedication and perseverance would be required if the pupil was to complete the course. Although the student in the second stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg would not experience the same pressure of overwork, the fact that he would have to give up his job to study full-time, with the resulting loss of earnings and lower standard of living, would mean that he would have to consider very carefully his motives for undertaking the course of study. However, any young person who was able to overcome the distractions which he would undoubtedly meet, and who was furthermore willing to accept the privations and material sacrifices he must inevitably make, must show the maturity and strength of character looked for in the Zweiter Bildungsweg.

Two further points which the candidate would have to consider, particularly in the upper stage, were his attitude to the subjects he would have to study and his motives for wanting to study. He might well exhibit a talent for learning technical subjects, but have no interest in learning History or a foreign language. If this were so, he would have to re-evaluate his motives for undergoing a course of more advanced study, and if he still found the thought of taking certain subjects wearisome, he should not pursue the aim any further. In examining his grounds for studying, he should ask himself if he was using the Zweiter Bildungsweg as a means of escaping from his job, whether his desire for a change stemmed from

general listlessness and dissatisfaction or whether it formed part of a wider desire for social and professional advancement and a love of learning. He should also try to ascertain whether he would be happy once the door to this new world of learning was opened to him or whether he might feel unsure and disorientated.

The question of teaching staff and teaching methods were further points which had to be considered. It was realised that most candidates who embarked upon the final stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg would come from industry, and would be conversant with scientific forms of thought which might not be suitable for the spheres of culture which they would be entering. The result might be a robot type of thinking which would be too inflexible. ¹⁾ To counterbalance this, the teacher should have a positive approach, understand the student's problems and be sympathetic to the aims of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. ²⁾ He must be able to arouse and keep alive the interest of the student and also stimulate his desire for education. ³⁾ As he would be used to working by himself, school methods of instruction would not be adequate. Flexibility of approach was necessary and it was thought that this could perhaps best be attained by talks and discussions. A mutual respect should prevail between staff and

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- 1) Johannes Riedel: Bildungsprobleme beim Zweiten Bildungsweg: in Dahrendorf: op. cit. p. 128.
 - 2) Dorothee Wilms: Der Zweite Bildungsweg: Köln 1962: p. 14.
 - 3) Dorothee Wilms sees this as the most important task of the educator, for he is not only fulfilling his task in the educational sense, but but also in a political one, in that he is helping to mould 'wahrhaft gebildete Menschen'. Such people are required to assume leading positions in a democracy and to act as bulwarks against Communism

students and both should work in the closest cooperation and harmony. An attempt to realise these aims was made in the Kollegs, where, taking into consideration the maturity of the students, emphasis is put on free group discussion. ¹⁾

It was also felt that the introduction of a Zweiter Bildungsweg would have a beneficial effect on the Erster Bildungsweg by relieving the pressure on the Gymnasium. Demand for places at the höhere Schule was growing as parents became more conscious of the importance of education. One result was that many pupils were sent there by middle-class parents who saw a certain social prestige in a Gymnasium education. This often led to an overestimation of their children's capabilities and a subsequent high failure rate. ²⁾ The existence of a Zweiter Bildungsweg, however, meant that children who did not attend the Gymnasium could still go to a university. This was also important in sociological terms, for parents' fears would be allayed now that other opportunities were open to their children.

The pupils who left the Gymnasium after six years' study with Obersekundareife aroused special interest since they were all potential Abiturienten. It was confidently expected that many of these would want to return to a course of study at a later date. Whereas before, the way had been barred to them, they would now be

1) See Appendix V : Die besondere Arbeitsweise der Kollegs: section 3 §3.

2) Wilms states that only about one fifth of those entering the Gymnasium take the Abitur examination: op. cit. p. 54.

able to fulfil their ambition via the Zweiter Bildungsweg.

Up to this point we have been studying allgemeine Hochschulreife which allows a student to study any subject at university. Some have considered that this qualification, which is awarded by the Kolleg and Abendgymnasium, should be the only certificate in the upper stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg, but general opinion has weighed against this. Whilst it is regarded as the most desirable final certificate, other institutions have been able to grant a limited form of Hochschulreife called fachgebundene Hochschulreife or Fakultätsreife. This qualification, as the latter term suggests, limits the student to certain faculties and has become the centre of the most heated arguments.

The universities claimed that Fakultätsreife created two types of student, that this was contrary to all rights of equality which they stood for. ¹⁾ They viewed the specialisation of the course with far greater concern, however, believing that the student's general education would inevitably be neglected. They considered that his path to university had been too narrow ²⁾ and that the teachers in the various institution granting Fakultätsreife were restricted by this specialisation and would teach only what was to be examined.

1) See Arlt: op. cit. p. 22ff.

2) The term most often used to describe the course in this sense is 'Schmalspurweg' - literally a narrow-gauge path.

As the student would have to specialise at university, this made it essential that he should receive a broad general education before he arrived. A narrow course could lead to the Sackgassen¹⁾ which the Zweiter Bildungsweg was trying to avoid. Once the student had committed himself to a course of study, there was no possibility of his changing, for his qualification admitted him to certain faculties only. We have previously noted that examinations such as the Begabtenprüfung and Sonderreifeprüfung had not been popular with the universities. It is therefore understandable that an extension of this principle via Fakultätsreife would only add to their mistrust.

Although not opposing Fakultätsreife, German employers and their associations have added weight to the universities' argument and have repeatedly stated that they want graduates with a good general background knowledge. They contend that such people are more easily fitted into their scheme of working than the narrow specialist.²⁾

Arguments in favour of a limited form of Hochschulreife pointed out that really talented students would not wish to change faculties and that they would be able to make up their lack of general education whilst at university. If a Zweiter Bildungsweg student had

1) Blind alleys.

2) In a discussion between Prof. Hahn, the Minister of Education for Baden-Württemberg, and leading representatives from industry, the latter are quoted as saying that the Gymnasien and institutes of higher learning should concentrate on providing a sound basic education: they would train the specialists: Education in Germany: No. 8 1965: p. 12.

progressed this far, he was surely mature enough to realise that his general education must not be neglected. At all events, his standard could not be as low as many made it out to be, for he had a level of general education equal to at least Fachschulreife, Mittlere Reife or Obersekundareife. Countering this argument the universities asserted that the students would be fully occupied in their specialist studies and that there would be insufficient time for them to supplement their general education by private study. In any case, some direction needed to be given, otherwise the student would be wasting his time. ¹⁾ There was the added danger that the universities and Technische Hochschulen would become overcrowded with inferior students if the standards of entry were relaxed. The fact that the student had to have a grade of at least "Good" in his final examination was not enough to convince the Hochschulen of the candidate's suitability. They saw this as an indication that he would be good in his specialised field at that level in industry, not as a qualification for advanced academic study. ²⁾

The real solution to the problem lay in practice, not in theory. Experience had shown that students who entered institutes of higher learning with Fakultätsreife had an academic record in no way inferior

1) Arlt: op. cit. p. 24.

2) Conradsen: op. cit. p. 79.

to those with full Hochschulreife. Conradsen pointed out that Zweiter Bildungsweg students, who comprised ten per cent of the student population at the Technische Hochschule in Aachen, had proved themselves to be very gifted and extremely successful in their studies.¹⁾ Furthermore, industry and commerce had in their ranks many successful and influential men who had gone to the university via the Begabtenprüfung. Comparison with other countries, in particular with England and France, contributed appreciably to ensuring that the Fakultätsreife qualification was not abolished. Entrance to an English university is based upon the Fakultätsreife principle and the French baccalauréat technique is a similar departure from the unlimited entry concept. Moreover, the demand for highly qualified technical personnel has helped overcome what is regarded by many as outmoded conservatism on the part of the German university.

The raising of the former low prestige of the world of work and the overcoming of class consciousness and in-born prejudices are all important features of the Zweiter Bildungsweg, yet it has been argued that the opposite effect might be achieved. Each stage

1) B. Conradsen: Der Zweite Bildungsweg: manuscript in the German Industrial Institute, Cologne: quoted in Arlt: op. cit. p. 18. Herr A. Herkenrath lecturer at the Pädagogische Hochschule in Aachen, also confirmed the ability of such students in a discussion with the writer in April 1968.

is marked by the granting of a certificate, a Berechtigung, and it is this acquiring of Berechtigungen which, it was feared, might lead to the establishment of a meritocracy. If the Zweiter Bildungsweg was to be regarded as a means of attaining social prestige and its educational significance allowed to slip into the background, that is, if it became an Aufstiegsweg rather than a Bildungsweg, then society might well come to accept only those who had developed their talents to the full. ¹⁾ Inroads had been made into the educational monopoly of the Gymnasium, but some considered that this monopoly was now being replaced by one of paper qualifications.

Whatever truth there was in such arguments, most German educationalists and supporters of a second avenue to the university remained firmly convinced that such a system of certificates was necessary, at least until a better method of measuring a person's attainment could be found. The solution put forward by Schelsky would appear to be the most reasonable. "It is not the abolition of certificates, but rather the opening up of access to them, which to me seems to be the only promising way of relieving the social disadvantages and injustices of the certificate system." ²⁾ This is exactly what the Zweiter Bildungsweg was seeking to accomplish.

Opposition to the idea of a Zweiter Bildungsweg was also

1) Dahrendorf: op. cit. p. xxv.

2) Schelsky: Schule und Erziehung in der industriellen Gesellschaft:
in Belser: op. cit. p. 29.

encountered from those who saw complete restructuring as the only means of reforming the West German education system. The need for reform was unquestioned, they argued, for the monopoly of the Gymnasium was an anachronism in modern society. Rather than break this monopoly entirely, however, and reorganise on new comprehensive lines, they felt that the architects of the Zweiter Bildungsweg had yielded to the ultra-conservatism of the old order, that the result would be a huge jigsaw, in which none of the pieces would ever fit neatly together. Equality of opportunity and social justice would never be achieved in such an incongruous system.

Other opponents, not quite as vehement in their assertions, regarded the Zweiter Bildungsweg as a temporary solution, hastily conceived as a protest against the traditional system. To their way of thinking, it would be better to modify and improve the selection procedures of the Erster Bildungsweg, and, in so doing, make the best of all available talent at an age when the pupils were more receptive to learning and not influenced by the financial, physical and psychological strains present in the Zweiter Bildungsweg. This argument, however logical it might appear, seemed to misunderstand the fundamental principle of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. It was intended primarily for those who became mentally aware when they entered the world of work. Even the best selection procedures could never take this fact into consideration.

The name Zweiter Bildungsweg itself gave rise to certain arguments. Hans Scheuerl ¹⁾ has suggested that 'Zweites Bildungssystem' would be more accurate. Others were disturbed that the word 'second' gave a wrong impression and led people to think of it as second-class, and therefore as inferior to the Erster Bildungsweg. Belser wondered if the terms 'der gymnasiale or allgemeine Bildungsweg' and 'der berufsbezogene Bildungsweg' were not more suitable.²⁾ The arguments were academic, however, for the term 'der Zweite Bildungsweg' has now come to be accepted throughout West Germany.

Karl Bungardt has called the Zweiter Bildungsweg "the first creative achievement since Humboldt's reforms a hundred and fifty years ago."³⁾ If by this the reconciliation of Bildung and Beruf is meant, then the statement is certainly valid. Long-standing prejudices regarding manual work had at last been overcome. The advantages were many. The much-vaunted assets of higher social and professional prestige presupposed greater financial benefits. Moreover, as the Zweiter Bildungsweg established itself, it became clear that what for many had begun as an Aufstiegsweg, finished as a Bildungsweg. It had the support of the most influential sectors of

1) Scheuerl: Bildungsinstitute mit Vollunterricht: in Dahrendorf: op. cit. p. 23.

2) Belser: op. cit. p. 116.

3) Karl Bungardt: Der Zweite Bildungsweg - Schlagwort oder Programm ? Bad Heilbrunn 1957: p. 34.

society - the Church, all political parties and industry. It would be able to achieve what the traditional system had failed to achieve. It would promote all types of talent and make the young person aware of himself. 1)

Talent, however, would not reveal itself in every case. First it would have to be recognised, acknowledged, then assisted to come to full fruition. As all students taking this alternative route were at work, industry had to bear most of the responsibility for uncovering and developing their gifts.

1) Conradsen: op. cit. p. 84.

B. The role of industry

"Der Zweite Bildungsweg ist nur mit, nicht ohne, die Wirtschaft zu entwickeln." 1)

Both sides of German industry, the employer and the trade union, had always shown interest in promoting talent. It had long been the tradition in German firms to organise their own schemes for apprentices run in conjunction with state vocational schools. Because of this it was felt that the firms were in an excellent position to promote talent via the Zweiter Bildungsweg. The existence of an alternative route, however, did not mean that the most suitable candidates would use it, 2) and it was here that industry could help first to recognise then to select suitable candidates. By ascertaining the motives of those who wished to embark on a course of study and making a selection based upon this knowledge, industry could do much to allay the fears of the universities on the questions of overcrowding and lowering of standards. Those best qualified to carry out this task were the foremen, master craftsmen, specialist engineers and social workers. Some of the larger firms employed a psychologist and his advice would be invaluable here. 3) In the factory the young apprentice could be observed naturally as he went about his work

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- 1) The Zweiter Bildungsweg can only be developed with the help of industry, not without it. Arlt: op. cit. p. 93.
 - 2) Heinz Küppers: Stellungnahme und Leistungen der Gewerkschaften zum Zweiten Bildungsweg: in Dahrendorf: op. cit. p. 294.
 - 3) Arlt: op. cit. p. 77.

and his abilities assessed. This should be done in as objective a manner as possible and Arlt warns that the observer must continually ask himself if there is anything prejudicing his judgement. 1) The qualities to be looked for in the candidate were reliability, conscientiousness and self-discipline. He must also be able to express himself and above all, he must show himself to be of more than average ability. 2)

It was also considered that firms could ensure that young workers were conversant with the possibilities for self-advancement in the Zweiter Bildungsweg by bringing them to their employees' attention. One way of doing this would be to keep appropriate information and literature in their libraries. 3) They should also make their employees aware of suitable courses at Abendrealschulen and Volkshochschulen. 4) These courses should prove especially useful to those who had completed their apprenticeship training but who did not attend Berufsaufbauklassen. Firms could help pay the cost of such courses and they should also be willing to grant their employees extra time off over and above that necessary for the Berufsschule, for the demands made upon the young person at this stage would be very heavy indeed. 5)

1) Arlt: op. cit. p. 80.

2) ibid. p. 80

3) ibid. p. 90

4) Institutes of adult education.

5) Conradsen: op. cit. p. 124

In 1956 the National Federation of German Employers' Associations published a recommendation which incorporated most of the suggestions. ¹⁾ It stated that employees of good character, who showed themselves to be gifted, should be given more responsibility. Larger firms should be prepared to transfer an employee to another factory in the group if the facilities for further education were more favourable in that area. ²⁾ A knowledge of other branches would be advantageous, for as well as increasing the worker's specialist and technical knowledge, it would also contribute to his general education in that it would broaden his circle of contacts and add to his personal experience. Travel abroad would also help to sharpen his judgement and broaden his outlook. ³⁾ One important feature of this recommendation was its insistence that no conditions should be attached to any assistance, financial or otherwise, which the employee might receive. It pledged itself to the promotion not only of scientific and technical talent, but of any talent which might manifest itself. No direction was to be forced upon the employee, for if this were done, industrial

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- 1) Empfehlung des Ausschusses für Nachwuchs und sozialpolitische Jugendarbeit der Bundesvereinigung der Deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände: in Conradsen: op. cit. p. 91.
 - 2) ibid. p. 95.
 - 3) Empfehlung: op. cit. p. 95: see also Arlt: Stellungnahme und Leistungen der Unternehmer und ihrer Organisationen zum Zweiten Bildungsweg: in Dahrendorf: op. cit. p. 295.

progress could lead to cultural depreciation. ¹⁾ In all stages general education and the full development of personality were of vital importance. ²⁾

It is in the first stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg that industry can render most assistance, because here all young people are working and following an apprenticeship. Advice should always be available to the employee and in large firms there should be someone responsible for the selection of talented young people. ³⁾

The German trade unions have always shown themselves willing to help gifted people improve their professional and social standing. We have seen earlier that they supported Kerschensteiner's pioneering efforts to provide a meaningful vocational education. In the past their aims had been of a political nature, directed at securing social justice and attaining the principle of equality for their members. In recent years, however, they have attempted to realise these ideas by emphasising the value of education. ⁴⁾ To concentrate their efforts, the German Trade Union Federation was founded in 1949. Courses and seminars are organised at residential centres for members throughout the Federal Republic. In 1965 10,265 educational meetings were organised in the 285 Union Federation districts, the total attendance being over 300,000. ⁵⁾ There are

1) Empfehlung: op. cit. p. 91.

2) ibid. p. 91.

3) ibid. p. 94.

4) Küppers: op. cit. p. 27.

5) Education in Germany: No. 1 1967: p. 12.

twenty-one residential centres where courses of up to six weeks are held; the main emphasis being on economic and social theory, industrial science and trade union affairs, and labour and social legislation.¹⁾ Though these courses may appear to have a political or social bias, they do, however, contribute to the Zweiter Bildungsweg in that specially gifted members are able to enter one of the three social academies at Frankfurt am Main, Dortmund or Hamburg²⁾ to study Economics and the social sciences. High marks in the final examination ensure that the candidate is granted Fakultätsreife and enable him to study at a university.

The Trade Union Federation also runs two correspondence schools. The first, the Briefschule in Frankfurt am Main, was founded in 1949. It originally provided courses on the work of the trade unions, but over the years extended its sphere of influence into the vocational sector. Demand was so heavy that the vocational courses were taken over by the Fernlehrinstitut des DGB Berufsbildungswerkes Frankfurt in 1961.³⁾ The Union Federation's Stiftung Mitbestimmung, founded in 1954, had by 1965 awarded 7,520,000 DM in scholarships. Again, no subject limitation was imposed upon the recipient, the main aim being to "provide funds for training and further education, if not available from other sources, for workers and workers' children possessing ability."⁴⁾

1) Education in Germany: No. 1 1967: p. 13.

2) See also Ortlieb: op. cit. p. 20.

3) Anne Beelitz: Fernunterricht in der betrieblichen Bildungsarbeit: Köln 1967: p. 107.

4) Education in Germany: No 1 1967: p. 15.

The German Salaried Employees' Union also provides opportunities for its members' further education. In 1959 the German Salaried Employees' Academy ¹⁾ was founded in Hamburg in close cooperation with the Employees' Union. Its aim was to provide opportunities for advancement for its employees within the framework of the Zweiter Bildungsweg.²⁾ The Union also runs a correspondence school in Essen and in conjunction with its Abendrealschule in Düsseldorf, offers a course leading to Mittlere Reife.³⁾

1) Deutsche Angestellten-Akademie.

2) Beelitz: op. cit. p. 109: also confirmed in a letter of 12.1.68 to the writer from the German Salaried Employees' Union, Hamburg.

3) ibid: p. 108.

PART FIVE

THE INSTITUTIONS

AND

SPECIAL EXAMINATIONS

TODAY

The Berufsaufbauschule

As we have noted earlier, the Berufsaufbauschulen were given full recognition by the Standing Conference of Ministers of Education in September 1959, when the subjects taught, their organisation, conditions of entry and final examination were formulated and made uniform throughout the Länder by decree. The revised Länder agreement of February 1965 acknowledged five branches of the Berufsaufbauschule - allgemein-gewerblich, gewerblich-technisch, kaufmännisch, hauswirtschaftlich-pflegerisch und sozial-pädagogisch and landwirtschaftlich. ¹⁾ The timetable was to include three main subject groups: 1) culturally enriching subjects, - German, a foreign language, History with Social Studies, Geography with Economic Geography: 2) mathematical and natural science subjects - Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry: 3) specialist and vocational subjects, depending upon the course followed and including Political Science, Business Studies, Specialist Drawing, Technical Drawing with Descriptive Geometry, Commercial Arithmetic, Biology and Hygiene. Additional lessons could be given in Physical Education, Music, Handicraft or Religious Education, and in this case the Länder could decide which of these subjects were to be included in their regulations. Because of the breadth of the curriculum, not all subjects were compulsory throughout the whole course.

1) General trades, industrial, commercial, domestic science and social welfare, and agricultural.

The schools could be full-time, part-time or a combination of both. Full-time courses were to last up to one-and-a-half years, part-time courses three to three-and-a-half years. The length of the course which began as part-time and finished as full-time was to be determined by the total number of hours. This had to be a minimum of 1500 for a pupil who had attended an eight-year Volksschule.

When viewed in broad canvas the Berufsaufbauschulen of the various Länder look very similar, but a closer examination reveals a diversity which is at times startling. Though all Länder meet the minimum number of hours laid down by the Standing Conference, these figure vary greatly from Land to Land. The question may legitimately be asked why Berlin should consider 1120 hours tuition sufficient, why Hamburg should need 1320, Lower Saxony 1420, North Rhine-Westphalia 1680 (2,000 in full-time schools) and Bavaria 1920 to 1960, even allowing for the fact that the latter has only an eight-year Volksschule.

The length of the courses varies too. Most Länder run a three-year part-time and a one-year full-time course. In Hesse, North Rhine-Westphalia and Schleswig-Holstein, however, the pupil must attend for three-and-a-half years part-time and in North Rhine-Westphalia for one-and-a-half years full-time. Baden-Württemberg and Bavaria again diverge from the above pattern. Bavaria has a combined course comprising two years' part-time and one year's full-time study. Although this form cannot be criticised as such, and

is completely compatible with the regulations, the Land does, however, fail to provide alternative facilities for those who wish to pursue either an entirely part-time or full-time course of study. North Rhine-Westphalia also offers a combined course lasting three years, though, unlike Bavaria, it is broken down into two-and-a-half years part-time and six months full-time. In Hamburg the student can transfer to the full-time course after successfully completing the first three Semester which are known as the Unterstufe.

Baden-Württemberg has not followed any of these patterns and has established a system whose broad outlines are the same, but whose organisational form is very different. Since 1964 all institutions which build on to the Berufsschule are called Berufsoberschulen. There are three stages, Aufbaulehrgänge, Mittelstufe and Oberstufe. ¹⁾ In other Länder pupils are accepted directly into the Fachschulreife course after attending a Berufsschule for six months or one year, entry sometimes being dependent upon the passing of an examination. In Baden-Württemberg, promising pupils must sit an examination at the end of their first Semester in the Berufsschule and, if successful, may enter the first/^{of}two stages which lead to Fachschulreife. These courses, (Aufbaulehrgänge), last for two-and-a-half years and tuition is given for five to six hours on a Saturday morning. ²⁾ As with

1) Extension courses, middle stage and upper stage.

2) Ausbildungsmöglichkeiten im Rahmen des Zweiten Bildungsweges: pamphlet issued by the Kultusministerium Baden-Württemberg: October 1967: p. 1.

all part-time schools of the Berufsaufbauschule type, the lessons are in addition to the normal compulsory Berufsschule attendance. If the final examination is passed, the pupil is awarded a certificate which enables him to enrol for the second stage of the course, the Mittelstufe der Berufsoberschule. These classes are called Vollklassen (V-Klassen). They are full-time, last one-and-a-half years and offer 1800 hours' tuition. ¹⁾ Below is a timetable of the Vollklassen.

Vollklassen(3 Semester)

<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Lessons per Semester</u>			<u>Total</u>
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	
German	5	4	5	230
English	2	4	4	200
History with Social Studies	2	2	2	120
Economic Geography	2	2	-	80
Trade Arithmetic and Algebra	5	5	6	320
Geometry	3	3	3	180
Physics	3	4	4	220
Chemistry	-	3	3	120
Technical Drawing and Descriptive Geometry	1	2	3	120
Religious Education, Physical Education and Group work.	3	3	2	160
Total	26	32	32	1800 ²⁾

1) For Gewerbeschüler and pupils who have completed six years at a Gymnasium or Realschule, there are also Halbjahresklassen (H-Klassen), lasting six months with 700 hours' tuition.

2) Günther Schnuer/Heinz Förster: Der Zweite Bildungsweg in den Ländern der Bundesrepublik Deutschland: Berlin 1966: p. 23.

If these 1800 hours are added to the Aufbaulehrgänge total of 600, we have a course leading to Fachschulreife of 2400 hours. This exceeds the North Rhine-Westphalia total by 300 hours, and is more than twice the number required by Berlin. Even allowing for the fact that Berlin has a ten-year Volksschule,¹⁾ the discrepancy is still great. Fachschulreife in Baden-Württemberg can only be passed at a minimum study period of four years, part-time and full-time,²⁾ whereas the maximum study period in other Länder is three, sometimes three-and-a-half years.

The time allocated to individual subjects shows interesting variations. Bremen, for instance, allows 240 hours for a foreign language (English) in the part-time course, and Bavaria and Baden-Württemberg 280. On the other hand, Lower Saxony and the Saar³⁾ consider that 120 hours is sufficient to reach what is, in theory at least, the same standard. Similarly Technical Drawing and Descriptive Geometry, subjects closely allied to the students' jobs, vary from 80 in Bavaria to 160 in North Rhine-Westphalia. In full-time courses the teaching of physics is granted anywhere between 120 hours in the Rhineland-Palatinate to 220 in Baden Württemberg. As far as the peripheral subjects are concerned, Physical Education is taught only in Bremen and Baden-Württemberg, and Religious Education in Baden-Württemberg,⁴⁾ Bavaria, North Rhine-Westphalia and the Rhineland-Palatinate.

1) Known as the Oberschule Praktischen Zweiges.

2) For a former Volksschule pupil.

3) The foreign language taught in the Saar is usually French because of the Cultural Agreement with France.

4) It is combined with Religious Education.

A closer examination of the number of Berufsaufbauschule courses brings to light further regional differences. Baden-Württemberg, with a population of eight-and-a-half millions, was able to offer only eighty-two courses ¹⁾ attended by 2121 pupils, whilst Bavaria, whose population is only one-and-a-half millions more, ran 302 courses for 8206 pupils. ²⁾ Admittedly, certain compensating factors must be borne in mind: for example, the geography of the Land which may render attendance difficult, the demand for certain specialisations which is perhaps covered by the full-time Berufsfachschule, but even allowing for this, it is hard to understand why the Rhineland-Palatinate, whose population is three-and-a-half millions, can organise only 100 courses, whilst the Saar, with one million, can provide 106.

The most common and most developed school is the gewerblich-technische Berufsaufbauschule. Its bias is towards technical and industrial subjects and although found in every Land, it is naturally most widespread in highly industrialised states like North Rhine-Westphalia. All Länder except Berlin and Lower Saxony organise commercial Berufsaufbauschulen, though these are not as common as might be at first expected owing to the popularity of the longer-established full-time two-year Handelsschule. Agricultural courses

1) Not including Aufbaulehrgänge.

2) Lehrerbstand und Lehrerbedarf. 1. Schulen, Klassen und Lehrer 1961-1970: May 1967: pp. 76-79: the figures are for 1965 and are the latest available.

are to be found in Baden-Württemberg, Bavaria, Hesse, Lower Saxony, the Rhineland-Palatinate and Schleswig-Holstein, and whilst it is understandable that the city states have no need of such schools, it is not unfair to presume that North Rhine-Westphalia and the Saar might profitably organise similar courses. The women's professions, domestic science and social welfare are covered by all Länder except Berlin and the Rhineland-Palatinate.

Berufsaufbauschulen must meet minimum requirements laid down by the Standing Conference in its efforts to set a uniform standard throughout the Federal Republic, but honesty demands that the question be asked whether the qualification of Fachschulreife is not easier to obtain in some Länder than in others. Belser quotes failure rates ranging from fifteen to eighty per cent in different Länder and certainly the average drop-out rate is not less than fifty per cent. ¹⁾ Obviously selection to the courses varies from Land to Land and is the only logical reason why eighty-five per cent should pass in one Land and only twenty per cent in another. On the other hand, it is perhaps more in keeping with the spirit of the Zweiter Bildungsweg to accept the highest possible number of promising candidates in order to give them the chance to prove themselves. In this case, selection should not be too strict in the early part of the Berufsaufbauschule because pupils should be allowed to adjust themselves

1) Belser: op. cit. p. 214: Dr. Brigitte Mohr puts the course failure rate at sixty per cent. Special Report: Inter Nations: Bonn 1965: p. 5.

to the extra demands made upon them. If they are ejected from the course at too early a stage, their interest will not have been given sufficient time to develop and their increasing awareness and maturity will not have been given full rein.

This leads us to the question of which type of Berufsaufbauschule is the most suitable - part-time, full-time or a combination of both. The part-time Berufsaufbauschule course usually begins six months after the beginning of the pupil's apprenticeship. His normal Berufsschule tuition leading to the journeyman's examination and the completion of his apprenticeship runs parallel with the extra Berufsaufbauschule work, which is often on a Saturday morning. Although the pupil here does not lose financially by having to give up his job, severe demands are made upon him physically and mentally. He works during the day and finds most of his spare time given over to attending Berufsaufbauklassen and to homework and revision. Since these pupils are aged between sixteen and nineteen, the high drop-out figure becomes immediately understandable. Apart from the mental pressure which can affect his health, there is also the possibility that his standard of work in his full-time employment will drop and this, of course, would not be welcomed by the employers.

The full-time Berufsaufbauschule can only be attended if the pupil has completed his apprenticeship. The pitfalls of the part-time Berufsaufbauschule are thus avoided since the pupil can now devote his full attention to the Fachschulreife course. Mental and physical

pressures are greatly reduced and there is no doubt that this type is best suited to the needs of the pupils who have to travel a considerable distance from their homes or places of work to the nearest Berufsaufbauschule, for accommodation is usually found for them in a students' hostel. There is, however, an attendant financial burden since the pupil is now dependent upon grants and perhaps upon his parents for financial support. Moreover, there is the added disadvantage that he will probably be at least twenty by the time he passes the Fachschulreife examination. If we consider the possible career of such a pupil, the difficulties become apparent. After attending a Volksschule for nine years, he will be about fifteen-and-a-half before he commences his three to three-and-a-half year apprenticeship. At nineteen he will study full-time for one year for Fachschulreife, receiving the qualification at twenty. He now faces the prospect of military service, which, together with delays, will account for a further two years. If he wishes to study at a Kolleg for Abitur, he will be twenty-five or twenty-six before he can consider applying to a university. A very conservative estimate for the length of a normal course of study would be eight or nine Semester, which would make him about thirty-one before he could even think of supporting a family. Of course, not all Berufsaufbauschule pupils would wish to continue their studies at a Kolleg or similar institution, and then go on to university, but it is not difficult to see why many are discouraged at a much earlier stage.

The part-time section of the combined Berufsaufbauschule usually begins later than the normal part-time Berufsaufbauschule. In Bavaria, for example, pupils must have attended the Berufsschule for at least a year before they can be considered. With this type of course the pupil is not overworked in the early stages of his apprenticeship and the latter is completed before he begins his final full-time year. Again, the pupil from outlying country districts finds this final year to his advantage, though he is dependent upon grants for financial support.

Since the first vocational extension courses opened in Bonn in 1949, ¹⁾ the number of Berufsaufbauschulen grew rapidly in the middle and late fifties. Between 1961 and 1965, however, the number of pupils attending these schools did not increase to the extent which might have been expected from institutions which are looked upon as the keystone of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. Much lip-service had been paid to the Zweiter Bildungsweg and all the Länder agreed that its development must be encouraged. Yet if a base of 100 is taken for the number of pupils attending Berufsaufbauschulen in 1961, ²⁾ this had increased to only 119 by 1965. When this is compared with figures of 248 for Kollegs, 234 for Abendrealschulen and 182 for Höhere Fachschulen, it is evident that this crucial stage of the Zweiter

1) Education in Germany: No. 6 1965: p. 2.

2) Lehrerbstand No. 20: op. cit. p. 10

Bildungsweg is not proving as attractive as was at first hoped. It is unlikely that the slight decrease in the numbers of pupils within the relevant age range could account for this, nor could it be argued that all available talent had been tapped. Rather is it much more likely that the afore-mentioned criticisms lie at the root of the problem.

As there is no apparent waning of interest in the Zweiter Bildungsweg on the part of the Länder, this slowing down in the development of the Berufsaufbauschulen must be counterbalanced in another direction. Though it is somewhat difficult to analyse future trends in this sphere, indications are that an increasingly important part will be played by the present Berufsfachschulen, institutions which only recently have been accepted as coming within the framework of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. The implementation of the ninth school year in all Länder except Bavaria and the possibility of a tenth in the foreseeable future, has brought about renewed interest in the subject matter of the final Hauptschule year and its relation and significance to the pupil's future vocation. In 1964 the German Committee for Education published its recommendation both for the Hauptschule and for the sector of vocational education. ¹⁾ In the latter it was suggested that the term Berufsfachschule should be dropped and the term Berufsvorschule introduced. ²⁾ Instead of

1) Empfehlungen und Gutachten des deutschen Ausschusses für das Erziehungs- und Bildungswesen, Folge 7/8.

2) *ibid.* p. 134.

giving specialised tuition in the commercial and domestic science fields, as do the Handelsschulen and Haushaltungsschulen, the Berufsvorschulen were to impart a more general education to enable the pupil to chose his career with more confidence. These recommendations have never been implemented, but in 1967 the authorities in Hamburg and Kiel organised experimental Berufsgrundklassen, held in both the Hauptschule and the Berufsschule, whose aim it was to allow pupils to continue their general education and at the same time to give them an insight into their future jobs in such sectors as building, woodwork, metalwork and textiles. ¹⁾

It seems very probable that in the future this Berufsgrundjahr will represent the first year of an extended three-year Berufsfachschule course. If Berufsfachschulen such as the Handelsschulen, Haushaltungsschulen and Frauenfachschulen B, which organise courses usually lasting two years, are all standardised and allowed to award the Fachschulreife qualification, not only will this give the vocational sector greater parity of esteem with the Realschule and Gymnasium, but it will also mean that a pupil will be able to enter a Kolleg or other institution of equal rank at about the age of eighteen. By twenty-one he would have Abitur. At the same time the pressure for Gymnasium places would be relieved when it was realised that the same level of education could be reached via the Hauptschule in the same length of time. It would, moreover, silence the criticism that the Berufsaufbauschule is being attended by pupils

1) Education in Germany: No 10 1967: p. 21.

for whom it was not originally intended, namely former Realschüler and Gymnasiasten. ¹⁾ Problems of overwork and excessive mental strain would be avoided, yet the Berufsaufbauschule would still exist for the late developer and for those who preferred this well-trodden path.

The Abendrealschule

Unlike the Berufsaufbauschule curriculum, that of the Abendrealschule does not include subjects directly related to the student's job. The curriculum is much closer to that of the full-time day Realschule. The course usually lasts three years with between sixteen and eighteen hours class contact a week. The subjects taught are Religious Education, German (3-4 hours), English (3-4 hours), Mathematics (4 hours), History and Geography (2-3 hours), Physics, Chemistry and Biology. Candidates must as a rule have either completed their apprenticeship or be able to show at least three years' vocational experience. The minimum age for acceptance is seventeen, and although there is no entrance examination, the first six months are regarded as a probationary period. The qualification awarded is the same as that of a day Realschule, namely Mittlere Reife, and will grant entry to a Kolleg.

In 1958 there were only eight Abendrealschulen, but as interest in the Zweiter Bildungsweg grew, new schools sprang up throughout the

1) In a survey published by the Max Planck Institute for Educational Research, Joachim Weiss showed that over 20% of the pupils at Berufsaufbauschulen had previously attended either the Realschule or Gymnasium: quoted in Education in Germany: No. 3 1966: p. 14.

Federal Republic. By 1964 the number had risen to thirty-two ¹⁾ and in 1966 stood at fifty-three. ²⁾ In the eight years the number of pupils rose from 1909 to 5225, and in 1966 875 Mittlere Reife certificates were awarded.

Though the growth rate is impressive, it is nevertheless evident from the numbers of students that these schools are not stimulating public interest to any great extent. Neither are they uniformly distributed throughout West Germany. Twenty-eight of the fifty-three schools are to be found in North Rhine-Westphalia, ³⁾ whilst Lower Saxony, the Rhineland-Palatinate and the Saar do not have any. Bavaria has only four, yet the much smaller Land of Schleswig-Holstein has three. Länder differences can again be seen in that Hamburg ⁴⁾ and Bremen ⁵⁾ run courses lasting two years, yet in Bavaria they are a minimum of three and may be as much as four. ⁶⁾

1) Joachim Knoll: Aufbau und Struktur des deutschen Bildungswesens: Inter Nationes 1967: p. 66.

2) Allgemeinbildende Schulen 1950-1964: Statistisches Material: Fortschreibung 1966 zu Dokumentation Nr. 17: Kultusminister Bonn p. 84.

3) Below is a table showing the distribution of the schools. See Appendix II for Länder abbreviations.

Year	B-W	Ba	Be	Br	Ha	He	NS	NRW	RP	Sa	SH	Total
1966	13	4	1	1	2	1	-	28	-	-	3	53

4) Merkblatt über das Staatliche Abendgymnasium mit Abendrealschule: Hamburg 1967.

5) Möglichkeiten des Zweiten Bildungsweges in Bremen: official pamphlet, 1967.

6) Möglichkeiten zur Weiterbildung im Zweiten Bildungsweg: pamphlet by Dr. Haase: 1967: p. 3.

The future of the Abendrealschule is secure, but it is doubtful whether their past growth rate will continue. They will still have an important role to play in providing an alternative course for those who do not wish, or who are perhaps too old to attend a Berufsaufbauschule. According to their own preliminary estimates, the three Länder which do not run Abendrealschule courses do not intend to organise any by the year 1970. ¹⁾ In fact the only Länder which are allowing for a reasonable expansion are North Rhine-Westphalia and Schleswig-Holstein. Bavaria sees its numbers of students reduced by a half, but this decrease can be directly attributed to the Land's developing of the Telekolleg. ²⁾

The Abendgymnasium

It has often been argued that the Abendgymnasien are not part of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. At their inception there was certainly no new and revolutionary concept of education or a new field of thought. The important part played by one's vocation, the late developer, the person whose desire for theoretical knowledge is only sparked off by his contact with and his mastery of the practical - none of these formed the theoretical basis of the Abendgymnasium. It was to help young people who had missed the first way to reach the level of maturity required for university entrance. As we have seen,

1) Lehrerbstand No. 20: op. cit. pp. 56-59.

2) See p.132 of this work.

the curriculum and timetable were similar to those of the Gymnasium student and the basic question of maturity never arose.

If the Zweiter Bildungsweg is regarded in its strictest sense as being a path broken down into stages and very closely linked with one's vocation, then the Abendgymnasium cannot be included. Developments of recent years, however, have shown that the Zweiter Bildungsweg has drawn an increasing number of institutions into its compass. Today the term Zweiter Bildungsweg covers virtually any attempt to grant opportunities to those who wish to progress to university level whether this progress be in stages or not. In this context the Abendgymnasium certainly qualifies for inclusion in the Zweiter Bildungsweg.

In 1957 the Standing Conference formulated regulations in order to standardise the Abendgymnasien throughout the Federal Republic. Its curriculum varies little from Land to Land. This uniformity derives from the fact that the subjects studied are those of the day Gymnasium presented in a more concentrated form. Classes are usually held on four or five evenings a week and cover between sixteen and twenty hours' work. Compulsory subjects are German, English, History with Social Studies, Mathematics, Physics and a second foreign language. The latter is usually Latin, although in some Länder, for example the Rhineland-Palatinate and Hamburg, allow French. In North Rhine-Westphalia, at Düsseldorf and Dortmund, the student can drop a second language and take up either Sociology, Political Science or Philosophy.

One advantage of the Abendgymnasium is that it does not demand the Mittlere Reife qualification or a similar level of attainment as a condition of entry. There is usually no entrance examination, this being replaced by a preliminary course of between six months and one year, which the student must complete satisfactorily before he is allowed into the main course. Exceptions to this are to be found in Berlin where there are about a thousand applications a year and where obviously some sort of preliminary examination is necessary. ¹⁾ Lower Saxony also insists on a preliminary test, and the Abendgymnasium in Mainz not only has an entrance examination, but also insists on a level of education equivalent to that of Mittlere Reife, and in Latin too! ²⁾

The distribution of the Abendgymnasien varies throughout West Germany, although obviously they can only exist profitably where there are reasonably large centres of population. Altogether there are thirty-nine in the Federal Republic, ³⁾ ten of which are to be found in North Rhine-Westphalia. Bavaria, with the second highest population, supports only four, yet Bremen, with a population of 743,000 has two. Hesse, whose population is nearly two million less than Lower Saxony's, is able to offer six, whilst the latter has only three, and the Rhineland-Palatinate has only one for its three-

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- 1) Dr. Paul Hammacher: Entwicklungstendenzen im Abendgymnasium: speech reprinted in Minutes of the Tagung des Bundesringes der Institute des Zweiten Bildungsweges von 24. - 26. 5. 1965 in Kirkel (Saar): Anlage 7: p. 1.
 - 2) Brochure of Mainz Abendgymnasium.
 - 3) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. p. 95.

and-a-half millions. Below is a table showing the number of Abendgymnasien and the Länder populations.

Land	No. of Abendgymnasien ¹⁾	Population in 1,000 ²⁾
Baden-Württemberg	6	8,426
Bavaria	4	10,101
Berlin	1	2,197
Bremen	2	743
Hamburg	2	1,854
Hesse	6	5,770
Lower Saxony	3	6,921
North Rhine-Westphalia	10	16,736
Saar	2	1,127
Schleswig-Holstein	2	2,439
Rhineland-Palatinate	1	3,582

Attendance at the Abendgymnasium makes considerable demands upon the student. He must continue working until the last year of his course, ³⁾ during which time he will have to attend evening classes Monday to Friday in term time. When he gives up his job to study full-time, ⁴⁾ he is dependent upon grants. ⁵⁾ The drop-out rate is

1) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. p. 86.

2) Document published by the Standing Conference, 30th June 1967: the figures are for the census of 1961.

3) In North Rhine-Westphalia the student can take the last one-and-a-half years full-time.

4) Hammacher suggests that this final year off was only granted because of the influence of the full-time Kolleg: op. cit. p. 8

5) In North Rhine-Westphalia grants can amount to 290 DM per month: Merkblatt: Wege zum Hochschulstudium im Lande Nordrhein-Westfalen: 1966: p. 4.

very high - as much as fifty per cent in the preliminary course. Whilst this figure may seem excessive, it must be remembered that there is generally no entrance examination and the preliminary year is intended not only as a means of selection for the institution itself, but also as a period in which the student can determine whether the course offers what he wants and whether he can meet all the extra demands. There is no doubt that the Abendgymnasium course is both harder and longer than that of a Kolleg, yet almost twice as many chose the Abendgymnasium. In 1966 there were 7552 students at Abendgymnasien and 3847 in Kollegs, though the relative chances of success are reflected in the Abitur passes for that year - 1037 in Abendgymnasien, 957 in Kollegs. ¹⁾

Whilst it is true that the Länder themselves do not see a rapid expansion of the Abendgymnasium in the next few years, ²⁾ (7552 students in 1966, 8490 in 1970) - the role of this institution within the Zweiter Bildungsweg must not be underestimated. In common with the Kolleg, the students come of their own free-will, have to show vocational experience and to some extent the curriculum is related to the professional world. Its role, however, is somewhat different and it attracts a different type of student. It is fair to say that these students see the Abendgymnasium more as a spare-

1) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. pp. 85-86.

2) Rhineland-Palatinate, whose numbers at the Abendgymnasium in Mainz have been decreasing since 1963, (1963 - 181, 1965 - 100), estimate the same student numbers for 1970 as for 1965. Berlin and Hamburg expect a reduction. Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. pp. 64-67.

time occupation, at least in the early years, which they can drop if they find it too demanding. Failure at an Abendgymnasium does not have the same consequences as failure at a full-time Kolleg, where the student has already given up his job. Students are able to continue their occupations, with the attendant financial advantages, until the last year, which is of particular advantage to the man with a family.

Women prefer to attend an Abendgymnasium rather than a Kolleg. In North Rhine-Westphalia their percentage at public Abendgymnasien is 22.8, compared with 12.9 at Kollegs. ¹⁾ This is probably because they are more reluctant to give up their jobs than are men. There are more students with Obersekundareife, 24.7% - 19.8%, and, of course, for former Volksschüler and Gymnasium pupils without Obersekundareife, an Abendgymnasium course is virtually the only way to reach Abitur level without attending some other school, for example a Berufsaufbauschule or Abendrealschule. This group comprises 35.5% ²⁾ of Abendgymnasium students. (2.3% at Kollegs ³⁾)

Past developments within the Abendgymnasium indicate that it has slowly been drawing closer to the Kolleg. It seems likely that this trend will continue, particularly as far as the subject

1) Paul Hammacher: Bildung und Beruf bei Studierenden des Zweiten Bildungsweges: Stuttgart 1968: p. 171.

2) *ibid.* p. 171.

3) This 2.3% is mainly at Kollegs which have special entry conditions and prepare students for definite professions, e.g. the Ketteler-Kolleg in Mainz, run by the Evangelical Church.

matter is concerned. We have noted that at Düsseldorf and Dortmund students have been allowed to take Political Science, Sociology and Philosophy and to drop the second language. It is to be hoped that all Abendgymnasien will provide such options in the future, for the wisdom of making a second language compulsory must be doubted. The choice of subjects which can be more easily related to the student's vocational background is certainly an avenue which should be explored more fully. In a later section it will be seen that the curriculum of the Hesse Funk-Kolleg consists almost entirely of this type of subject matter and certainly provides evidence of where the student's interest lies.

More than any other institution at this level, the Abendgymnasium reflects the desire to keep strictly to the concept of Allgemeinbildung. Whether this will prove to be a serious disadvantage as far as enrolment is concerned, is a moot point. Certainly, the school's popularity has not declined over the years. Nevertheless, it must reckon with increasing competition from the newer forms of the Zweiter Bildungsweg such as the Kolleg and particularly the Funk-Kolleg. Perhaps some concession along the lines suggested above, or even the introduction of a berufsbezogenes Fach ¹⁾ into the curriculum, might be sufficient to ensure a successful future.

1) See p.121 of this work.

The Kolleg

The first full-time institution for adults, the Braunschweig ¹⁾ Kolleg, was founded in May 1949, and was originally intended for ex-members of the armed forces and for former Volksschule pupils. No particular level of education was required for admittance to the entrance examination, but the candidate had to have completed his vocational training. The course to Abitur lasted two years and students from the whole of the Federal Republic were able to apply since the Kolleg was organised as a boarding institution. ²⁾ Two hundred and fifty applications were received, forty-eight were accepted and of these forty-one passed the Abitur examination two years later. ³⁾ The timetable was somewhat limited and included only one foreign language, English. There was as yet no vocationally-orientated subjects such as Political Science or Sociology.

Four years elapsed before the second Kolleg was founded at Oberhausen in 1953. This institution was the first to be regarded as part of the upper stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg, for the applicants had to show either Mittlere Reife, Fachschulreife or Obersekundareife before they were admitted to the entrance examination. Like Braunschweig, the students were boarded, they received grants

1) Brunswick.

2) Most Kollegs today provide boarding facilities for their students.

3) Belser: op. cit. p. 100.

and the course lasted two years. The curriculum was, however, broader and included two foreign languages, English and Latin. Moreover, the introduction of Sociology and Political Science firmly anchored the concept of Berufsbezogenheit and the course's vocational links.

Since these two pioneering efforts, the number of Kollegs in the Federal Republic has risen to thirty-three. ¹⁾ Like Abendgymnasien, Kollegs tend to follow the tradition of the German Gymnasium and retain the concept of Allgemeinbildung. The Abitur is taken internally and the student is not limited to specific university faculties. Most Kollegs have followed the Oberhausen pattern, requiring the previous stage of the candidate's education to have been completed by the qualification of Mittlere Reife or Fachschulreife. There are exceptions, however, and again the question of Länder differences begins to emerge. Berlin, Hamburg and Oldenburg will admit former Volksschule pupils without Mittlere Reife or Fachschulreife to the entrance examination, as do the Kollegs at Espelkamp and Laubach which are run by the Evangelical Church. Similarly, the private Ketteler-Kolleg in Mainz accepts students directly into the two-and-a-half year main course, but provision is made for those without either of these certificates to attend a one-year preliminary course. All Kollegs, with the exception of Berlin, hold an entrance examination,

1) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. p. 86. The figure includes nine state-recognised private Kollegs.

though statistics show that it is easier to gain entrance in some Länder than in others. The North German Kollegs at Brunswick, Oldenburg and Hamburg prove the most difficult to get into. Between 1958 and 1965 the average percentage of successful candidates in the entrance examination at Brunswick was between 10% and 15%, at Oldenburg 22.6% and at Hamburg 39.5%. ¹⁾ Compared with the Kollegs in North Rhine-Westphalia, for example at Düsseldorf (56.2%) and at Neuß (68.6%), or in Hesse, (Wetzlar 71%), it is clear that people living in these Länder have an advantage over those living in Lower Saxony and Hamburg. Moreover, the candidates' chances of success in the entrance examination vary not only from Land to Land, but within the Länder themselves. Oberhausen in North Rhine-Westphalia averages 46.4%, Münster 48.4%, yet Weidenau, 58.6%, Paderborn, 61% and Neuß 68.6% offer the candidates much brighter prospects of success. In Hesse, Wiesbaden has accepted 38.5% of all candidates, Rüsselsheim 78%. One reason for the low percentage pass rate at the North German Kollegs is that they are all boarding institutions and therefore places are strictly limited. There can be little doubt, however, that many candidates who fail the entrance examination at these institutions are good Abitur material. Overleaf is a more complete list showing the average pass rate at the various Kollegs.

1) Hammacher: op. cit. p. 216.

Kollegs	Entrance exam. pass % average 1958-1965	Kollegs	Entrance exam pass % average 1958-1965
<u>North Rhine-Westphalia</u>		<u>Hesse</u>	
Oberhausen	46.4	Wiesbaden	38.5
Münster	48.4	Frankfurt	36.4
Düsseldorf	56.2	Kassel	46.0
Dortmund	50.2	Wetzlar	71.0
Bielefeld	55.9	Rüsselsheim	78.0
Weidenau	58.6		
Neuß	68.6	<u>In other Länder</u>	
Paderborn	61.0	Nuremberg	35.0
		Mainz	53.0
<u>North German</u>		Saarbrücken	57.4
Hamburg	39.5		
Oldenburg	22.6		
Brunswick	10.0 to 15.0		1)

If we compare the number of Kollegs of the different Länder and relate it to the populations they serve, we again notice that some Länder are far more fortunate than others. Admittedly, candidates are not restricted to the Kollegs of the Land in which they live, but factors such as family ties and the cost of travelling long distances often preclude their applying to Kollegs in other Länder.

1) Hammacher: op. cit. p. 216.

Land	No. of Kollegs ¹⁾	Population in 1,000 ²⁾
Baden-Württemberg	2	8,426
Bavaria	4	10,101
Berlin	1	2,197
Bremen	-	743
Hamburg	1	1,854
Hesse	7	5,770
Lower Saxony	2	6,921
North Rhine-Westphalia	11	16,736
Rhineland-Palatinate	4	3,582
Saar ³⁾	-	1,127
Schleswig-Holstein	1	2,439

Hesse, for example, provides seven Kollegs for its five-and-three-quarter million inhabitants, Lower Saxony only two for its seven millions. The three-and-a-half million in the Rhineland-Palatinate have four at their disposal, the same number as Bavaria has for its ten million. The Hansa-Kolleg in Hamburg is run jointly by Hamburg, Schleswig-Holstein and Bremen, the Länder being allocated ten, ten and five places respectively each year. Though Schleswig-Holstein now has another Kolleg, the fact remains that there are only fifteen places available for the combined populations of Hamburg and Bremen. Baden-Württemberg has two Kollegs, though this low

1) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. p. 86.

2) Document published by the Standing Conference, 30th June 1967: the figures are for the population census of 1961.

3) A Kolleg does exist in Saarbrücken but has not been included in the Fortschreibung document.

number is more readily understandable because, as we shall see later, the Land has tended to emphasise the development of the Technische Oberschule as the upper stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg.

The 1965 Ministerial Regulation on the Kollegs ¹⁾ stipulated the subjects to be taught. German, History or Social Studies, a foreign language and Mathematics were made compulsory throughout the whole course, a science, and economic or social science was obligatory in the final year and at least a basic knowledge of a second foreign language, Physics, Biology, Geography or Chemistry had to be given. The timetables of the Kollegs do, however, vary, depending upon the subjects upon which emphasis is laid. The timetables at Oberhausen, Munich and Berlin, for instance, show a science bias. Physics is compulsory throughout, whereas at others it can be taken as a main option. The Kolping-Kolleg in Baden-Württemberg also places emphasis on Mathematics and Natural Science. Some Kollegs offer a choice of streams, either classical, language, mathematics and natural science or economic and social science. The Hessenkollegs run language, mathematics/natural science and social science branches and the Ketteler-Kolleg in Mainz runs all four. Kollegs offering classical streams are attended by students who wish to study Theology, Catholic or Evangelical, at a university and their courses are usually

1) Institute zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife (Kollegs). Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 7/8. 7. 1965.

longer than the customary two-and-half years. 1) The Jung-Stilling-Kolleg course lasts four years and the languages taught are Latin, Greek and Hebrew. English, normally the first foreign language, is here only offered as an alternative to the third language, Hebrew. All Kollegs teach the social sciences, with the exception of Berlin. The latter includes in its curriculum 'ein berufsbezogenes Fach.' The student has to choose a subject linked with either his former or his future vocation, which can be academic or 'musisch.' 2) If sufficient numbers chose the same subject, courses are held in the Kolleg. If, however, numbers are low or if there are no suitably qualified teachers on the staff for this subject, the student must either go to another institution or reach the required standard by self-tuition under the direction of a specialist tutor outside the Kolleg. The student is examined in this subject in Abitur. The Berlin-Kolleg is also unique in that it offers a full course run in the evening as well as one in the daytime. The day course lasts the normal two-and-a-half years but the evening course extends over three.

As we have previously noted, the chances of attaining Hochschulreife are much higher at a Kolleg than at an Abendgymnasium, this being

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- 1) In Baden-Württemberg and the Saar the courses last three years.
 - 2) The term is used in the Greek sense to include not only Music, but also recreational and cultural subjects such as Physical Education.

principally due to the more rigid selection procedure. The following brief survey underlines the high success quota and also indicates that most Abiturienten go on to study at a university or similar institute of higher learning.

Kolleg	Passes in 1968	Failures	Approx. percentage going to university etc.
Munich (Ba)	128 ¹⁾	10	90 plus
Nuremberg (Ba)	24	4	not known
Berlin	105 ²⁾	3	90
Ketteler-Kolleg (RP)	43	0	95
Frankfurt (He)	52	2	98
Oberhausen (NRW)	65	2	90 plus
Saarland	27	1	90 ³⁾

The high percentage of students taking up university study speaks much for the success of the Kollegs and of the Zweiter Bildungsweg itself. In absolute terms, however, the numbers of Abiturienten are still very small. In 1965, 726 ⁴⁾ passed Abitur

1) March and June 1967.

2) Autumn 1967 and Easter 1968.

3) The figures are taken from letters to the writer from the principals of the Kollegs. In his survey on the future aspirations of the students at Abendgymnasien and Kollegs, Hammacher states that nine-tenths give a profession which can be realised only by university study. op. cit. p. 83.

4) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. p. 86.

at Kollegs out of a total of 49,782 ¹⁾ who were awarded allgemeine Hochschulreife. In 1966 the figure had risen to 957 ²⁾ and by 1970 should be well over the thousand mark. ³⁾ The relative increase in student numbers was higher for Kollegs in the period 1961-1965 than for any other type of institution and was expected to remain so between 1965 and 1970. ⁴⁾ Again, in relative terms this is impressive, but in absolute terms only Baden-Württemberg, Bavaria, Hesse and the Rhineland-Palatinate are planning appreciable student increases by 1970, the remaining seven Länder being apparently content with the 1965 situation. It is obvious that the figures given by these four Länder are mainly responsible for keeping the Kollegs in the leading position as far as the relative increase in student numbers is concerned.

Judging from recent developments within the West German education system, it is fair to assume that the number of Kollegs will show no marked increase in the years beyond 1970. New types of school like the F-Gymnasium, Technisches Gymnasium and Wirtschaftsgymnasium, which grant Fakultätsreife, are becoming increasingly

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- 1) Lehrerbstand und Lehrerbedarf No. 22: op. cit. p. 23. This figure includes Abiturienten of public and private Gymnasien, Abendgymnasien and Kollegs, also graduates of other institutions, e.g. Ingenieurschulen, to whom full Hochschulreife was granted.
 - 2) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. p. 86. This figure for Abiturienten in 1966 is not given.
 - 3) Based on an estimate of 5,600 students for 1970 (Lehrerbstand No 20, p. 24), compared with 3,847 for 1966. (Fortschreibung: p. 36).
 - 4) Lehrerbstand No. 20: op. cit. p. 10.

popular. The Kolleg, like the Abendgymnasium, draws its students from the potential talent present in society, but only accepts them after they have gained sufficient practical vocational experience. The newer institutions do not make the same demand and it is therefore inevitable that some talent will be creamed off into these schools. But what is even more disturbing as far as the Kollegs are concerned is the recent Ministerial decision to establish a new type of school, the Fachoberschule, which will provide both a practical training and a theoretical education. The course will last for two years for the student who has not served his apprenticeship, but former Volksschule, Berufsaufbauschule and Realschule pupils who have Mittlere Reife or Fachschulreife and a professional training can count this as up to the equivalent of one year's study. ¹⁾ Only one foreign language is to be taught and the final qualification will enable the student to study at one of the new Fachhochschulen which are to be formed from the present Ingenieurschulen and certain Höhere Fachschulen. To what extent the Kollegs will be undermined by the Fachoberschulen cannot as yet be determined. The latter will no doubt prove very attractive to those students who wish to concentrate more on technical subjects and who are sure of their future field of work. Berufsaufbauschüler, for example, whose linguistic training is often somewhat sparse, are more likely to choose the Fachoberschule, providing that their

1) Education in Germany: No. 1 1969: p. 14.

future vocation does not require them to obtain allgemeine Hochschulreife. It seems probable that the Kolleg itself will change its curriculum, particularly if it sees its future endangered by dwindling numbers of applicants. The course could be made more individual by allowing the student to concentrate on a particular chosen subject group. General subjects would still be taught, thus ensuring the balance necessary for allgemeine Hochschulreife. There is, moreover, a distinct possibility that the Kollegs will grant Fakultätsreife as well as allgemeine Hochschulreife. Oberhausen is already planning courses leading to fachgebundene Hochschulreife, ¹⁾ and the Förderkurse at Speyer, which will be discussed next, have been providing limited faculty entrance since the early sixties. The competition which the Kollegs will meet in future years from the Fachoberschulen and other schools granting Fakultätsreife must certainly make them think along these lines. The only Kollegs which are not likely to be affected by these schools are those run by the Catholic and Evangelical Church which prepare their students for a theological career.

Other institutions leading to higher education

Förderkurse im Rahmen des Zweiten Bildungsweges in Speyer

The first of the above three-year courses was begun in 1960

1) Prospectus of the Oberhausen-Kolleg: p. 1.

with the aim of increasing the supply of teachers in the Rhineland-Palatinate. Entry conditions are similar to those of a Kolleg. The candidate must have completed his professional training and must sit an entrance examination. He does not, however, have to hold the Mittlere Reife or Fachschulreife certificate. The curriculum is like that at a Kolleg with the exception that only one foreign language is taught. The final qualification is fachgebundene Hochschulreife and allows the student to attend any Pädagogische Hochschule in the Rhineland-Palatinate or to study Education at the Johannes Gutenberg-Universität in Mainz. ¹⁾ Between 1960 and 1968 an average of sixty-five per cent of all applicants passed the entrance examination, and of those accepted, seventy-six per cent completed the course successfully. ²⁾ This figure is not as high as at Kollegs, but when the lower entrance examination requirements are considered, it is nevertheless impressive. The entrance examination does not appear to have deterred former Volksschüler with no subsequent qualification, for they represent twenty-eight per cent of the total intake. If Volksschüler with a Fachschule or Berufsaufbauschule education are taken into account, this brings the total to fifty-seven per cent. ³⁾

1) Förderkurse prospectus.

2) Letter from the principal dated 20. 8. 1968.

3) The previous education of all successful applicants is as follows:
Volksschüler - 28% Volksschüler with Fachschule education - 17%
Berufsaufbauschüler - 12% Mittelschüler 4%
Gymnasiasten without Obersekundareife - 17%
Gymnasiasten with Obersekundareife and more - 22%

Source: letter quoted above.

It indicates the need for similar institutions which do not demand Mittlere Reife or Fachschulreife as a prerequisite for entrance, also that there are many with only the Volksschule leaving certificate who are both capable of attaining, and willing to study to, university level. This need will perhaps be met by the previously-mentioned Fachoberschulen.

The Technische Oberschulen of Baden-Württemberg

In discussing the Berufsaufbauschule in Baden-Württemberg, we noted that its organisational form differed somewhat from that of other Länder and that it is known as the Mittelstufe der Berufsoberschule. The Oberstufe, also known as the Technische Oberschule, completes the Zweiter Bildungsweg by offering two-year courses held in Karlsruhe, Mannheim and Stuttgart to students who have gained high marks in the Fachschulreife examination. The latter requirement replaces the entrance examination. Mathematics and the natural sciences are stressed and the final qualification allows access to the Technische Hochschulen at Stuttgart and Karlsruhe, to the Mathematics and Natural Science faculties of the universities at Freiburg, Heidelberg, Tübingen and Mainz,¹⁾ and at Pädagogische Hochschulen in Baden-Württemberg and the Rhineland-Palatinate. Allgemeine Hochschulreife can be obtained by passing a supplementary examination.

In the past Baden-Württemberg, and to a lesser extent the Rhineland-Palatinate, have seemed to be working outside the mainstream

1) Mainz is in the Rhineland-Palatinate.

of the Zweiter Bildungsweg upper stage development. Instead of emphasising allgemeine Hochschulreife, they have tended to organise courses which stress certain subject groups, for example Mathematics, Natural Science and Education. No doubt Baden-Württemberg, like the Rhineland-Palatinate, has been influenced by her own internal needs and the necessity of ensuring a constant supply of highly qualified technicians, engineers and scientists for the future. Although Fakultätsreife limits the student's choice of university subjects and was originally considered only the second goal of the upper stage of the Zweiter Bildungsweg, it may well be that Baden-Württemberg has foreshadowed future trends and that this path will become the more popular one in the years to come.

Höhere Fachschulen and Ingenieurschulen

The Mittlere Reife and Fachschulreife certificates grant access to study not only at Abendgymnasien and Kollegs, but also at Höhere Fachschulen and Ingenieurschulen. The courses generally last three years but the student is not automatically awarded Fakultätsreife if he passes the final examination. His mark must be either "Good" or "Very good" and he must obtain a report from the state examinations' committee indicating his ability to study at a Hochschule. If he is awarded fachgebundene Hochschulreife, he can also apply to take a supplementary examination, which, if passed, will allow him to study in any Hochschule faculty he chooses.

This Zweiter Bildungsweg route to university was first opened up on a national scale to graduates of Ingenieurschulen in 1962 ¹⁾ and was extended to Höhere Fachschule students ²⁾ by the Ministerial decision of March 1967. ³⁾ In 1966, 1535 ⁴⁾ students at Ingenieurschulen obtained Fakultätsreife. This figure may seem high when it is considered that the combined totals of Abendgymnasien and Kolleg students gaining allgemeine Hochschulreife in that year was 1994, but, in fact, it represents only 9.1% ⁵⁾ of all those who passed the final examination. This high degree of selectivity is no doubt due to the universities' and state authorities' insistence that standards should not be lowered, that Fakultätsreife should in no way be regarded as an easy option and a backdoor route into the Hochschulen. It is, on the other hand, indicative of the increasing tendency on the part of the Hochschulen to accept limited subject entry and further points

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- 1) Zugang von Absolventen der Ingenieurschulen zum Hochschulstudium. Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 5. 7. 1962.
 - 2) Those at Höhere Wirtschaftsfachschulen, Höhere Fachschulen für Sozialpädagogik, including Höhere Fachschulen für Jugendleiterinnen, Höhere Fachschulen für Sozialarbeit.
 - 3) Zuerkennung der fachgebundenen Hochschulreife für Absolventen der Höheren Fachschulen. Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 16/17. 3. 1967. Individual Land regulations had, however, enabled students at these colleges to gain university entrance before these dates.
 - 4) Statistical pamphlet on Ingenieurschulen issued by the Standing Conference: Bonn, 30th May 1968: p. 2.
 - 5) ibid. p. 2.

to the large numbers at Ingenieurschulen who are potential university students. 1)

Special examinations

In an earlier section we noted the development of special examinations which were intended for students who showed outstanding ability in specific subjects and who had not had the opportunity to take Abitur. The Begabtenprüfung, for example, can still be taken and has now received recognition by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education. 2) One difference from the pre-war years is that the student can himself apply to sit the examination and does not have to be proposed by others. He must still, however, provide testimonials from two sources indicating his exceptional ability in his chosen field. The examination has two parts, a written and an oral, and both sections seek to test his general as well as his specialist knowledge. As before, the examiners are not so much concerned with the candidate's factual knowledge, but rather attempt to assess his maturity and his ability to reason and think for himself.

All Länder have regulations covering the Nichtschülerprüfung, or Externenprüfung, which is meant for those who have attended private courses or have followed a correspondence course. The examination is

1) This fact has perhaps been acknowledged by the recent granting of Fachhochschule status to the Ingenieurschulen. See page 124 of this work.

2) Zulassung zum Studium ohne Reifezeugnis. Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 22. 4. 1959.

basically the same as the one taken at a Gymnasium and the qualification is allgemeine Hochschulreife.

A third possibility is the special examination which allows successful students to study at a Pädagogische Hochschule. This is known either as the Begabtenprüfung ¹⁾ or as the Eignungsprüfung, ²⁾ and at the present time can be sat only in Baden-Württemberg, North Rhine-Westphalia, the Rhineland-Palatinate, the Saar and Schleswig-Holstein. ³⁾ It includes an oral and a written section, which, as well as testing the candidate's suitability for the teaching profession, again assesses his mental maturity.

These examinations have never received enthusiastic support from the Hochschulen. The arguments ranged against them are the same as those against Fakultätsreife, although the Eignungsprüfung is defended by the state authorities on the grounds that it is one way of relieving the shortage of Volksschule teachers. The number of students successful in these examinations has never been high. In 1965 1587 out of a total of 55,906 'Studienberechtigte' ⁴⁾ gained the right

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- 1) Begabtenprüfung für die Zulassung zum Studium an einer Pädagogischen Hochschule. (Schleswig-Holstein)
 - 2) Eignungsprüfung für das Studium ohne Reifezeugnis an einer Pädagogischen Hochschule. (Baden-Württemberg).
 - 3) Pamphlet "Zum Zweiten Bildungsweg": published by the Standing Conference: 6. 5. 1968: p. 10.
 - 4) Lehrerbstand No. 22: op. cit. p. 23.

to study at a Hochschule in this way. Nevertheless, this figure compares favourably with the 1836 ¹⁾ students at Kollegs and Abendgymnasien who were awarded allgemeine Hochschulreife in that year. Moreover, the introduction of the Funk-Kolleg has brought renewed interest in this type of examination. If the former proves popular, and is eventually organised on a nation-wide basis, the numbers taking the Begabtenprüfung will show a marked increase.

Two further courses which are now recognised as being part of the Zweiter Bildungsweg are the Bavarian Telekolleg and the Funk-Kolleg in Hesse. In the case of the Telekolleg, the name is slightly misleading in that its function is not that of a Kolleg, but that of a Berufsaufbauschule, whose final examination is Fachschulreife.

The Telekolleg

The Bavarian Telekolleg began on 2nd January 1967 and is the joint undertaking of the Bavarian Broadcasting Company and the state of Bavaria. Bavarian Television organises the transmissions and writes the printed material which is sent to all participants. The Ministry of Education organises the group meetings for the students, pays the teachers, sets the examinations and grants certificates to successful candidates.

1) Fortschreibung 1966: op. cit. p. 95.

The course lasts two-and-a-half years and is a combination of television broadcasts, home studies and group lessons. A half-hour lesson is transmitted every evening and is repeated before the new lesson the following evening. This is supplemented by printed material sent to the candidate every four to six weeks and comprises a Lektionspass which entails filling in key words during the broadcast, worksheets which are completed between lessons, whereby the student can check his own progress, and test exercises sent to the group teacher every three weeks. ¹⁾ The teacher corrects this work and returns it to the student at the Kollegtag which as a rule is held at intervals of three weeks on a Saturday morning. Fifteen to twenty students attend the meeting in a centrally situated school.

As in the case of the Berufsaufbauschule, the curriculum has a vocational bias. Each candidate for the Fachschulreife examination has to pass the five basic subjects - German, English, History, Mathematics and Physics - as well as Biology, Economic Geography, Social Studies, Chemistry and Business Studies. His choice of vocational subjects, which includes Technical Drawing, Technical Chemistry, Commercial Arithmetic and Electro-technology, will depend upon his own preference. The course is open to all who have the leaving certificate of the Volksschule and there is no age limit. The cost is twenty-five DM.

1) See Appendix IX for examples of lessons.

The total course covers 468 thirty-minute lessons, as follows: 1)

<u>Main subjects</u>		<u>Additional subjects</u>	
German	78 lessons	Biology	13 lessons
English	78	Technical Drawing	26
Mathematics (Algebra & Geometry)	78	Business Studies	13
History with	52)	Electro-technology	13
Economic Geography	13) 78	Technical Chemistry	5
Social Studies	13)	Commercial Arithmetic	8
Physics with	65) 78		
Chemistry	13)		

The numbers enrolling for the first course in 1967 were far greater than had been expected. Preliminary estimates suggested numbers in the region of 3,000 to 5,000, but in actual fact 14,455 people paid their fees. Of these, 8,500 attended the first Kollegtag which was held in 136 centres throughout Bavaria. In the next few months the numbers dropped to 5,000 and this figure remained fairly constant up to September 1967. In this month the first intermediate examinations took place. Four thousand candidates presented themselves for the examination and 3,700 passed.

When the course began, it was not known whether the students were predominantly motivated by the social and financial advantages to be gained or by the desire to be better educated. It soon became evident, however, that those who saw the Telekolleg as a way to social

1) Alois Schardt: Das Telekolleg: publication of the Bayerischer Rundfunk: April 1968: p. 4 .

and professional advancement handed in work and attended Kollegtage more regularly than those who saw it as a means of raising their general educational standard. This is put into clearer perspective when we consider the age groupings of the students. Twenty-two per cent were under eighteen, twenty-two per cent between eighteen and twenty-five, thirty-eight per cent between twenty-five and thirty-five and only eighteen per cent over thirty-five. ¹⁾ Furthermore, women, whose desire for social and professional advancement is least developed, represent only twenty-one per cent of the total number. ²⁾

As the courses progressed, certain problems came to light. Attendance at Kollegtage, regarded as an integral part of the instruction, proved rather disappointing. The methods of presenting the lesson material had to be adapted in the light of the experience gained. Conventional teaching methods led to a rapid falling-off in the students' interest. The eight hundred teachers were not adequately prepared for their new task. They soon found, however, that it was best not to repeat the television lesson material, but to complement it by filling in the gaps and by revising difficult points in group discussion. Originally it was stated that all subjects had to be passed, but this was proved to be far too inflexible. Then

1) Schardt: op. cit. p. 15.

2) ibid. p. 14.

the second course was launched, the students were placed into three categories. Group A had their sights firmly set on the examination, attended the Kollegtage regularly and passed the intermediate examination. Group B was primarily interested in certain subjects only and wanted additional tuition in these. Group C wanted the printed material but did not wish to be supervised or to sit an examination. 1) Based upon this experience, three types of enrolment were offered to new students in September 1967. Of the 9497 students, 3452 chose the first type of instruction, 1414 the second and 4631 the third. For those in the second group who wanted further tuition in special subjects, fifty-eight courses at twenty-five Volkshochschulen throughout Bavaria were established, the most popular being English. 2) For the third course which began in January 1969, 7737 enrolled. Group A accounted for 2603 students, Group B 1271 and Group C 3863. 3)

It was hoped that people from rural areas would avail themselves of the opportunities and facilities offered by the Telekolleg since they were the ones who found it most difficult to attend a similar course at a Berufsaufbauschule. This did not, however, prove to be the case. It was found that inhabitants of large towns, particularly

1) Schardt: op. cit. p. 12.

2) ibid. p. 13/14.

3) Letter of 8th May 1969 from the Telekolleg's organising director.

of Munich and Nuremberg, were apparently more interested in enrolling than their rural neighbours. A preliminary survey for the first course had suggested that 21.76% of the total number of participants would come from rural areas, but the final figure was only 5.28%.¹⁾ For the second course the figure for Group A candidates, that is for those intending to take the Fachschulreife examination, was 3.07%.²⁾ On the other hand, industrial workers were overrepresented. They comprised 27.19% of the students in the first course and 25.21% of Group A students in the second.³⁾ The reasons for this imbalance are not difficult to find. The tuition offered by the Telekolleg is closely bound with the training for certain jobs and shows an industrial bias. It may be assumed, therefore, that agricultural and forestry workers do not find the broadcast material relevant to their work. As they represent forty-five per cent of the population of Bavaria, it is obvious that the Telekolleg has failed to make the necessary appeal in the sector where it was most needed. To continue to offer courses with a technical bias only, would not remedy this particular situation, no matter how well they were attended by engineers, technicians and mechanics. Indeed, it would only serve to widen the gap already existing between the educational standards of the urban and rural populations. It was central to the thinking of the pioneers of the Zweiter Bildungsweg such as Kerschesteiner and

1) Hans Schiefele: Soziologische Fakten und Zusammenhänge: in Telekolleg im Studienprogramm des Bayerischen Rundfunks:

Wissenschaftliche Begleitung: Heft 1: p. 40.

2) *ibid.* p. 42.

3) *ibid.* p. 42.

Karsen that interest was a fundamental factor in any course of study. When this notion is allied to the proven fact that students from rural areas showed a more serious attitude towards their studies and were better attenders at Kollegtage than their city counterparts, ¹⁾ it is only logical that the Telekolleg material must be expanded to meet the interests of this section of the community. The solution in this case would be to offer a course which has an agricultural bias, similar to that of a Berufsaufbauschule landwirtschaftlicher Fachrichtung.

It has been estimated that the cost of the Telekolleg course per student is approximately one sixth of a similar course at a Berufsaufbauschule, ²⁾ and because of its comparative cheapness the Bavarian authorities seem to prefer to develop these new methods rather than to extend the Berufsaufbauschule system to remote and inaccessible regions. ³⁾ It is as yet too early to say whether the Telekolleg will show results comparable with those of the Berufsaufbauschule. ⁴⁾ The danger is that financial considerations might prevail upon the Bavarian authorities to persevere with it even though it does not prove as successful as was first hoped. This would certainly be a short-sighted policy and would be detrimental not only to the Berufsaufbauschule, but to the Bavarian education system as a whole.

1) Schardt: op, cit. p. 15.

2) ibid. p. 18.

3) ibid. p. 18.

4) The final examination for courses 1 and 2 takes place in November 1969: source: letter from Georg Schwanz of the organisation department of the Telekolleg, dated 8th May 1969.

The Telekolleg is primarily for former Volksschüler but there are indications that the standard of work required from them is too high. Many have had no contact with intellectual disciplines since they left school and they therefore find the concentrated subject matter too difficult to follow. One solution might be to organise refresher courses at Volkshochschulen so that the standards of the students would not vary so much initially. Attendance at Kollegtage poses a problem for those who have to work on Saturday mornings and for those who have to travel long distances to the nearest centre. It still remains to be seen whether these difficulties can be overcome to the satisfaction of all concerned.

There is no doubt that the medium of television opens up new possibilities in the field of education. If the Telekolleg succeeds in activating the interest of the rural population and the present level of interest is maintained by the other sectors, the socio-educational effects could be more favourable than with any other traditional method. The fact that it can be used to solve acute problems in a short period without the necessity for long-term planning, as is for example the case with school building and the training of teachers, its adaptability in being able to introduce new topics and its flexibility in not being tied down for long periods to single projects, are considerable advantages which no other medium can match. If the Fachschulreife courses are a success, there is no reason why Abitur-level courses,

similar to those of the Hessisches Funk-Kolleg, should not be instituted. This would then complete the Zweiter Bildungsweg unit from Volksschule via Fachschulreife and Abitur to university entrance.

The Funk-Kolleg in Hesse

The Funk-Kolleg, run jointly by the Hessischer Rundfunk and the Johann-Wolfgang-Goethe Universität in Frankfurt, began broadcasting in the summer term of 1966. It was particularly intended for three groups of people: Group A, those who had done well in their jobs and wanted to study at a university, but who had not previously had the opportunity of taking the Abitur examination: Group B, students from universities in Hesse who wished to broaden their knowledge in one or more of the disciplines offered: Group C, Gymnasium teachers who wished to acquire an additional qualification in Social Studies and Volksschule teachers who wanted promotion to a Realschule. The minimum qualification required for acceptance to the course was Fachschulreife or Mittlere Reife. 1)

Professors from Frankfurt University gave a course of twenty lectures which was later published in book form. After the introductory lectures of the summer term of 1966, the main course began in the winter term of the same year. The complete course comprises:

1) Informationsblatt of the Hessischer Rundfunk: July 1968: p. 1.

1. Winter Semester	1966/67	Economics
2. Summer ..	1967	Political Science
3. Winter ..	1967/68	Law
4. Summer ..	1968	Modern History
5. Winter ..	1968/69	Sociology ¹⁾

Students have to submit two or three pieces of written work each Semester, and if they complete the course successfully, they are given a certificate. These are graded as Gutachten and Sondergutachten, the latter indicating a high level of attainment, and are recognised by the universities and state authorities of Hesse. ²⁾ When the student has been awarded two special certificates he can be admitted to the Begabtenprüfung. If he passes, he is awarded Fakultätsreife and can study his chosen subjects at Hochschulen in the Federal Republic and West Berlin.

Approximately 630 enrolled for the first course, 410 of whom came from Group A. ³⁾ One hundred and fifty-five were awarded a certificate in Economics, fifty-three being special certificates. total number awarded over the complete course is as follows:

Examination results of Group A students

Economics (plus repetition lectures)	410	155 passes incl. 53 special certs
Political Science	430	62 .. 60 ..
Law	300	66 .. 49 ..
Modern History	350	63 .. 45 ..
Sociology	530	<u>90</u> .. <u>81</u> ..
		436 228 ⁴⁾

1) Informationsblatt: op. cit. p. 2.
 2) Ministerialerlass vom 15. Oktober 1966.
 3) Because of the scope of this thesis, only those students for whom the Funk-Kolleg is a means of attaining university entrance will be considered.
 4) Funk-Kolleg pamphlet: Überblick über Modell 1: 1969: p. 1.

In the first five Semester of the Funk-Kolleg, 436 certificates were awarded, of which 288 were special certificates which can be presented at Wiesbaden for the Begabtenprüfung. ¹⁾ These 288 were distributed amongst 175 candidates. Sixty-three had two, eighteen had three, two had four and two had five. The ninety candidates who have only one certificate will have the opportunity in future Semester to gain the second certificate necessary for entrance to the Begabtenprüfung.

In attempting to evaluate the Funk-Kolleg as a Zweiter Bildungsweg institution, we must take into account the comparatively short length of time it has been in operation. Its advantages and disadvantages will be discussed and possible future trends indicated, but at this early stage it is not possible to draw firm conclusions as to its future success. In its broadest interpretation the Zweiter Bildungsweg gives a second chance to students who wish to reach university level. Certainly the Funk-Kolleg is fulfilling this function. Its courses are free and the only costs the student incurs are for travelling and for board and lodging when he sits his final examination. ²⁾ Moreover, it is clear that the Funk-Kolleg is stimulating the interest of people in country areas and smaller towns. Unlike the Bavarian Telekolleg, fifty-six per cent of the students ³⁾

1) Funk-Kolleg pamphlet: op. cit. p. 1.

2) Informationsblatt: op. cit. p. 3.

3) Infratest survey carried out for the Hessischer Rundfunk: p. 3.

come from such areas. It also appears to be helping redress what is generally known as the "Catholic educational deficit." A survey has shown that a high percentage of active participants of the course are Catholics. ¹⁾ A further encouraging feature is the number of students who come from working-class families, for twenty-three per cent of those who wish to take the Begabtenprüfung stem from such a background. Student motivation is similar to that of other Zweiter Bildungsweg students, including those from the Telekolleg, the primary aim being to secure a better job. Ninety per cent of Group A candidates see the Funk-Kolleg as a way to professional advancement. ²⁾ Dissatisfaction with their present employment prompts many students to follow the radio lectures and more than half of Group A candidates want to follow some new profession if they succeed in achieving university entrance. ³⁾

The help of the Volkshochschulen, institutions once regarded as being in no way part of the Zweiter Bildungsweg, is now being enlisted. As with the Telekolleg, optional courses closely linked with the lectures are being held in these institutions and are run by assistant lecturers from the department of the lecturing professor.

1) Infratest survey: op. cit. p. 3.

2) ibid. p. 4. The equivalent Telekolleg figure is fifty per cent.

3) ibid. p. 4.

The immediate future of the Funk-Kolleg is apparently secure. Already students have shown interest in languages and the "P-Fächer" - Psychology, Philosophy and Pedagogy. To meet this demand, courses in English and French are to be held in 1969 and 1970. ¹⁾ Other Länder which have been closely observing Hesse's pioneering effort have been so impressed that they have decided to broadcast future lectures. The radio networks of the Saar, Baden-Württemberg, the Rhineland-Palatinate and Hesse have combined to form the Quadriga Funk-Kolleg, and from April 1969 have been relaying a series of talks lasting two Semester on Education. This marks the beginning of Modell 2 of the Funk-Kolleg and it is intended to repeat past courses as well as to add new material. For the first time the lecturing professor does not come from Frankfurt University, but from Marburg. The increasing interest in the Funk-Kolleg is reflected by the high number of students from the four Länder, approximately twelve thousand, who have enrolled for the new course. ²⁾

Certainly the Funk-Kolleg seems to have got off to a good start. As can be seen from the following table, the numbers of students enrolling each term have remained fairly constant and actually show an increase for the Sociology course.

1) Infratest survey: op. cit. p. 5.

2) Letter of 8th June 1969 from Prof. Dr. Kadelbach of the Quadriga Funk-Kolleg: the number of Group A students is not given.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Group A</u>	<u>Group B</u>	<u>Group C</u>	<u>Total</u>
Economics	410	100	120	630
Political Science	430	100	170	700
Law	300	100	150	550
Modern History	350	90	160	600
Sociology	530	120	200	850 1)

The Funk-Kolleg has several advantages over normal Zweiter Bildungsweg institutions, not the least of which is the financial one. Students, particularly those who are married, appreciate not having to give up their jobs to pursue full-time study. Allgemeine Hochschulreife is not demanded by the universities, therefore students with one-sided talents are not excluded. Furthermore, travelling is kept down to a minimum since the complementary Volkshochschule courses are not compulsory. Here, however, lies one of the Funk-Kolleg's weaknesses. Students do not, perhaps, experience the same sense of urgency as they would if they had to attend a full- or part-time institution. Lectures, lecturers and final examinations appear too remote and this lack of personal contact could lead to a laxness in submitting the necessary written work. Though the firm conclusion still remains that only the highly gifted should be admitted to the Begabtenprüfung, that standards should not be lowered or selection procedures relaxed, the Funk-Kolleg does open up new educational avenues to a much greater number of people. One has only to consider the twelve thousand people who have expressed an interest in the

1) Funk-Kolleg pamphlet: op. cit. p. 1.

Education lectures to realise the potentialities of this medium. It is not difficult to visualise a time in the not-too-distant future when all the Länder will be providing such courses in conjunction with their universities. Furthermore, the full acceptance by the universities and the authorities of an examination which has never been popular with them represents a great step forward.

PART SIX

S U M M A R Y A N D F U T U R E P R O S P E C T S

Summary and future prospects

The task of introducing new paths to higher learning in West Germany after the Second World War may not at first sight appear to have been too complicated. Yet the problem confronting educationalists was not merely educational, but also cultural. An education system is an institution which grows slowly over the years, taking full cognisance of the country's economic, historical, geographical and religious background. Its roots strike deep into the past and are firmly embedded in the cultural life of the nation. And the stronger the heritage, the more difficult it is to implement reform measures. The resilience and strength of the West German cultural and educational heritage can be judged from the way it overcame the legacy of the Nazi period and the attempts of the Western occupying powers to inject it with their own ideas of educational democracy. It is not surprising, therefore, that German educational tradition, founded as it was on the early identification and promotion of an élite within a tripartite system, considered as alien the basic thinking which lay behind the Zweiter Bildungsweg. The fundamental problem facing the advocates of the Zweiter Bildungsweg was one of adapting this well-tried and proven education system to the demands of the new technological age without renouncing their proud and highly-prized cultural heritage. One thing was, however, certain. Reform would have to come from within and would not be imposed by a dictatorial central authority as, for instance, was the case in the German Democratic Republic.

The measures introduced to implement reform have already been discussed and some attempt made to predict the growth of the individual institutions. It only remains, therefore, to outline the main characteristics, where possible relating them to European trends, to suggest future lines of development and to assess the role of the Zweiter Bildungsweg in the overall setting of the education system.

Four main characteristics are discernible in the development of the Zweiter Bildungsweg in the post-war period. First, the continued expansion of its sphere of influence to include other institutions: secondly, its gradual merging with the Erster Bildungsweg: thirdly, the growing importance of limited subject entry: lastly, and of the greatest significance, the blending of the concepts of Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung. Although none of these can be viewed in isolation, and indeed are all interdependent, it is on the last that all the others depend.

To return to the first point. We have noted that the pure doctrine of the Zweiter Bildungsweg existed long before the individual institutions were built up, that by creating these institutions the architects of the Zweiter Bildungsweg sought to render the obstacles less difficult. The original institutional development revolved mainly around the Berufsaufbauschule and the Kolleg, but the path which began as a narrow institutional one has now become a broad pattern which includes virtually every attempt to further the education of those at work in so far as the course offered ends with a state-recognised qualification. Moreover, this gradual expansion into other

institutional spheres will probably be the norm for the future. There are strong indications, for instance, that the Zweiter Bildungsweg will begin in the last year of the Hauptschule and that this will then form the first stage. It has become evident in recent years that vocational education has been progressively encroaching into the field of general education and the logical conclusion to be drawn as far as the Hauptschule is concerned is that some form of Berufsbildung will be introduced to act as a bridging element between the outside world of work and the traditional school. In some states this has been realised by the introduction of Arbeitslehre ¹⁾ into the final Hauptschule year. Hamburg and Berlin, Länder which have had nine years' compulsory schooling since 1948, ²⁾ send Hauptschule pupils into firms and factories for periods of two to three weeks. In Berlin, 53.3% of final-year Hauptschule ³⁾ pupils gained such practical vocational experience in the school year 1965/66, as did over three thousand pupils in Hamburg. ⁴⁾ In Hesse, experiments are taking place whereby pupils spend a day a week in different types of Berufsschulen for periods of three to four months. ⁵⁾ It is hoped that this will make it easier for the pupil to choose his future career. All this

1) Practical lessons and vocational experience in industry.

2) Education in Germany: No. 7/8 1966: p. 3.

3) Known as the Oberschule Praktischen Zweiges (OPZ) in Berlin.

4) For experiments carried out in Hamburg and Kiel with Berufsgrundklassen, see page 105 of this work.

5) Education in Germany: No. 7/8 1966: p. 11.

will no doubt meet with much opposition from teachers at the Berufsschulen who will complain that the Hauptschule is usurping the function of their own school, but in an age when the trend throughout Western Europe is towards longer compulsory schooling, it is doubtful whether their arguments will carry much weight.

Another institution which will be drawn more into the Zweiter Bildungsweg is the Volkshochschule. In the past it has offered general cultural courses, but has not been able to award state-recognised certificates. It already helps to prepare candidates without Abitur for entry to a Pädagogische Hochschule and in certain Länder is acting as a preparatory institute for the Kolleg. In Berlin and Saarbrücken, for instance, pre-Kolleg courses are run for those wishing to sit the entrance examination and at Speyer in the Rhineland-Palatinate a similar course is held for future Förderkurse candidates. As one of the main criticisms directed at Kolleg and Abendgymnasien students is the difference in educational standards of the Volksschüler and Berufsaufbauschüler on the one hand and the Realschüler and Gymnasi^asten with Obersekundareife on the other, it seems likely that the solution to this problem will be found in the continued expansion of preparatory courses in the Volkshochschule. Once these have been established, the next probable step is the introduction of courses leading to Fachschulreife, Mittlere Reife and Abitur.

This expansion leads on to, and indeed forms part of, the gradual fusion of the Zweiter and the Erster Bildungsweg. Earlier in the chapter we discussed the strong possibility of vocational tuition being given in an allgemeinbildende Schule, the Hauptschule. This advance of the Zweiter into the Erster Bildungsweg can perhaps be best seen in the new Fachoberschulen. The latter will comprise the eleventh and twelfth school classes and can be attended by Realschule and Gymnasium pupils after their tenth school year. In this respect the schools belong to the Erster Bildungsweg, yet Hauptschule, Berufsaufbauschule and Realschule pupils who have left school and who are serving an apprenticeship can also attend. In this sense they are part of the Zweiter Bildungsweg. In a similar position are the F-Gymnasien and Technische Gymnasien which run courses leading to fachgebundene Hochschulreife. Most pupils will transfer direct from a full-time school, yet the possibility exists for Berufsaufbauschüler to attend these courses.

The reason for this gradual merging of the two educational routes is not difficult to discover. Basically it forms part of an overall pattern in which a closer relationship is being effected between the school and the technical world, in which the world of culture is by degrees assimilating the world of technology. This process is not confined to West Germany alone. The polytechnic education and Fachhochschulen of the German Democratic Republic, l'enseignement technique court and l'enseignement technique long

stemming from the 1959 reforms in France, are manifestations of the same movement. In England, too, linked courses between schools and colleges, the Robbins recommendations on the development of the teaching of science and technology at higher education level and the introduction of the Polytechnics, all mirror this trend. In West Germany the pace of change and adaptation has been slower, but the pattern for the future is unmistakable.

The gradual acceptance of Fakultätsreife or fachgebundene Hochschulreife as a qualification for university study is another facet of the trends mentioned in the previous paragraphs. The subject limitation and specialisation introduced into the Gymnasiumoberstufe as a result of the 1960 Saarbrücken reforms has now brought the qualification of allgemeine Hochschulreife, especially that awarded in a mathematisch-naturwissenschaftliches Gymnasium, so close to fachgebundene Hochschulreife as to weaken considerably the arguments against the latter. Moreover, indications are that in the Zweiter Bildungsweg of the future increasing emphasis will be placed upon the limited subject entry qualification. The Fachoberschulen will award a new leaving certificate, Fachhochschulreife, which entitles the holder to study at the new Fachhochschulen. And the creation of the latter is again indicative of the importance now being accorded to vocational higher education. It can, of course, be argued that with the foundation of the Fachhochschulen, the wissenschaftliche Hochschule will now be encouraged to close its doors to candidates

with a qualification other than allgemeine Hochschulreife, that German educational conservatism has again triumphed. Yet even when such criticisms have been allowed their full weight, the fact remains that the incorporation of these institutions into the sphere of higher education has brought about a fundamental change in the West German university pattern. The acknowledgement that vocational subjects are fit areas for higher educational study is proof of the extent to which Berufsbildung has merged with Allgemeinbildung. Again, West Germany seems to have followed trends in other countries where the dividing line between Allgemeinbildung and Berufsbildung is far less distinct. In England, for example, we can point to the elevation to technical university status of the Colleges of Advanced Technology and the previously-mentioned creation of the Polytechnics.

Even taking into account the considerable progress already made, it would be unreasonable to expect all problems connected with the Zweiter Bildungsweg to be solved in the near future. Indeed, some appear to be almost incapable of solution. Those arising from Länder differences will never be overcome as long as Länder authority is recognised in cultural matters. For many Länder it is simply a question of priorities. The ones with well-developed school systems will find it easier to concentrate upon the development of the Zweiter Bildungsweg than those which are confronted by material, structural and financial problems in the Erster Bildungsweg. Although in time they will make up the present leeway, the more fortunate,

and often more progressive, Länder will in the meantime have forged even further ahead. Perhaps a more permanent solution could be found along the lines suggested in the Robbins Report: "We are clear that the main remedy for the serious strains that are placed on the schools must lie in a great expansion of places in higher education." ¹⁾

A second problem, seemingly common to all Länder, is the lack of attraction which the Zweiter Bildungsweg holds for girls. This question is too broad and complex to argue in full at this point, and indeed could well provide excellent material for deeper study, but suffice it to say that here exists particular fertile ground for the Zweiter Bildungsweg of the future to work. Perhaps the incorporation of the Berufsfachschule ²⁾ into the Zweiter Bildungsweg in the manner outlined in a previous chapter and the continued development of the Telekolleg and the Funk-Kolleg might help to ease the situation. But in the meantime the problem remains.

A further question which will no doubt generate heated discussion in the future is the status of the Fachhochschulen. Although they stand outside the Zweiter Bildungsweg proper, they owe their foundation to the impetus created by the Zweiter Bildungsweg. It would indeed be regrettable if these institutions succeeded in

1) Higher Education: Report of the Committee appointed by the Prime Minister under the Chairmanship of Lord Robbins. 1961-63. H.M.Stationery Office. p. 269.

2) 63.5% of pupils at Berufsfachschulen are girls. Education in Germany: No. 3/4 1967: p. 14.

relieving the pressure on the wissenschaftliche Hochschulen only to find themselves relegated to the position of second-class universities. Unless their graduates are accorded parity of esteem with those of the wissenschaftliche Hochschulen, and it must be admitted that this, in the early years at least, is very unlikely, it will have a detrimental effect on the entire Zweiter Bildungsweg. Some of the ground gained in the fight for the equal recognition of Berufsbildung and Allgemeinbildung would be lost. This problem admits of no easy solution. It lies, perhaps, partly in the standards set by the Fachoberschulen and Fachhochschulen themselves, partly in the willingness of industry, and even of society, to recognise their qualifications as equal. That the problem is not insoluble can be seen in Great Britain in the way in which British industry has accepted the relatively new Higher National Diploma qualification, for example in Engineering, as the equivalent of a university pass degree.

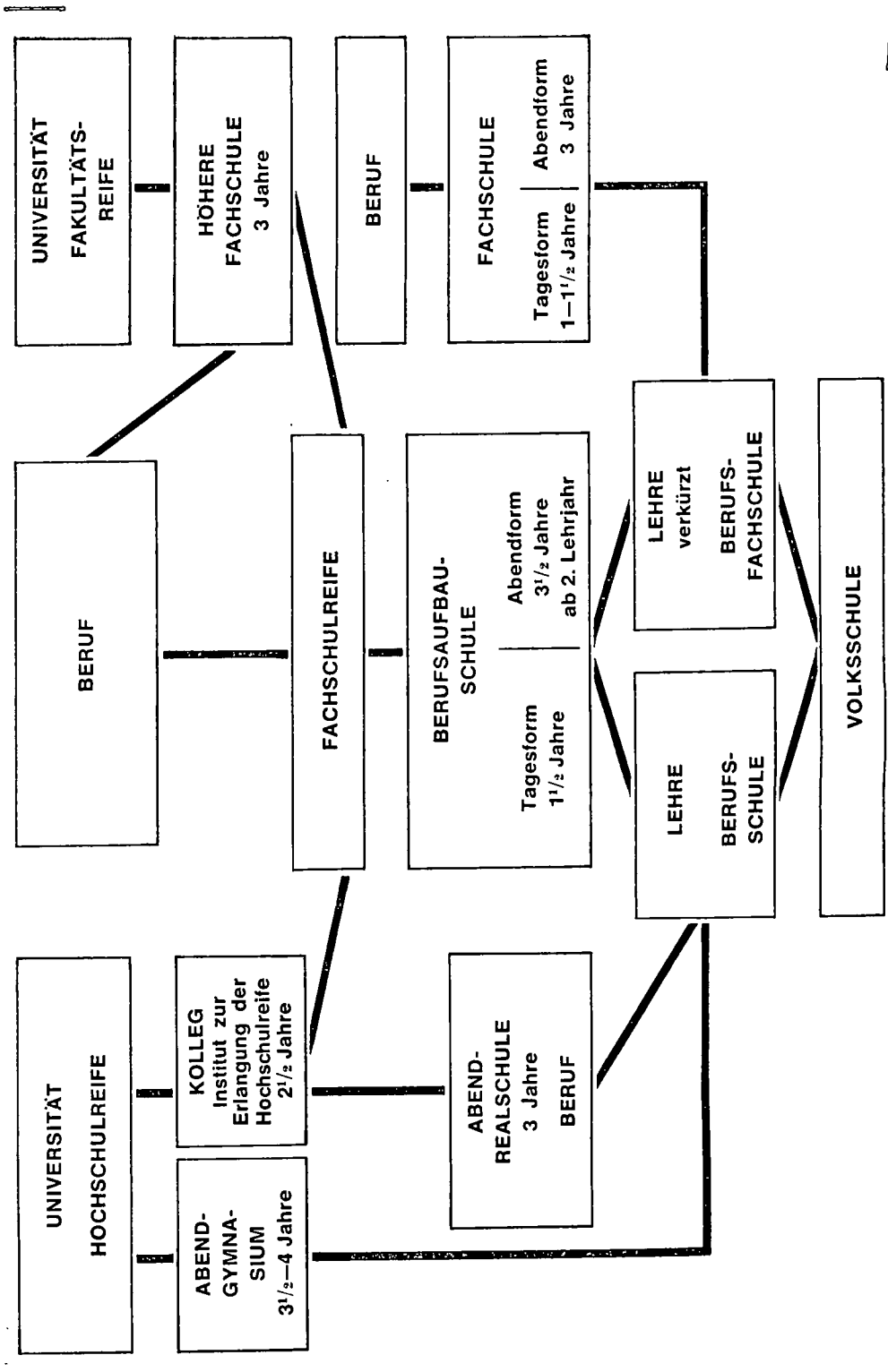
If the Zweiter Bildungsweg is only considered from the point of view of the number of students who have obtained certificates and qualifications in it, then one may argue that its success has been limited, for such numbers have always been relatively small. However, though this criticism must be allowed to stand, its role in bringing about the realisation that the new technological age is as much a part of German civilisation as the humanist tradition of the last century has been a vital one. It has helped mould opinion to such an extent that a concept which runs counter to German educational philosophy of

the last hundred and fifty years is not only accepted, but German educational and cultural tradition is being redefined so as to allow the inclusion of vocational education and vocational training into spheres from which they have always been excluded. The real gain will be enjoyed by future generations.

A P P E N D I C E S

A P P E N D I X . . I

T H E Z W E I T E R B I L D U N G S W E G



A P P E N D I X I I

L Ä N D E R A B B R E V I A T I O N S

B-W	Baden-Württemberg
Ba	Bavaria
Be	Berlin
Br	Bremen
Ha	Hamburg
He	Hesse
NS	Lower Saxony
NRW	North Rhine-Westphalia
RP	Rhineland-Palatinate
Sa	Saar
SH	Schleswig-Holstein

A P P E N D I X III

F E D E R A L R E P U B L I C O F G E R M A N Y

B A S I C D A T A B Y L Ä N D E R

I. Federal Republic of Germany, 1965

I.1. Basic Data by Lander

Land	Resident population 1,000	Area km ²	Population density inhabitants per km ²	Resident population					by religions denomination		
				in communities ¹⁾ with			Protestant Church of Ger- many and associations	Roman Catholic Church	others		
				less than 5,000	less than 5,000 - 20,000	500,000 and more					
				inhabitants							
Sachsen-Anhalt	8,426	35,750	226	42,6	20,3	7,7	48,9	47,1	4,0		
Bavaria	10,101	70,550	143	49,7	17,3	11,9	26,5	71,5	2,0		
Berlin (West)	2,197	479	4,585	-	-	100,0	73,1	11,5	13,4		
Bremen	743	404	1,839	-	-	100,0	84,1	10,0	5,9		
Hamburg	1,654	747	2,482	-	-	100,0	76,7	7,5	15,6		
Hesse	5,170	21,109	245	42,3	18,9	13,7	65,4	32,3	4,3		
Lower Saxony	6,921	47,393	146	45,4	21,0	8,3	76,9	18,9	1,2		
North-Rhine-Westphalia	16,736	34,045	492	15,3	17,4	17,8	43,5	52,2	4,3		
Rhineland-Palatinate	3,502	19,831	181	55,4	15,9	-	41,9	56,3	1,8		
Saar	1,127	2,568	439	36,9	29,6	-	24,9	73,4	1,7		
Schleswig-Holstein	2,439	15,658	156	37,0	21,6	-	88,2	5,6	6,2		
Federal Republic	59,296	248,534	239	33,4	17,2	18,5	51,1	44,3	4,6		

1) Results of the Population Census 1961.

A P P E N D I X I V

Z W E I T E R A H M E N V E R E I N B A R U N G
Ü B E R D I E
B E R U F S A U F B A U S C H U L E

Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 4. 2. 1965

Aufbau und Ordnung
(Berufliche Schulen)

370.1

Zweite Rahmenvereinbarung über die Berufsaufbauschule

(Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 4. 2. 1965)

Die Kultusministerkonferenz hat am 24./25. September 1959¹⁾ eine erste Rahmenvereinbarung über die Errichtung von Berufsaufbauschulen im berufsbildenden Schulwesen beschlossen.

Die schnelle Entwicklung der Berufsaufbauschulen seit der Verabschiedung der ersten Rahmenvereinbarung erfordert ergänzende Abmachungen. Die folgende zweite Rahmenvereinbarung über die Berufsaufbauschule trägt dieser Tatsache Rechnung.

1. Allgemeines

Die rasch fortschreitende technische und wirtschaftliche Entwicklung fordert in steigendem Maße die Heranbildung eines Nachwuchses, der in der Lage ist, gehobene Funktionen zu übernehmen. Mehr als zuvor zwingen neue Arbeitsverfahren — Rationalisierung und Automatisierung — den Menschen, technische, wirtschaftliche und soziale Zusammenhänge zu durchschauen, sich den wandelnden Erfordernissen anzupassen und neue Einsichten zu gewinnen.

Die Berufsaufbauschule soll ihr Ziel darin sehen, zur Erfüllung dieser Forderungen beizutragen.

Der junge Mensch erfährt in seiner Arbeitswelt kräftige Bildungsimpulse. Hiervon soll die Berufsaufbauschule bei ihrer Bildungsarbeit ausgehen. Damit verwirklicht sie eine Form der Allgemeinbildung, die auf unsere vielgestaltige technisch-wirtschaftliche Welt bezogen ist.

2. Gliederung

Die Berufsaufbauschule gliedert sich in folgende Fachrichtungen:

- a) die allgemein-gewerbliche Fachrichtung,
- b) die gewerblich-technische Fachrichtung,
- c) die kaufmännische Fachrichtung,
- d) die hauswirtschaftlich-pflegerische und sozialpädagogische Fachrichtung,
- e) die landwirtschaftliche Fachrichtung.

¹⁾ s. Nr. 370.

3. Unterrichtsfächer

Die Stundentafeln der Berufsaufbauschule verschiedener Fachrichtungen enthalten teils gemeinsame Unterrichtsfächer, teils Fächer, die spezifisch für die jeweilige Fachrichtung sind:

Fächer- gruppe	Allgemein- bewerbl.	Gewerbl.= technisch	kaufmänn.	Hausw.- pfleger u. sozialpäd.	Landw.
Kulturkundl. u. sozial- kundl. Fächergruppe			Deutsch Fremdsprache Geschichte mit Gemeinschaftskunde Erkunde mit Wirtschafts- geographie		
mathem.-naturkundl. Fächergruppe			Mathematik Physik Chemie		
berufskundl. Fächer- gruppe		Volkswirtschafts- und Betriebswirtschaftslehre			
	Fach- zeichnen	Techn. Zeichnen m. Darstel- lender Geometrie	Betriebl. Kaufmänn. Rechnungs- wesen	Biologie u. Gesund- heitslehre	Biologie
Weitere Fächer	Leibeserziehung, Musik oder Werken, Religion (nach den in den Ländern geltenden Bestimmungen der Unter- richtsverwaltungen)				

Nicht alle in diesem Katalog genannten Fächer sind für die gesamte Dauer der Berufsaufbauschule verpflichtende Unterrichtsfächer.

Der Unterricht in den kultur- und sozialkundlichen Fächern geht von den Erfahrungen in der Berufswelt aus. Er dient zugleich als Ergänzung der mathematisch-naturkundlichen Fächergruppe und als Gegengewicht gegen enge berufliche Spezialisierung.

Der Unterricht in der mathematisch-naturwissenschaftlichen Fächergruppe dient der Vertiefung beruflicher Kenntnisse, wobei es nicht nur um die Vermittlung anwendbarer Spezialkenntnisse, sondern auch um das Erkennen allgemeiner Zusammenhänge geht. Er wird möglichst schon von der ersten Stunde an auf die Berufswelt bezogen.

Der Unterricht in der berufskundlichen Fächergruppe nutzt und erweitert die während der Ausbildung im Berufsleben und in der Berufsschule erworbenen Kenntnisse und schafft zu seinem Teil die Voraussetzungen für den Besuch weiterführender Schulen.

Aufbau und Ordnung (Berufliche Schulen)

Für alle Fächergruppen ist die Berufsbezogenheit als didaktisches Prinzip bestimmend für die Auswahl der Bildungsinhalte und als methodisches Prinzip maßgebend für die Form des Unterrichts.

4. Organisationsform und Dauer

Folgende Organisationsformen sind zulässig:

- a) Vollzeitschulen: 3 Halbjahre Dauer, sofern die Ausbildung auf eine achtjährige Volksschule aufbaut;
- b) Teilzeitschulen (Abend- oder Wochenendunterricht): 6—7 Halbjahre Dauer
- c) Schulen, die als Vollzeitschulen beginnen und als Teilzeitschulen abschließen oder umkehrt: Die Dauer wird durch die Gesamtstundenzahl bestimmt.

Bewerber, die das Abschlußzeugnis der Realschule oder das Versetzungszeugnis in die Klasse 11 eines Gymnasiums besitzen, sowie Besucher von mehrjährigen Berufsfachschulen können in eine höhere Stufe der Berufsaufbauschule eintreten.

Die Gesamtstundenzahl soll bei achtjähriger Volksschule 1500 Stunden nicht unterschreiten.

Hierbei soll die Stundenzahl für die im Katalog in Ziffer 4 genannte kultur- und sozialkundliche Fächergruppe mindestens zwei Fünftel der Gesamtstundenzahl umfassen.

5. Zulassungsbedingungen

Als Vorbildung ist zu fordern:

- a) erfolgreicher Abschluß der Hauptschule oder entsprechender Bildungsnachweis,
- b) mindestens eine halbjährige Bewährung in der Berufsschule und Lehre oder bei Bewerbern, die erst nach der Lehre eine Berufsaufbauschule besuchen wollen, befriedigende Leistungen in der Berufsschule sowie in der Lehrabschlußprüfung.

Für die Aufnahme von Schülern, die die Zulassungsbedingungen zu a) und b) nicht erfüllen, gelten Ausnahmerebestimmungen der Länder.

Die Eignung der Bewerber kann durch eine Aufnahmeprüfung festgestellt werden.

6. Bildungsabschluß

Der Bildungsabschluß der Berufsaufbauschule ist die Prüfung zum Nachweis der Fachschulreife.

Das Zeugnis der Fachschulreife eröffnet den Zugang zu Stellungen mit höherer Verantwortung im Berufsleben. Der Inhaber des Zeugnisses der Fachschulreife erfüllt je nach Fachrichtung grundsätzlich die Zulassungsvoraussetzungen zu den Ingenieurschulen, Fachschulen und Höheren Fachschulen, Technischen Oberschulen und zu Gymnasien, die zur fachgebundenen Hochschulreife führen. Weiterhin erfüllt der Inhaber des Zeugnisses der Fachschulreife unabhängig von der Fachrichtung grundsätzlich die Voraussetzungen für die Zulassung zum Aufnahmeverfahren in Kollegs (Institute zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife).

Da die Leistungen in den Prüfungsfächern bei Berücksichtigung der durch den Beruf bedingten Gegebenheiten den Anforderungen des Realschulabschlusses entsprechen sollen (vgl. V, 1 der Rahmenvereinbarung vom 24./25. 9. 1959)¹⁾ gewährt das Prüfungszeugnis der Aufbaulehrgänge die Berechtigungen des Abschlußzeugnisses der Realschule.

¹⁾ s. Nr. 370.

A P P E N D I X V

- 1) I N S T I T U T E Z U R E R L A N G U N G D E R
 H O C H S C H U L R E I F E (K O L L E G S)

- 2) E M P F E H L U N G E N Z U R D I D A K T I S C H E N
 U N D M E T H O D I S C H E N G E S T A L T U N G
 D E R A R B E I T A N D E N I N S T I T U T I O N E N
 Z U R E R L A N G U N G D E R H O C H S C H U L R E I F E

Beschlüsse der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 7./8. 7. 1965

Aufbau und Ordnung
(Allgemeinbildende Schulen)

248

Institute zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife („Kollegs“)¹⁾
(Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 7./8. 7. 1965)

I. Allgemeines

1. Institute zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife (Kollegs) sind öffentliche oder von den Unterrichtsverwaltungen anerkannte private Schulen, die mit der Reifeprüfung abschließen.
2. Der Schulname muß die Bezeichnung „Kolleg“ enthalten. Die Bezeichnung „Institut zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife“ soll im Untertitel geführt werden.
3. Andere Bildungseinrichtungen dürfen die Bezeichnung „Institut zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife“ nicht führen.
4. Die Arbeit der Kollegs setzt Berufserfahrung der Kollegiaten voraus. Didaktik und Methodik des Unterrichts sollen möglichst in allen Bildungsbereichen von dieser Berufserfahrung wesentlich mitbestimmt sein.
5. Die Kollegiaten dürfen während der Zeit des Lehrgangs keine berufliche Tätigkeit ausüben.
6. Die Schulaufsicht wird von den für die Gymnasien zuständigen Schulaufsichtsbehörden wahrgenommen.

II. Aufnahme

In ein Kolleg dürfen nur solche Bewerber aufgenommen werden, die

- a) mindestens 19 Jahre alt sind,
 - b) eine Berufsausbildung abgeschlossen haben oder einen gleichwertigen beruflichen Werdegang nachweisen können,
 - c) nach dem Hauptschulabschluß eine Bildung erworben haben, die dem Abschluß der Berufsaufbauschule entspricht,
 - d) eine Eignungsprüfung bestanden oder einen mindestens halbjährigen Vorkurs erfolgreich durchlaufen haben.
- Absolventen der Realschulen erfüllen die Bedingungen unter c), Inhaber des Zeugnisses der Fachschulreife die Bedingungen unter b) und c).

III. Dauer des Bildungsganges

Die Mindestdauer des Bildungsganges beträgt fünf Halbjahre.

IV. Unterrichtspläne der Kollegs

1. Die Kollegs unterrichten nach einem besonderen Lehrplan.
2. Für die verbindlichen Unterrichtsfächer gelten die folgenden Bestimmungen:
 - a) Verbindliche Fächer für den gesamten Lehrgang sind:
 - (1) Deutsch,
 - (2) Geschichte oder Gemeinschaftskunde,
 - (3) eine Fremdsprache,
 - (4) Mathematik.
 - b) Im Abschlußjahr sind außerdem folgende Fächer verbindlich:
 - (1) ein naturwissenschaftliches Fach (nach den näheren Bestimmungen der Unterrichtsverwaltungen der Länder),

¹⁾ Vgl. auch Nr. 249.

- (2) nach Wahl der Kollegiaten entweder Wirtschaftskunde oder Sozialkunde. (Anstelle von Wirtschaftskunde oder Sozialkunde kann in Berlin das berufsbezogene Fach treten.)
 - (3) Es steht den Unterrichtsverwaltungen der Länder frei, ein 7. Fach verbindlich zu machen.
3. Für die Unterrichtspläne gilt des weiteren:
- (1) In einer zweiten Fremdsprache müssen mindestens Grundkenntnisse vermittelt werden.
 - (2) In Physik, Biologie und Erdkunde oder Chemie muß eine Einführung gegeben werden.
 - (3) Arbeitsgemeinschaften in Philosophie, Musik, Kunsterziehung und Leibesübungen sollen angeboten werden.
 - (4) Der Unterricht in der Religionslehre wird auf Grund der in den Ländern jeweils geltenden Bestimmungen erteilt.

V. Lehrer

Mindestens zwei Drittel des Unterrichts jeder Einzelklasse müssen von Lehrern gegeben werden, die die Wissenschaftliche und die Pädagogische Prüfung für das Lehramt an Gymnasien abgelegt haben.

VI. Reifeprüfung

1. Die Kollegiaten legen die Reifeprüfung nach den in den Ländern gültigen Bestimmungen ab, die in Einzelheiten von den Vorschriften für die Erlangung der allgemeinen Hochschulreife abweichen können, die für die Gymnasien der Langform gelten.
 2. In den Sonderbestimmungen sind die besonderen Bildungsaufgaben und Arbeitsmethoden der Kollegs zu berücksichtigen.
 3. Die schriftliche Reifeprüfung wird in vier Fächern abgelegt. Verbindliche Fächer der schriftlichen Prüfung sind:
 - (1) Deutsch,
 - (2) Mathematik,
 - (3) die Fremdsprache, die während des ganzen Lehrgangs verbindlich ist.
- Als 4. Fach der schriftlichen Prüfung sind folgende Fächer zulässig:
- (a) Wirtschaftskunde,
 - (b) Sozialkunde,
 - (c) das berufsbezogene Fach (nur in Berlin),
 - (d) die 2. Fremdsprache (nur, wenn sie auch in der Abschlußklasse Unterrichtsfach ist),
 - (e) das naturwissenschaftliche Fach der Abschlußklasse.

- Es bleibt den Ländern überlassen, ob sie als 4. Fach der schriftlichen Prüfung ein bestimmtes Fach allgemein festlegen oder ob den Kollegiaten eine Wahlmöglichkeit gegeben wird.
4. Gegenstände der mündlichen Prüfung sind die vier Fächer der schriftlichen Prüfung sowie zwei weitere wissenschaftliche Fächer, die im Abschlußjahr Unterrichtsfach gewesen sind.

VII. Anerkennung der Reifezeugnisse

Die an den Kollegs erworbenen Reifezeugnisse werden in allen Ländern der Bundesrepublik anerkannt.

Empfehlungen zur didaktischen und methodischen Gestaltung der
Arbeit an den Instituten zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife
(„Kollegs“)

(Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 7./8. 7. 1965)

I. Die Aufgabe der Kollegs

1. Die Kollegs geben jungen Menschen, die bereits Erfahrungen in der Arbeitswelt gesammelt haben, eine Grundbildung für wissenschaftliche Studien und erteilen die allgemeine Hochschulreife. Damit werden auch die Voraussetzungen für andere Berufe mit erhöhten geistigen Anforderungen geschaffen, die nicht auf ein Hochschulstudium aufbauen.
2. In der Auseinandersetzung mit den Kräften, die unsere gegenwärtige Welt bestimmen, und in der Begegnung mit ihren Ursprüngen gewinnen die Kollegiaten die Kenntnisse und Einsichten, die ihnen helfen, eigenständig zu urteilen und zu entscheiden. Dadurch klären sich auch ihre Erfahrungen aus dem Bereich ihrer früheren Berufstätigkeit.
3. Bei den Kollegiaten kann ein fester Arbeitswille erwartet werden. Im Beruf haben sie bereits Ausdauer, Zuverlässigkeit und Umsicht bewiesen und gelernt, sich in Gruppenarbeit einzufügen. Sie sind jedoch überwiegend an Arbeitsvorgänge gewohnt, die auf äußerlich meßbare Ergebnisse abgestellt sind und sich vielfach wiederholen. Im Kolleg werden sie angeleitet, auch abstrahierend und in größeren Zusammenhängen zu denken. Sie sollen sich hier nicht nur mit Sachlösungen begnügen, sondern auch nach Sinndeutungen suchen und fähig werden, ihre Gedanken in klarer und angemessener Form zum Ausdruck zu bringen.
4. Im Unterricht werden Kollegiaten propädeutisch in wissenschaftliche Arbeitsweisen eingeführt. Sie lernen, Sachverhalte sorgfältig und kritisch zu prüfen, sachgerecht zu fragen, Probleme zu sehen und Lösungen zu versuchen.

II. Die Auswahl der Unterrichtsgegenstände

1. In der Vereinbarung über die Kollegs¹⁾ wird bestimmt, welche Pflichtfächer zu lehren sind und in welchen Fächern Einführungskurse oder Arbeitsgemeinschaften angeboten werden. Besonders

¹⁾ s. Nr. 248.

- für Fächer, die zur Wahl gestellt sind, kann das Berufswissen Ausgangspunkt und Grundlage sein. Gleichzeitig wird dadurch den Begabungsrichtungen und Neigungen der Kollegiaten entsprochen.
2. Um die Unterrichtsthemen gründlich und vertieft behandeln zu können; muß der Stoffumfang in allen Fächern begrenzt werden.
 3. Die Auswahl der Unterrichtsgegenstände wird sich vor allem danach bestimmen, wieweit sie Wirklichkeitsbereiche repräsentieren, in denen der Mensch in unserer Gesellschaft geistig und sittlich gefordert ist. Die Auswahl soll auch die Integration der Fächer und die Einbeziehung der Berufserfahrung ermöglichen.
 4. Bei der Auswahl der Unterrichtsgegenstände ist zu berücksichtigen, ob an ihnen exemplarisch über das Einmalige und Besondere hinaus das Allgemeine von Regel und Gesetz bewußt gemacht werden kann, ob aus dem Anschaulichen heraus das Typische einer Struktur zu erkennen ist und ob an entscheidenden menschlichen Situationen Allgemeingültiges sichtbar wird.
 5. Wenn Einmaliges in größere Zusammenhänge oder Abläufe eingeordnet werden soll, vor allem im Bereich der Geschichte, der Sozialwissenschaften oder der sprachlich-literarischen Fächer, hat auch das orientierende Verfahren seine Berechtigung.
 6. Es ist zu bedenken, daß die Kollegiaten in ihrer beruflichen Tätigkeit in bestimmten Fragen bereits ein Problembewußtsein erworben haben. Dabei handelt es sich z. B. um folgende Probleme: Humanisierung der Arbeit, gerechter Lohn, betriebliches Sozialgefüge, Sozialprestige, sinnvolle Freizeitgestaltung, Mitbestimmungsrecht und die grundsätzliche Frage nach der Angemessenheit der wirtschaftlichen, sozialen und politischen Ordnungen. Wenn hier neben originären Erfahrungen und fundierten Wertungen auch Scheinwissen und verhärtete Auffassungen vorliegen, so ergeben sich doch gerade aus dem Bewußtsein dieser Probleme Zugänge zu einer Reihe von Unterrichtsthemen in der Wirtschafts- und Sozialkunde, in der Geschichte, im Deutsch-Unterricht und in den Naturwissenschaften, aber auch zu einer philosophischen Anthropologie.

III. Die besondere Arbeitsweise der Kollegs

1. Unterricht und Gemeinschaftsleben im Kolleg werden dadurch bestimmt, daß die Kollegiaten ihren Studiengang als Erwachsene aufnehmen. Sie waren alle berufstätig und mußten sich in einem begrenzten Aufgabengebiet selbständig und verantwortlich verhalten; sie bringen eine starke innere Bereitschaft zu geistiger Arbeit mit.

Aufbau und Ordnung
(Allgemeinbildende Schulen)

- Wenn auch die Lernfähigkeit der Kollegiaten, soweit sie vorwiegend auf dem Gedächtnis beruht, geringer ist als bei den jüngeren Schülern, so gleicht sich dies durch ihr größeres Vermögen zu verstehendem und aktivem Lernen aus. Die Arbeit und das Zusammenleben in Kolleg und Wohnheim können sowohl die Selbsterziehung des einzelnen als auch die Formen gesellschaftlichen Verhaltens fördern.
2. Die Mitverantwortung der Kollegiaten für Leben und Lernen in der Gemeinschaft und die ernsthafte Arbeit in den Organen der Selbstverwaltung sind Kennzeichen eines besonderen Stiles der Kollegs.
 3. Schul- und Berufsausbildung der Kollegiaten sind unterschiedlich. Daher müssen vor allem im ersten Halbjahr die Unterschiede in den Kenntnissen ausgeglichen und gleichartige Arbeitsmethoden entwickelt werden. Das ist einmal durch eine niedrige Klassenfrequenz, zum anderen durch ein ausgebautes System von Kurs- und Zusatzunterricht zu erreichen. Auch die gegenseitige Hilfeleistung in freien Arbeitsgruppen kann zur Angleichung beitragen.
 4. Da bei den Kollegiaten eine angemessene Arbeitshaltung vorausgesetzt werden kann, ist es möglich, sie in eine Arbeitstechnik einzuführen, die sie befähigt, in der vorgegebenen Zeit die Hochschulreife zu erwerben. Dazu gehört, daß sie die Unterrichtsaufgaben zu überschauen und einzuteilen vermögen. Die Kollegiaten müssen lernen, begrenzte Aufgaben selbständig zu lösen und dabei auch Fachliteratur heranzuziehen.
 5. In allen Fächern müssen die Kollegiaten zu Eigenständigkeit angeleitet und auf die Arbeitsweise der Hochschule vorbereitet werden. Es empfehlen sich vor allem folgende Unterrichtsformen:
 - a) Das Unterrichtsgespräch, das sich um Schwerpunkte bewegt und sich nicht mit der Erarbeitung von Sachverhalten in kleinen Schritten begnügt. Klare Zielangaben, Hinweise auf umfassende Fragestellungen und weiterführende Leitfragen sind erforderlich.
 - b) Die Diskussion eines Themas. Die Leitung der Diskussion kann ein Kollegiat übernehmen.
 - c) Der arbeitsteilige Unterricht, der eine Planung im Aufgliedern der Aufgaben voraussetzt und eine Zusammenfassung der Ergebnisse sichern muß.
 - d) Der Lehrervortrag, der vor allem Zusammenhänge zwischen den Schwerpunkten des Unterrichts herstellt. Der geistige Mitvollzug bei den Hörern muß gesichert werden.

- e) Das Fachreferat des Kollegiaten, das sich einem im Unterricht behandelten Problemkreis organisch einfügt. Besonders bei diesen Referaten hat der Kollegiat häufig Gelegenheit, auf seine Berufskennnisse zurückzugreifen.
 - f) In den Naturwissenschaften das selbständige Experimentieren des Kollegiaten. Auch hier lassen sich oft die Berufskennnisse verwerten.
6. Gegen Ende des Studienganges kann eine Halbjahresarbeit gefordert werden, in der vom Kollegiaten die selbständige Bearbeitung eines abgegrenzten Stoff- und Problemkreises nachzuweisen ist. Der Umfang dieser Arbeit soll knapp gehalten sein und ein bestimmtes Maß nicht überschreiten.
 7. Gerade in den Kollegs empfiehlt es sich, Doppelstunden (Blockstunden) anzusetzen. Auch der Epochenunterricht dient der Arbeitskonzentration.
 8. Studientage bieten den Kollegiaten Gelegenheit, ausgewählte Themen vertieft zu bearbeiten.
 9. Am Kolloquium nehmen verschiedene Gruppen und Stufen der Kollegiaten mit ihren Lehrern teil, um ein zentrales Thema im offenen und partnerschaftlichen Gespräch zu erörtern.
 10. Studienfahrten und Veranstaltungen außerhalb des Unterrichts (wie Vorträge, Theaterbesuche usw.) werden empfohlen.

IV. Die äußeren Voraussetzungen für die Arbeit an den Kollegs

1. Die notwendigen Arbeitsmittel müssen in ausreichendem Maße zur Verfügung stehen. Dazu gehören besonders Bibliotheken, Sammlungen, Sprachenlabors, naturwissenschaftliche Einrichtungen, audio-visuelle Hilfsmittel.
2. Eine ausreichende Zahl von Unterrichts-, Fach- und Studierräumen muß vorhanden sein.
3. Für Studienfahrten und andere außerunterrichtliche Veranstaltungen müssen Haushaltsmittel eingeplant werden.
4. Jedem Kolleg sollte ein Wohnheim angegliedert sein.
5. Für die Kollegiaten muß eine angemessene Studienförderung vorgesehen werden.

A P P E N D I X V I

R A H M E N V E R E I N B A R U N G Ü B E R D I E

F A C H H Ö B E R S C H U L E

Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 6. 2. 1969

Rahmenvereinbarung über die Fachoberschule

- Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 6.2.1969 -

Die Kultusminister der Länder beschließen auf der Grundlage des von den Ministerpräsidenten am 31. Oktober 1968 verabschiedeten Abkommens zur Ergänzung des Hamburger Abkommens vom 28. Oktober 1964 folgendes:

§ 1

Fachoberschulen sind Schulen, die in zwei Jahren zur Fachhochschulreife führen. Für sie gelten die folgenden Bestimmungen:

Aufnahmebestimmungen

§ 2

Für die Aufnahme in die Fachoberschule wird das Abschlußzeugnis der Realschule oder ein als gleichwertig anerkanntes Zeugnis vorausgesetzt:

§ 3

- (1) Bewerber mit dem Abschlußzeugnis der Realschule oder einem als gleichwertig anerkannten Zeugnis, die eine einschlägige Berufslehre abgeschlossen haben oder hinreichende einschlägige Berufserfahrung nachweisen,
- (2) mit dem Abschlußzeugnis der Hauptschule, die eine einschlägige Berufslehre abgeschlossen und das Abschlußzeugnis der Berufsaufbauschule erworben haben,

können in das zweite Jahr der Fachoberschule aufgenommen werden.

Lehrer

§ 4

Den Unterricht an Fachoberschulen erteilen in der Regel

- (1) Lehrer, die die Prüfungen für das Lehramt an berufsbildenden Schulen oder für das Lehramt an Gymnasien abgelegt haben.

- (2) Lehrer, die nach Abschluß eines Universitätsstudiums naturwissenschaftlicher, technischer oder wirtschaftswissenschaftlicher Fachrichtung eine mehrjährige einschlägige Berufserfahrung erworben haben.

Gliederung

§ 5

- (1) Die Fachoberschule gliedert sich in verschiedene Schultypen:
- a) Fachoberschulen mit dem Fachbereich Ingenieurwesen,
 - b) Fachoberschulen mit dem Fachbereich Wirtschaft.
- (2) Weitere Schultypen können, wenn sie den Bestimmungen dieser Vereinbarung entsprechen, als Fachoberschulen eingerichtet werden.
- (3) Innerhalb der Fachbereiche können Schwerpunkte gebildet werden.

Allgemeine Ordnung der Ausbildung

§ 6

- (1) Die Fachoberschule umfaßt die Klassen 11 und 12. Zur Ausbildung gehören der Allgemeine Unterricht, ein Fachbezogener Unterricht und eine fachpraktische Ausbildung.
- (2) Die fachpraktische Ausbildung findet während des Besuchs der Klasse 11 statt und erstreckt sich über das ganze Jahr.
- (3) Die Ausbildung ohne begleitende Praxis muß insgesamt ein volles Schuljahr umfassen. Sie findet in der Klasse 12 statt.
- (4) Es ist den Ländern freigestellt, die Ausbildungsabschnitte unter Einhaltung der in den Ziffern (2) und (3) genannten Zeitdauer für einzelne Schultypen oder insgesamt anders zu ordnen. Werden die Ausbildungsabschnitte während der zwei Jahre anders verteilt, muß der Abschlußprüfung am Ende der Klasse 12 jedoch ein mindestens sechsmonatiger Vollzeitunterricht unmittelbar vorausgehen.
- (5) Für Bewerber nach § 3 soll der zusammenhängende Vollzeitunterricht (Klasse 12) gewährleistet werden.

Ausbildung in Klasse 11

§ 7

- (1) Die 11. Klasse umfaßt Unterricht und fachpraktische Ausbildung.
- (2) Die fachpraktische Ausbildung erstreckt sich über mindestens vier Tage der Woche. Sie kann bis zur Hälfte in betriebs- oder schuleigenen Lehrwerkstätten oder gleichwertigen Einrichtungen vermittelt werden. Die weitere praktische Ausbildung soll in Betrieben

als gelenkte Praktikantenausbildung erfolgen. Die fachpraktische Ausbildung und der Fachbezogene Unterricht müssen dem gleichen Fachbereich zugeordnet sein.

- (3) Die Fachoberschulen ordnen die fachpraktische Ausbildung und üben die Aufsicht über deren Durchführung bei jedem Schüler aus. Voraussetzung für den Eintritt in die Klasse 12 der Fachoberschule ist der Nachweis einer ordnungsgemäßen fachpraktischen Ausbildung.
- (4) Für Bewerber nach § 3 wird die fachpraktische Ausbildung nicht vorgeschrieben. Es können jedoch Ergänzungspraktika gefordert werden.
- (5) Inhaber von Zeugnissen der allgemeinen oder der fachgebundenen Hochschulreife können an dieser fachpraktischen Ausbildung teilnehmen. Sie können anschließend mit dem Nachweis der ordnungsgemäßen Ausbildung an einer Fachhochschule studieren. Sie können ihre fachpraktische Ausbildung auch auf anderen Wegen erhalten; entsprechende Vorschriften werden im Rahmen der Bestimmungen über die Zulassung zu den Fachhochschulen vereinbart.
- (6) Der durch die fachpraktische Ausbildung begleitete Unterricht umfaßt möglichst 12, mindestens aber 8 Wochenstunden. Wo die Verhältnisse diese Unterrichtsregelung nicht zulassen, wird stattdessen Vollzeitblockunterricht von entsprechender Dauer erteilt.

Ausbildung in Klasse 12

§ 8

- (1) In der Klasse 12 werden 30 Wochenstunden Pflichtunterricht als Allgemeiner und Fachbezogener Unterricht erteilt.
- (2) Pflichtfächer des Allgemeinen Unterrichts sind:
Deutsch, Sozialkunde, Mathematik, Naturwissenschaften, eine Fremdsprache und Leibeserziehung.
- (3) Die Fächer des Allgemeinen Unterrichts sind für alle Fachbereiche die gleichen.
- (4) Mindestens drei Fünftel des Pflichtunterrichts entfallen auf den Allgemeinen Unterricht.
- (5) Die Pflichtfächer des Fachbezogenen Unterrichts werden durch den Fachbereich bestimmt. Die Unterrichtsstoffe sind, anders als im Allgemeinen Unterricht, nach fachspezifischen Gesichtspunkten auszuwählen.
- (6) Die Pläne für den Unterricht insgesamt und für die einzelnen Fächer sollen durch Vereinbarung der Ständigen Konferenz der Kultusminister in Übereinstimmung gehalten werden.
- (7) Der Pflichtunterricht kann durch Unterricht in Wahlfächern und freiwilligen Arbeitsgemeinschaften ergänzt werden (z.B. 2. Fremdsprache, technische oder wirtschaftskundliche Spezialgebiete, Musik).

Abschlußprüfung

§ 9

- (1) Die Ausbildung an der Fachoberschule schließt mit einer Prüfung ab.
- (2) Der Nachweis der erfolgreich abgeschlossenen fachpraktischen Ausbildung ist Voraussetzung für die Zulassung zur Abschlußprüfung.

§ 10

Dem Prüfungsausschuß gehören die Lehrer an, die in den Prüfungsfächern den planmäßigen Unterricht in der Klasse 12 der Fachoberschule erteilt haben.

§ 11

- (1) Den Prüfungsvorsitz führt ein von der Schulaufsichtsbehörde bestellter fachkundiger Beauftragter.
- (2) Zum Beauftragten kann der Leiter der Fachoberschule bestellt werden.

§ 12

Die Abschlußprüfung besteht aus einem schriftlichen und einem mündlichen Teil.

§ 13

Die schriftliche Prüfung findet in vier Fächern statt; diese Fächer sind:

- 1. Deutsch
- 2. Mathematik
- 3. die Pflichtsfremdsprache
- 4. ein weiteres, den jeweiligen Fachbereich kennzeichnendes Pflichtfach.

§ 14

- (1) Fächer der mündlichen Prüfung sind:
 - 1. die Fächer der schriftlichen Prüfung
 - 2. Fächer des fachbezogenen Pflichtunterrichts.
- (2) Die Unterrichtsverwaltungen können weitere Fächer für die Prüfung vorschreiben.

§ 15

Wer die Abschlußprüfung am Ende der Klasse 12 besteht, erhält ein Zeugnis der Fachhochschulreife. Es berechtigt zum Studium an Fachhochschulen.

Schlußbestimmungen

§ 16

Die Vereinbarung gilt für öffentliche Fachoberschulen und solche Schulen, die ihnen durch landesgesetzliche Bestimmungen gleichgestellt sind.

§ 17

Zeugnisse der Fachhochschulreife werden, sofern die in dieser Vereinbarung getroffenen Bestimmungen erfüllt sind, von den Ländern gegenseitig anerkannt.

A P P E N D I X V I I

P R Ü F U N G S O R D N U N G F Ü R D I E Z U L A S S U N G
Z U M H O C H S C H U L S T U D I U M
O H N E R E I F E Z E U G N I S.
(B E G A B T E N P R Ü F U N G)

Bekanntmachung
über die Prüfungsordnung für die
Zulassung zum Hochschulstudium ohne Reifezeugnis (Begabtenprüfung)
vom 20. November 1959 Nr.VI 70 300

I. Voraussetzungen für die Zulassung zur Prüfung

1. Zur Prüfung können nur Personen zugelassen werden, die für ein bestimmtes Fachgebiet hervorragend befähigt sind, aber auf Grund ihres Entwicklungsganges keine Reifeprüfung ablegen konnten.
2. Der Bewerber muß nach seiner Persönlichkeit, seinen geistigen Fähigkeiten und seinen bisherigen Leistungen für das beabsichtigte Studium besonders geeignet und mit dessen fachlichen Grundlagen bekannt sein sowie eine angemessene vielseitige Bildung besitzen.
3. Er soll das 25. Lebensjahr vollendet und, von besonderen Ausnahmefällen abgesehen, das 40. Lebensjahr nicht überschritten haben.

II. Antrag auf Zulassung zur Prüfung

1. Der Bewerber stellt den Antrag auf Zulassung zur Prüfung beim Staatsministerium für Unterricht und Kultus. Dabei ist anzugeben, ob und wo ein ähnlicher Antrag schon früher gestellt worden ist.
2. Der Bewerber hat in seinem Antrag die Anschriften von mindestens zwei Personen anzugeben, die dem von ihm gewählten Fachgebiet angehören, ihn kennen und in der Lage sind, ein Urteil über seine Befähigung, seine Leistungen und seinen Bildungsstand abzugeben.
Das Staatsministerium für Unterricht und Kultus holt bei den vom Bewerber benannten oder anderen geeigneten Persönlichkeiten Gutachten ein.
3. Der Antrag muß Angaben enthalten über:
 - a) das gewählte Fachgebiet mit kurzer Begründung der getroffenen Wahl,
 - b) die Vorstudien, die der Bewerber auf dem von ihm gewählten Fachgebiet getrieben hat, sowie über Art und Umfang dessen, was er seit Verlassen der Schule zur Vertiefung seiner Gesamtbildung getan hat,
 - c) die für die Prüfung gewählte Fremdsprache,
 - d) das für die Prüfung gewählte naturwissenschaftliche Fach (Physik oder Biologie).
4. Dem Antrag sind ferner beizufügen:
 - a) ein ausführlicher, handgeschriebener Lebenslauf,
 - b) ein lückenloser Nachweis über Berufsvorbildung und Berufsleistung
 - c) die Schulabgangs- und -übertrittszeugnisse,
 - d) ein polizeiliches Führungszeugnis, das nicht älter als sechs Monate sein darf,
 - e) ein Lichtbild.

5. Über die Zulassung zur Prüfung entscheidet das Staatsministerium für Unterricht und Kultus

Die Prüfung

1. Die Prüfung besteht aus einem schriftlichen und einem mündlichen Teil.

a) In der schriftlichen Prüfung hat der Bewerber zwei Arbeiten (je drei Aufgaben zur Wahl, Zeit je fünf Stunden) unter Aufsicht anzufertigen. Eine Arbeit behandelt eine Aufgabe aus dem gewählten Fachgebiet, die andere eine allgemeine Aufgabe. Aufgaben, die nur durch die Wiedergabe gedächtnismäßig angeeigneten Stoffes gelöst werden können, sind unzulässig. Wenn die Bearbeitung einer Aufgabe nicht genügt, ist die Prüfung nicht bestanden.

b) Die mündliche Prüfung findet vor dem Prüfungsausschuß in Form einer Aussprache statt. Sie erstreckt sich auf das Fachgebiet des Bewerbers und seine Gesamtbildung, dabei auch auf die angemessene Kenntnis einer Fremdsprache.

Bei der Prüfung der Gesamtbildung ist auf bloßes Wissen weniger Wert zu legen als auf geistige Reife. In jedem Fall ist ein Mindestmaß von allgemeinem Wissen, geschulte Denk- und Urteilsfähigkeit, tiefgehendes Verständnis für geistige Fragen und Gewandtheit im Gebrauch der deutschen Sprache zu fordern.

Die Prüfung dauert ein bis zwei Stunden.

Der Gang der Prüfung wird in einer kurzen Niederschrift festgehalten, die zu den Prüfungsakten des Bewerbers genommen wird.

2. Die Mitglieder des Prüfungsausschusses, dem Hochschullehrer und Lehrer an höheren Schulen angehören müssen, sowie dessen Vorsitzender werden vom Staatsministerium für Unterricht und Kultus bestellt.

3. Die Prüfung kann nicht wiederholt werden.

Zeugnis

Das Ergebnis der Prüfung wird in dem Urteil "bestanden" oder "nicht bestanden", in Fällen überragender Begabung in dem Urteil "mit Auszeichnung bestanden" zusammengefaßt. Über die bestandene Prüfung wird ein Zeugnis ausgestellt, das vom Vorsitzenden des Prüfungsausschusses unterschrieben wird. Es berechtigt zum Studium an den Hochschulen im Bundesgebiet und in Berlin.

Gebühren

1. Für die Entscheidung über den Zulassungsantrag zur Prüfung wird auf Grund des Kostengesetzes eine Gebühr von 20 DM per Nachnahme erhoben.
2. Für die Abnahme der Prüfung einschließlich der Zeugniserteilung hat der Bewerber vor Antritt der Prüfung eine Gebühr von 65 DM auf das Postscheckkonto München 40660 des Staatsministeriums für Unterricht und Kultus zu entrichten.

VI. Inkrafttreten

1. Die Prüfungsordnung tritt am 1. Dezember 1959 in Kraft.
2. Gleichzeitig wird die Bekanntmachung über die Prüfungsordnung für die Zulassung zum Hochschulstudium ohne Reifezeugnis vom 14.11.1956 Nr.VI 37 230 (BayBSVK S. 2095) aufgehoben.

Bayer. Staatsministerium für Unterricht und Kultus

Prof. Dr. Theodor Maunz

Erläuterungen zur mündlichen Prüfung

1. Fachgebiet

Es wird vom Prüfling erwartet, daß er sich mit den Grundbegriffen, -methoden und -problemen der Wissenschaft seiner Wahl vertraut gemacht hat. Laienhafte Kenntnisse reichen nicht aus. Wenn sich der Prüfling dem Studium einer Fremdsprache zuwendet, wird das Prüfungsgespräch in der jeweiligen Fremdsprache geführt.

2. Geschichte

Die Prüfung in Geschichte bezweckt den Nachweis eines tieferen Verständnisses für den derzeitigen politischen und gesellschaftlichen Zustand des deutschen Volkes sowie für die augenblickliche Weltlage. Als Stoff dient die Zeit von der Wende des 15. und 16. Jahrhunderts an bis zur Gegenwart. Auf die Kenntnis der allgemeinen Zusammenhänge und der Beziehung zur Gegenwart wird besonderer Wert gelegt.

3. Deutsche Literatur

Notwendig ist die Kenntnis der wichtigsten Epochen der deutschen Literaturgeschichte, wesentlicher Werke der deutschen Klassiker und deutscher Dichter des 19. und 20. Jahrhunderts.

4. Erdkunde

Verlangt werden die Grundbegriffe der Allgemeinen Geographie, ein Überblick über die Erdteile und die genaue Kenntnis eines europäischen Landes. Dieses Land wolle bei der Meldung zur Prüfung angegeben werden.

5. Biologie

Erwartet werden die Kenntnis der biologischen Grundbegriffe, klare Vorstellungen über die wesentlichen Kennzeichen des Lebens, ein Überblick über den Bau des menschlichen Körpers und die wichtigsten Funktionen seiner Organe. An einigen Beispielen, die auch der Tier- oder Pflanzenwelt entnommen werden können, sollen die Beziehungen eines Lebewesens zu seiner Umwelt erläutert werden. Außerdem müssen spezielle Kenntnisse in einem Teilgebiet nachgewiesen werden. Das Teilgebiet ist bei der Meldung zur Prüfung anzugeben.

Physik

Verlangt werden die Kenntnisse der Grundbegriffe und ein Überblick über die wichtigsten Tatsachen der Physik. Außerdem müssen spezielle Kenntnisse in einem Teilgebiet nachgewiesen werden. Das Teilgebiet ist bei der Meldung zur Prüfung anzugeben.

Fremdsprache

Der Prüfling hat sich einer mündlichen Prüfung in einer Fremdsprache zu unterziehen. In Betracht kommen Englisch, Französisch, Russisch, Latein und Griechisch. Zur Vorbereitung auf die Prüfung in Englisch, Französisch oder Russisch wird u.a. auch die Lektüre eines literarischen Werkes in der Fremdsprache empfohlen.

Beachtung:

Die Begabtenprüfung findet jeweils in den Monaten Mai/Juni und November/Dezember statt. Für die Fachrichtung Pädagogik werden Prüfungen in der Regel in den Monaten März/April und September/Okttober abgehalten.

Anträge auf Zulassung sind mindestens 10 Wochen vor den oben angeführten Terminen einzureichen; dabei ist der gewählte Prüfungstermin ausdrücklich anzugeben.

Schulzeugnisse, Arbeitszeugnisse und sonstige Berufsleistungsnachweise sind in beglaubigter Abschrift vorzulegen.

Zwischen Biologie und Physik kann gewählt werden. Die Wahlmöglichkeit entfällt jedoch, wenn ein Bewerber als gewähltes Fachgebiet Biologie oder ein dazu verwandtes Gebiet wie Medizin, Landwirtschaft, Forstwesen usw. angibt. In diesem Falle kommt als naturwissenschaftliches Fach für die Prüfung nur Physik in Frage.

Gibt ein Bewerber als Fachgebiet Physik oder ein dazu verwandtes Gebiet wie Maschinenbau, Elektrotechnik, Bauwesen usw. an, kommt als naturwissenschaftliches Fach nur Biologie in Frage. *)

Es ist erforderlich, daß sich jeder Bewerber beim Vorsitzenden des Prüfungsausschusses wegen der Vorbereitung auf die Prüfung zur Beratung einfindet. (Sprechstunden sind Montag mit Freitag von 10 - 12 Uhr). Bei dieser Vorsprache werden auch die Vordrucke für die Anträge auf Zulassung zur Prüfung ausgehändigt. Die Prüfer für die allgemeinbildenden Fächer halten ihre Beratungen jeweils am Donnerstag zwischen 10 und 12 Uhr ab.

Wenn ein Bewerber Geschichte, Deutsch oder Erdkunde als "gewähltes Fachgebiet" benennt, so wird er in Biologie und Physik geprüft.

A P P E N D I X V I I I

R E I F E P R Ü F U N G F Ü R N I C H T S C H Ü L E R I N
S C H L E S W I G - H O L S T E I N

M e r k b l a t t

(1) Wer das Reifezeugnis erwerben will, ohne Schüler eines öffentlichen Gymnasiums oder einer anerkannten privaten höheren Schule zu sein (Schulfremder), kann sich der Reifeprüfung für Nichtschüler unterziehen, wenn er seinen Wohnsitz in Schleswig-Holstein hat.

(2) Bewerber, die ihren Wohnsitz in einem anderen deutschen Land haben, können zugelassen werden, wenn sie mit Genehmigung des Kultusministers des Landes, in dem sie ihren Wohnsitz haben, um ihre Zulassung nachsuchen.

(3) Nichtschüler können die Prüfung nicht früher ablegen, als es ihnen bei normalem Besuch eines Gymnasiums möglich gewesen wäre.

(4) Die Prüfung kann nach Wahl des Bewerbers unter Zugrundelegung der Lehrpläne des altsprachlichen oder des neusprachlichen oder des mathematisch-naturwissenschaftlichen Gymnasiums abgelegt werden.

(5) Die Reifeprüfung für Nichtschüler findet zweimal im Jahr statt, und zwar in der Regel in den Monaten März/April und September/Oktober. Die entsprechenden Schlußtermine für die Meldung sind der 15. Januar und der 15. Juli.

(6) Das Gesuch auf Zulassung ist an das Kultusministerium in Kiel, Düsternbrooker Weg 64-68, zu richten.

(7) Aus dem Gesuch muß hervorgehen, zu welchem Termin und nach welcher Schulform (Absatz 4) der Bewerber geprüft werden will. Ferner ist anzugeben, für welches der schriftlichen Wahlfelder er sich entschieden hat (Absatz 13).

(8) Dem Gesuch sind folgende Unterlagen beizufügen:

a) eine amtlich beglaubigte Abschrift (Fotokopie) des Zeugnisses mit dem der Bewerber die zuletzt von ihm besuchte öffentliche Schule verlassen hat;

b) gegebenenfalls amtlich beglaubigte Abschriften (Fotokopien) von Zeugnissen über Privatunterricht zur Vorbereitung auf die Reifeprüfung für Nichtschüler;

c) ein lückenloser Lebenslauf, der mit einer stichwortartigen Zusammenstellung der Lebensdaten beginnt, alle besuchten

Schulen (mit Zeit und Klassen) aufführt und dann, in Form eines Bildungsganges geschrieben, eingehendere Ausführungen gibt;

- d) ein amtlich beglaubigtes Lichtbild mit eigenhändiger Unterschrift;
- e) ein polizeiliches Führungszeugnis, das zur Zeit der Meldung nicht älter als drei Monate sein darf;
- f) eine Erklärung darüber, wie oft die Reifeprüfung für Nichtschüler schon versucht wurde und gegebenenfalls wo und wann die Prüfungen stattfanden;
- g) auf getrennten Blättern für jedes Prüfungsfach eine Darstellung des Umfangs der Vorbereitung mit Angaben über die durchgearbeiteten Lehrstoffe und benutzte Lehrbücher unter Hervorhebung der Stoffe, mit denen sich der Bewerber besonders befaßt hat.

(NB. Auch Fotokopien müssen amtlich beglaubigt sein.)

- (9) Maßgebend für die Zulassung zur Reifeprüfung als Nichtschüler ist der Nachweis, daß der Bewerber seine Vorbereitung auf die Reifeprüfung tatsächlich so weit abgeschlossen hat, daß ein Bestehen der Prüfung wahrscheinlich ist.
- (10) Die mündliche Prüfung umfaßt bei allen Prüflingen Deutsch, Geschichte einschließlich Gegenwartskunde, Erdkunde, zwei Fremdsprachen, Mathematik, Chemie, Physik, Biologie. In anderen Fächern (z.B. Religion, Philosophie, Kunsterziehung, Musik) darf nur geprüft werden, wenn der Prüfling es bei seiner Meldung ausdrücklich beantragt hat.
- (11) Fremdsprachliche Prüfungsfächer sind in der Regel Englisch und nach Wahl des Prüflings Latein oder Französisch. Am altsprachlichen Zweig werden Latein und Griechisch geprüft.
- (12) Wünscht der Prüfling, daß bei der Prüfung Französisch oder Englisch durch eine andere neuere Sprache ersetzt wird, so ist ein entsprechender Antrag an das Kultusministerium zu stellen. Wird dem Antrag stattgegeben, so sind bei der Prüfung in der Ersatzsprache Forderungen zu stellen, wie sie sonst bei der Prüfung in der lehrplanmässig vorgesehenen Sprache gestellt werden.

- (13) Schriftlich wird in Deutsch und Mathematik geprüft, außerdem an der altsprachlichen Schulform in Latein und Griechisch an der neusprachlichen Schulform in Englisch und nach Wahl des Prüflings in Latein oder Französisch (Absatz 12), an der mathematisch-naturwissenschaftlichen Schulform in Englisch (Absatz 12) und einem naturwissenschaftlichen Fach nach Wahl des Prüflings (Physik oder Chemie oder Biologie).
- (14) Die Anforderungen in den einzelnen Prüfungsfächern richten sich nach den Lehrplänen der schleswig-holsteinischen Gymnasien. Gegebenenfalls können von nicht in Schleswig-Holstein wohnhaften Prüflingen auch die Lehrpläne anderer Länder der Bundesrepublik für die Vorbereitung als Grundlage genommen werden.
- (15) Wer die Reifeprüfung für Nichtschüler nicht bestanden hat, kann zu einer Wiederholung nach einem halben Jahr zugelassen werden, wenn der Prüfungsausschuß keinen anderen Zeitpunkt bestimmt. Mehr als zwei Wiederholungen sind nicht zulässig.
- (16) Die Prüfungsgebühr beträgt 50,-- DM. Sie ist auf Anforderung alsbald zu zahlen.

- 7. Juli 1966

Im Auftrage

gez. Dr. Thielecke

A P P E N D I X I X

T E L E K O L L E G E N G L I S H L E S S O N S



- Oh dear, I'm tired. Do you know, we've been shopping all day! Shopping is boring.
- I don't think so. Shopping is tiring. But it isn't boring.
- Don't tell me shopping is exciting.
- But it is. At any rate, I like it.
- At any rate your shopping costs me a lot of money.
- Is this the right bus-stop?
- Yes, it is.
- No. 22. This is the right stop. I hate waiting for a bus.



- Why didn't we take the car?
- At this hour?
I like driving. But not at this hour.
- Yes, driving at this hour is murderous.
- Yes, the traffic is murderous.
- These parcels are heavy.
Darling, could you carry this one for me?
- Yes, of course.
- I dislike queueing.
- So do I, queueing is boring.
But it's certainly better than walking home.
- Let's take a taxi.
- But where? I haven't seen an empty taxi.
Anyway, the bus will come any minute.



- Oh dear. Do you know we have been shopping all day. Shopping is boring.
- I don't agree. Shopping is exciting.
- But expensive.
Anyway, we have finished shopping. This is the bus stop. No 22. Good. There are already 3 people queueing.
- They're waiting for the bus.
I don't mind taking the bus but I detest waiting for it.
But Charles, really, you ought to give up smoking.
- I know. Smoking is bad for the lungs and so on.
But I enjoy smoking a cigarette now and then. then.
- But can't you smoke without inhaling?
- No, I can't. It's not worth smoking if you don't inhale.
- Well, give up smoking.



- This bus. Has it stopped running?
- I don't think so. There are 3 people waiting.
- Excuse my asking you, sir. Have the buses stopped running?
- I don't know.
We have been waiting for 5 minutes.
But this gentleman was here before us.
- Thank you. These bus drivers!
They keep us waiting for a long time.
- Darling, it's no use waiting here.
Let's take a taxi.
- I haven't seen any.



- Oh Robert, I'm fed up with waiting here.
- So am I.
But this gentleman was waiting here when we arrived.
And he's still waiting.
- Maybe he is fond of queueing.
- I don't think queueing is fun.
- Maybe he does. Look.
- Where
- At that headline: BUS STRIKE.
- What? Bus strike!
- What? Bus strike!
- What? Bus strike!
That's impossible.
- That's impossible.
- That's impossible.
- That's impossible.



- Excuse my asking you, sir.
Have the buses stopped running?
- Yes. There's a bus strike on this afternoon.
It's in the evening papers.
The buses stopped running 6 hours ago.
It's no use waiting here.
- But . . . but why are you waiting here?
Pardon my asking you.
- We have all been queueing here behind you.
- I'm sorry, but I thought maybe you liked queueing.
And I'm waiting for a friend.
- Why didn't you tell us there was a bus strike?
- Yes, why didn't you tell us the buses stopped running 6 hours ago.
- Why didn't you tell us?
- Because we haven't been introduced and I don't like talking to strangers.

GRAMMAR

GRAMMATIK

A) The „ing“-Form of the Verb

Die „ing“-Form des Verbs

1. Present Participle

Partizip Präsens

You are **smoking** one of my cigarettes.
I have been **waiting** here for half an hour.

Die „ing“-Form des Verbs kennen Sie schon von der Verlaufsform der verschiedenen Zeitformen, die wir bis jetzt gelernt haben. In diesen Beispielen ist die „ing“-Form Partizip Präsens.

Bitte erinnern Sie sich zuvor noch, wie man die „ing“-Form bildet (siehe Lektion 6.3, B) und 7.3, A) 3), dann lesen Sie hier weiter.

2. The „ing“-Form as Adjective

Die „ing“-Form als Adjektiv

This has been a **tiring** day.
He is a **loving** husband.
Look at that **burning** house over there.
Shopping is **tiring**.

Wie Sie aus den Beispielsätzen ersehen, kann die „ing“-Form auch als **Adjektiv** verwendet werden. Sie wird also von einem Verb gebildet, ist aber zugleich Adjektiv.

3. The „ing“-Form as Noun

Die „ing“-Form als Substantiv

a) **Smoking** is bad for the lungs.
I enjoy **teaching**.

Die „ing“-Form kann ebenfalls als **Substantiv** verwendet werden. In den Beispielsätzen ist „smoking“ Subjekt des Satzes (was ist schlecht für die Lunge? Das Rauchen: smoking.) und Objekt (was macht mir Freude? Das Lehren: teaching).

b) Smoking **cigarettes** is bad for the lungs.
I enjoy teaching **you English**.

Die „ing“-Form kann ebenfalls als **Substantiv** verwendet werden. In den Beispielsätzen ist „smoking“ Subjekt des Satzes (was ist schlecht für die Lunge? Das Rauchen: smoking.) und Objekt (was macht mir Freude? Das Lehren: teaching).

B) The „ing“-Form after Verbs

Die „ing“-Form nach Verben

1. Im Englischen gibt es ziemlich viele Verben, nach denen ein weiteres Verb in der „ing“-Form steht, z. B.

enjoy	You enjoy learning English on television. Es macht Ihnen Freude, Englisch am Fernsehen zu lernen.
dislike	He dislikes queueing. Er mag nicht anstehen. (Er steht nicht gern an.)
detest	I detest waiting. Ich kann Warten nicht ausstehen. (Ich liebe es nicht zu warten).
avoid	You must avoid smoking too much. Du mußt vermeiden, zuviel zu rauchen.
mind	I don't mind waiting here. Es macht mir nichts aus, hier zu warten.

(In einer späteren Lektion werden wir dann die wichtigsten Verben lernen, nach denen die „ing“-Form steht.)

2. Why don't you give up smoking?
 Warum hörst du nicht auf zu rauchen.
 I'm fond of eating chocolate.
 Ich esse gern Schokolade.
 Please go on talking.
 Bitte reden Sie weiter.
 She kept on talking and talking.
 Sie redete immer weiter.
 She didn't leave off talking for one moment.
 Sie hat nicht eine einzige Minute aufgehört zu reden.
 He put off going there for three weeks.
 Er hat es um drei Wochen verschoben, dorthin zu fahren.

Nach Zusatzwörtern kommt immer ein Verb in der „ing“-Form.



Do you mind my waiting here.
 Hätten Sie etwas dagegen, wenn ich hier warte.

Das Subjekt der durch die „ing“-Form wiedergegebenen Handlung drückt man im Englischen mit dem Possessivpronomen (siehe Lektion 14.3, B) aus.

Merken Sie sich diese Konstruktion bitte schon jetzt – wir werden noch ausführlich darauf zurückkommen.

c) Verbs with „ing“-Form

Verben mit „ing“-Form

or „to“-Infinitive

oder „to“-Infinitiv

Es gibt eine Menge Verben, nach denen entweder die „ing“-Form oder der „to“-Infinitiv stehen kann.

- | | | |
|----------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. begin | He began to sing. | He began singing. |
| start | It started to rain. | It started raining. |
| propose | I propose to go there tonight. | I propose going there tonight. |

In diesen Beispielsätzen haben „ing“-Form und „to“-Infinitiv die gleiche Bedeutung.

(a)

(b)

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 2. advise | I advised him to go home. | I advised going at once. |
| permit | She permitted me to smoke. | She permits smoking. |
| allow | He allowed me to have a drink. | He allowed drinking. |

Hier ist in der Bedeutung auch ein Unterschied. Aber wenn ein Objekt vorhanden ist (Spalte (a)), muß der „to“-Infinitiv stehen, sonst die „ing“-Form (Spalte (b)).

3. In anderen Fällen hingegen ist die Bedeutung der beiden Konstruktionen oft verschieden. Bei solchen Verben hängt es also wieder davon ab, was man sagen will. Sie müssen sich deshalb genau überlegen, welche Form die richtige ist.

	(a)	(b)
hate	He hates queuing.	I hate to tell you this.
love	She loves shopping.	I'd love to go to the theatre with you.
like	I like teaching.	I should like to help you.
prefer	I prefer walking.	I prefer to go home now.

Bei diesen Verben drückt die „ing“-Form eine Feststellung allgemeiner Art aus. (Er haßt prinzipiell das Schlängestehen; sie liebt das Einkaufen und er ist gern Lehrer, nicht nur jetzt, sondern immer; ich ziehe es generell vor, zu Fuß zu gehen). Die Konstruktion mit dem „to“-Infinitiv dagegen bezieht sich auf eine besondere Gelegenheit (Es tut mir leid, aber ich muß Ihnen das **jetzt** sagen; ich würde sehr gern **einmal** mit Ihnen ins Theater gehen; ich würde Ihnen **jetzt** gern helfen; ich ziehe es vor, **jetzt** nach Hause zu gehen).

Merken Sie sich vor allem folgende Unterschiede in der Bedeutung:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| a) I don't remember writing that letter. | I must remember to write that letter. |
| I forget writing that letter. | I won't forget to write that letter. |

Bei „remember“ und „forget“ verweist die „ing“-Form des Verbs auf die Vergangenheit, der „to“-Infinitiv dagegen auf die Zukunft.

- | | |
|--|---|
| b) I tried to write her a letter, but I couldn't. | Ich bemühte mich, ihr einen Brief zu schreiben, aber ich konnte es nicht. |
| I tried writing her a letter, but without success. | Ich machte den Versuch, ihr einen Brief zu schreiben, aber ohne Erfolg. |

Bei „try“ bedeutet der „to“-Infinitiv „sich bemühen“, „sich anstrengen“, wohingegen die „ing“-Form bedeutet, „den Versuch machen“ (ob man vielleicht dadurch Erfolg erzielen kann).

Merken Sie sich auch die folgenden nützlichen Ausdrücke:

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| It's no use waiting here. | Es hat keinen Sinn, hier zu warten. |
| The film isn't worth seeing. | Der Film ist das Ansehen nicht wert. |

Nach „it's no use“ und „it is (not) worth“ kommt immer die „ing“-Form des Verbs.



In England werden öffentliche Verbote ebenfalls durch die „ing“-Form ausgedrückt, z. B.

No smoking.
No spitting.

Rauchen verboten.
Nicht auf den Boden spucken.

TEXT

TEXT

Telling the Time¹⁾

Let's practise telling the time in English today.

When you want to know the time, you ask:

"What time is it, please?"

or

"Can you tell me the right time, please?"

And this is how you tell the time:

	to²⁾	past³⁾
It is	25 (minutes) to 1	10 (minutes) past 7
	23 minutes to 3	18 minutes past 9
	20 (minutes) to 4	25 (minutes) past 10
	5 (minutes) to 6	a quarter past 3 ⁴⁾
	a quarter to 12 ⁴⁾	half past ⁵⁾

We say „o'clock“ **only** at the **full hour**:⁶⁾

It is 1 o'clock
10 o'clock
3 o'clock

That was very easy, wasn't it? Why don't you practise telling the time in English every day now?

¹⁾ tell the time: *sagen, wieviel Uhr es ist. Siehe auch Lektion 37. 5.* ²⁾ to: *vor.* ³⁾ past: *nach.* ⁴⁾ a quarter to, a quarter past: *ein Viertel vor (Dreiviertel), ein Viertel nach (Viertel)* „a quarter“ mit unbestimmtem Artikel. ⁵⁾ half past 2: *halb drei.* „half past“: *ohne Artikel.* ⁶⁾ at the full hour: *zur vollen Stunde. Merken Sie sich also: „o'clock“ nur bei der vollen Stunde.*

EXERCISES

ÜBUNGEN

1. Setzen Sie die „ing“-Form der in Klammern angegebenen Verben ein.

zum Beispiel: You must avoid (drink) too much.

You must avoid drinking too much.

Why don't you give up (smoke).

You should try to avoid (make) so many mistakes.

I dislike your (lie) to me.

She's fond of (listen) to the radio.

Please go on (play) the piano.

She does enjoy (write) you letters.

She always keeps on (talk).

I advised (go) at once.

Would you mind our (leave) so soon?

I don't remember (write) that letter.

49.8

2. Setzen Sie die in Klammern angegebenen Verben in die jeweils richtige Form („ing“-Form oder „to“-Infinitiv).

zum Beispiel: Why don't you give up (smoke)?

Why don't give up smoking?

I don't like (you, read) my letters.

Most people prefer (eat) in a restaurant.

She loves (travel) by car.

My husband hates (I, come home) late.

I didn't mind (they, make) so much noise.

I remember (he, ask) for that book.

I must remember (ask) him for that book.

Don't forget (phone) him tonight.

I forget (write) that letter.

That film just isn't worth (see).

3. Übersetzen Sie die folgenden Sätze ins Englische:

Es macht mir nichts aus, hier zu warten.

Es macht Ihnen Freude, Englisch am Fernsehen zu lernen.

Er mag Schlangestehen nicht.

Du mußt vermeiden, zuviel zu rauchen.

Rauchen ist schlecht für die Lunge.

Du mußt das Rauchen aufgeben.

Sie ißt gerne Schokolade.

Rauchen verboten!

Ich möchte Ihnen gerne helfen.

Ich helfe den Leuten gerne.

Ich gehe lieber spazieren.

Ich ziehe es vor, jetzt nach Hause zu gehen.

VOCABULARY

WORTSCHATZ

shop	einkaufen	_____
all afternoon	den ganzen Nachmittag	_____
dislike	nicht leiden können, nicht mögen	_____
hate	hassen	_____
bus	Bus	_____
I don't mind	Ich habe nichts dagegen, es macht mir nichts aus.	_____
I'm fond of	gern haben	_____
Give up smoking!	Geben Sie das Rauchen auf!	_____
lungs	Lunge	_____
interrupt	stören, unterbrechen	_____
I'm fed up with standing here	Ich habe es satt, hier zu warten	_____
put s.b. in a bad mood	jdn. in schlechte Laune versetzen	_____
at any rate	auf jeden Fall	_____
a lot of money	viel Geld	_____
bus stop	Bushaltestelle	_____

at this hour	zu dieser Zeit	_____
traffic	Verkehr	_____
queue [kju:]	Schlange stehen	_____
walk home	nach Hause gehen	_____
detest	nicht leiden, nicht ausstehen	_____
I don't agree	hassen, verabscheuen	_____
inhale	inhalieren	_____
bus driver	Busfahrer	_____
keep s.b. waiting	jdn. warten lassen	_____
headline	Schlagzeile	_____
bus strike	Busstreik	_____
evening paper	Abendzeitung	_____
pardon [ˈpɑːdn]	Verzeihung	_____
stranger	Fremder	_____
peculiar	eigen, seltsam, besonders	_____
avoid	vermeiden	_____
prefer	vorziehen	_____

A P P E N D I X X

A P P L I C A T I O N F O R M F O R T H E
F U N K - K O L L E G S O C I O L O G Y C O U R S E

FUNK-KOLLEG-NR.

1. Angaben zur Person des Bewerbers

Name: _____

Vorname: _____

Wohnort (mit Postleitzahl): _____

Bundesland: _____

Straße/Platz: _____ Haus-Nr. _____

Telephon-Nr. (auch Vorwahl-Nr.) _____

Geburtsjahr: _____ Geburtsort: _____

2. Angaben zum Studium

Ich möchte im Winter-Semester 1968/69 am Funk-Kolleg "Einführung in die Soziologie" (Prof. Dr. Walter Rüegg) teilnehmen.

Ich gehöre zur Teilnehmer-Gruppe

- A
- B
- C1
- C2

Ich habe Interesse, an einem Studienzirkel (in der Nähe meines Wohnortes) einer Volkshochschule teilzunehmen.

(Z u t r e f f e n d e s b i t t e a n k r e u z e n).

(Unterschrift)

A P P E N D I X X I

B E G L E I T S E M I N A R E Z U M F U N K - K O L L E G

" N E U E R E G E S C H I C H T E "

FRANKFURT

Ffr.Bund für Volksbildung, 6 Frankfurt, Oederweg 1, Tel.: 55 02 31
Kursleiter: Wilfried Wagner (Assistent am Historischen Seminar)
Beginn: Mo, 22.4., 18.30 - 20.00 Uhr.

BAD HOMBURG

Volksbildungskreis, 638 Bad Homburg, Elisabethenstr. 6-8, Tel.6183
Kursleiter: Dr.Bruno Grimme u.Walter Appenheimer,
Beginn: Di, 23.4., 19.00 - 21,00 Uhr.

WIESBADEN

Volkshochschule, 62 Wiesbaden, Dotzheimerstr. 3, Tel.: 30 30 77
Kursleiter: Manfred Simon, Beginn: Mo, 22.4., 20.00 Uhr.

DARMSTADT

Volkshochschule der Stadt Darmstadt, 61 Darmstadt, Gr.Bach-Gasse 2,
Justus-Liebig-Haus, Tel.13786
Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund, 61 Darmstadt, Rheinstr.50, Tel. 70061
(Näheres bitte schriftl. oder Telef. zu erfragen)

MARBURG

Volkshochschule der Stadt Marburg, 355 Marburg-Ketzerbach, Tel.4801
John F. Kennedy-Haus
Volkshochschule Landkreis Marburg, 355 Marburg, Landratsamt, Tel.4821
(Näheres bitte schriftl. oder telef. zu erfragen)

KASSEL

Volkshochschule, 35 Kassel, Wilhelmshöher Allee 21, Tel. 19 26 494
Kursleiter: Frau OStR. Luise Zimmermann

WETZLAR

Volkshochschule, 633 Wetzlar, Arnsburger Gasse 1, Tel.: 4008
(Näheres bitte schriftl. oder telef. zu erfragen)

ALSFELD

Kreishochschule, 632 Alsfeld, Landratsamt, Tel.: 711
Kursleiter: Gerhard Jansky

HANAU

Volkshochschule Stadt und Land, 645 Hanau, Schlossplatz 2, Tel.22277
Kursleiter: Dr. Ulrich Muhlack
(Näheres bitte schriftl. oder telef. zu erfragen)

GROSS-GERAU

Volkshochschule, 608 Gross-Gerau, Landratsamt, Tel.: 751
Kursleiter: Dr. Peter Wende (Kursbeginn schriftl.oder telef.zu erfrag.)

HOPHEIM

Volkshochschule Main-Taunus, 6238 Hofheim, Langenhainerstr. 4
Tel. 5654
Kursleiter: Dr.Ernst-Herrmann Grefe, Beginn: Mo, 29.4., 20.00 Uhr.

BÜDINGEN

Volkshochschule Landkreis Büdingen, 647 Büdingen, Landratsamt, Tel. 685
Kursleiter: Jörg Pramschüfer (Assistent am Hist. Seminar)
(Näheres bitte schriftl. oder telef. zu erfragen.

LAUTERBACH

Volkshochschule Kreis Lauterbach, 642 Lauterbach, Bahnhofstr. 64
Kursleiter: Lehrer Karl Röhm Tel.: 2061

DUISBURG

forum, Volkshochschule der Stadt Duisburg, 41 Duisburg, ~~Am König-~~
Heinrich-Platz
(Näheres bitte schriftl. zu erfragen)

BOCHOLT (evtl.)

H.-J. Schepers, 429 Bocholt, Holtwick 51

HÜTTENTAL-WEIDENAU

Franz Josef Clemens, 593 Hüttental-Weidenau, Giersbergstr. 4
(Näheres schriftl. zu erfragen)

Sollte noch Interesse an Begleitzirkeln in hier nicht genannten
Orten vorhanden sein, wenden Sie sich bitte an den Landesverband
für Erwachsenenbildung, 6 Frankfurt a.M., Falkensteinerstr. 13.

Tel.: 59 06 41 / 42

APPENDIX III

FUNK - KOLLEG

SOCIOLOGY COURSE LECTURE PROGRAMME

5. Semester Funk-Kolleg " Soziologie "

Überblick über die Vorlesungsreihe

" Einführung in die Soziologie "

VORLESUNGSPLAN (Prof. Dr. Walter Rüegg)

I. (SOZIOLOGIE ALS WISSENSCHAFTL. FACHDISZIPLIN)

- 31.10. 1. Arbeitsbereiche der Soziologen
- 7.11. 2. Vorgeschichte der Soziologie als eigenständige Fachdisziplin
- 14.11. 3. Soziologie als empirisch-analytische Einzelwissenschaft

II. GRUNDMODELLE DER SOZIOLOG. ANALYSE

- 21.11. 4. Grundmodelle der soziologischen Analyse I
Das Evolutionsmodell
- 28.11. 5. Grundmodelle der soziologischen Analyse II
Die Struktur-funktionale Analyse
- 5.12. 6. Grundmodelle soziologischer Analyse III
Konflikt und Integrationsmodelle

III. SOZIAL - PSYCHOLOGIE

- 12.12. 7. Sozial-kulturelle Persönlichkeit und soziale Interaktion
- 19.12. 8. Soziales Handeln und Motivation
- 9.1. 9. Die Sozialisierung: Interaktion und soziale Kontrolle

IV. GRUNDRISS DER SOZIAL-STRUKTUR DER BRD

- 16.1. 10. Sozialstatistik und wirtschaftliche Gliederung
- 23.1. 11. Familie als soziale Einheit
- 30.1. 12. Bildung und soziale Mobilität
- 6.2. 13. Beruf und gesamtgesellschaftliche Integration
- 13.2. 14. Das Problem der Religion in der industriellen
Leistungsgesellschaft
- 20.2. 15. Industrie und Betrieb
- 27.2. 16. Das Regierungssystem der BRD

V. THEORIE UND PRAXIS

- 6.3. 17. Theorie und Praxis I: Sozialer Wandel
Die Problematik von sozialer Schichtung und Mobilität
- 13.3. 18. Theorie und Praxis II: Die Problematik von Theorienbildung
und empirischer Verifizierung
- 20.3. 19. Theorie und Praxis III:
Die Problematik der Operationalisierung und Übersetzbarkeit
- 27.3. 20. Soziologie als Beruf

5. Semester Funk-Kolleg " Soziologie "

LEKTÜRE ZUR EINFÜHRUNG IN DIE SOZIOLOGIE

(Prof.Dr.Walter Rüegg)

I. Zur Einführung in die Soziologie:

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König, R.(Hsg), Das Fischer Lexikon: Soziologie, Fischer Bücherei, umgearbeitete und erweiterte Neuausgabe, Frankfurt 1967

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Institut für Sozialforschung, Soziologische Exkurse, Frankfurter Beiträge zur Soziologie Bd.4, Europäische Verlagsanstalt, Frankfurt 1956

II. Die Sozialstruktur der Bundesrepublik:

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G L O S S A R Y

Glossary

Abendgymnasium	Evening grammar school
Abendrealschule	Evening intermediate school
Abitur	School-leaving examination taken at the Gymnasium or equivalent secondary school
Allgemeinbildung	General academic education
Berufsaufbauschule	Vocational extension school
Berufsbildung	Vocational education
Berufsfachschule	Full-time vocational school
Berufsschule	Part-time vocational school
Berufsvorschule	Pre-vocational school
Deutscher Ausschluß für das Erziehungs- und Bildungswesen	German Committee for Education set up in 1953 and replaced by the Bildungsrat (Council for Education) in 1965.
enseignement technique court	Course lasting three years emphasising technical subjects
enseignement technique long	as above, but lasting five years
F-Gymnasium	Grammar school with technical bias, teaching only one foreign language
Fachhochschule	New type of technical university
Fachoberschule	Higher Technical School
Fachhochschulreife	Leaving certificate of Fachoberschule
Fachschulreife	Leaving certificate of Berufsaufbauschule
Fakultätsreife	Qualification limiting students to certain university faculties

Fortbildungsschule	Continuation school
Frauenfachschule B	Technical school for women's professions
Funk-Kolleg	Radio college
Gewerbeschule	Trade school
Grundschule	First four classes of the Volksschule
Gymnasiast	Grammar school pupil
Gymnasium	Grammar school
1) altsprachliches	Classical
2) neusprachliches	Modern language
3) mathematisch-naturwissenschaftliches	Mathematics and Natural Science
Handelsschule	Commercial school
Hauptschule	Main school
Haushaltungsschule	School for Housekeeping
Hochschule	University, institute of higher learning
Hochschulreife	Certificate of maturity taken at grammar school: see Abitur
1) allgemeine --	Unlimited, allows access to any university faculty
2) fachgebundene	Limited form: see Fakultätsreife
Höhere Fachschule	Advanced technical school
1) für Jugendleiterinnen	for nursery school supervisors and organisers of youth work
2) für Sozialarbeit	for social work
3) für Sozialpädagogik	for social welfare
Höhere Schule	Grammar school or equivalent leading to Abitur
Ingenieurschule	College of Engineering

Klosterschule	Monastic school
Kolleg	Institute preparing young adults for Abitur
Küsterschule	Parish school
Kultusminister Konferenz	Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education
lateinschule	Latin school
Lektionspass	Lesson material (Telekolleg)
Lese- Schreibe- Rechnenschule	Former school which concentrated on teaching reading, writing and arithmetic
Mittelschule	Intermediate school: see Realschule
Mittelschüler	Pupil of a Mittelschule
Mittlere Reife	Certificate, usually granted by the Mittelschule or Realschule, signifying the successful completion of ten years' schooling
Obersekundareife	Level of attainment normally pupil who successfully completes six years at a Gymnasium: equivalent of Mittlere Reife
Pädagogische Hochschule	College of Education
Realschule	Intermediate school
Reifeprüfung	See Abitur
Studienberechtigte	Those qualified to study at institutes of higher learning
Telekolleg	Television college
Technische Hochschule	Technological university

Technisches Gymnasium

Technical grammar school: see
E-Gymnasium

Volksschule

Elementary school

Volksschüler

Elementary school pupil

Wirtschaftsgymnasium

Grammar school emphasising
Economics

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

Section I - Books

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No date.
- Arlt - Fritz. Der Zweite Bildungsweg. Isar Verlag, Munich, 1958.
- Beelitz - Anne. Fernunterricht in der betrieblichen Bildungsarbeit.
Deutsche Industrieverlags GmbH, Cologne, 1967.
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1965.
- Brückner - Alfred. Die D D R stellt sich vor. Verlag Zeit im Bild,
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für das Erziehungs- und Bildungswesen. Folgen 3, 5, 7/8.
Ernst Klett Verlag, Stuttgart, 1965 and 1966 (Nachdruck).
- Freyer - Helmut. The G D R. A Modern Industrial State. Verlag Zeit
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- Giese - Dr. Gerhard. Quellen zur deutschen Schulgeschichte.
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- Hammacher - Paul. Bildung und Beruf bei Studierenden des Zweiten
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- Hamm-Brücher - Dr. Hildegard. Auf Kosten unserer Kinder. Mannen
Verlag, Osnabrück, 1965.

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- Hylla - Erich/Kegel - Friedrich. Education in Germany. Hochschule für Internationale Pädagogische Forschung, Frankfurt am Main, 1958.
- Kadelbach - Gerd. Wissenschaft und Gesellschaft. Fischer Bücherei, Funk-Kolleg, Frankfurt am Main, 1967.
- Knoll - Joachim. Aufbau und Struktur des deutschen Bildungswesens. Inter Nationes, Bonn, 1967.
- Kohn - Erwin. Polytechnical Training and Education in the G D R. Verlag Zeit im Bild, Dresden, 1965.
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- Köpke - Dr. Wülf. (hrsg). Berichte aus Deutschland. C. Betelsmann Verlag, Gütersloh, 1965.
- Lawson - R.F. Reform of the West German School System 1945-62. University of Michigan, 1965.
- Neumann - Dr. Karl Heinz. Brücken der Kirche zur Welt der Betriebe. Industrieabteilung der Evangelischen Akademie, Bad Boll, 1967.
- Paulsen - Prof. Friedrich. German Education Past and Present. Fisher Unwin, London and Leipzig, 1908.
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Rundfunks. Wissenschaftliche Begleitung, Heft 1, publ. by
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Section II

Magazines and Books

Essays and articles referred to in the text are detailed below.

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1963, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969.

Hilker - Franz. Die Reformpädagogik der zwanziger Jahre. October 1966.

Comparative Educational Review. Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

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Quelle und Meyer, Heidelberg, 1959.

a) Küppers - Heinz. Stellungnahme und Leistungen der Gewerkschaften

b) Wenke - Hans. Die pädagogischen und psychologischen Aspekte

Education in Germany. Inter Nationes, Bonn. 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969.

a) Spotlight on the Berufsaufbauschule. No. 6 1965.

b) The Zweite Bildungsweg in the Federal Republic. No. 6 1965.

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- h) Aid for Education from the German Trades Union Federation.
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- i) Success of the Tenth School Year. No. 10 1967.
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- b) Gleitze - Bruno. Erinnerungen eines Arbeiter-Abiturienten.
- c) Radde - Gerd. Auf den Spuren Fritz Karsens.

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- b) Conradsen - Bruno. Der Zweite Bildungsweg.

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Das Berliner Schulwesen. Jens Mydahl, Berlin, 1928.

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Source unknown.

Section III

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Baden-Württemberg

- a) Ausbildungsmöglichkeiten im Rahmen des Zweiten Bildungsweges.
- b) Bildungswege in Baden Württemberg. 1967.
- c) Das Technische Gymnasium. 1968.
- d) Die Technische Oberschule. 1968.

Bavaria

- a) Amtsblatt des Bayerischen Staatsministeriums für Unterricht und Kultus. No. 17, 1966. No. 16, 1967.
- b) Aus Ihrem Kind soll etwas werden.
- c) Bayern fördert Begabte.
- d) Die Möglichkeiten zur Erlangung der Hochschulreife ausserhalb der Gymnasien.
- e) Möglichkeiten zur Weiterbildung im Zweiten Bildungsweg. 1967.

Berlin

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- b) Das Bildungswesen des Landes Berlin.

Bremen

- a) Möglichkeiten des Zweiten Bildungsweges in Bremen.

Hamburg

- a) Keine Sackgassen im Schulwesen. Bildungswege in Hamburg.
- b) Merkblatt über das staatliche Abendgymnasium mit Abendrealschule.

Hesse

- a) Erlangung zur Hochschulreife auf dem Zweiten Bildungsweg. 1968.
- b) Informationsblatt des Hessischen Rundfunks. July, 1968.
- c) Infratest survey carried out for the Hessischer Rundfunk.
- d) Schulen in unserer Zeit: Bildungswege in Hessen.
- e) Überblick über Modell I. Funk-Kolleg pamphlet. 1969.

Lower Saxony

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North Rhine-Westphalia

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b) Bildungswege an den Schulen Nordrhein-Westfalens. Heft 10.
c) Erwachsenenbildung in Nordrhein-Westfalen. Heft 11.
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Saar

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Section IV

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Berufsaufbauschulen

Aachen (NRW), Darmstadt (Hesse), Hanover (NS), Kempten (Ba),
Stuttgart (B-W), Trier (RP), Ulm (B-W), Wedding (Be).

Abendrealschulen

Göttingen (NS), Hamburg.

Abendgymnasien

Berlin, Bremen, Brunswick (NS), Dortmund (NRW), Essen (NRW), Hamburg,
Mainz (RP), Munich (Ba), Offenbach (He), Saarbrücken (Sa).

Kollegs

Berlin, Brunswick (NS), Espelkamp (NRW), Hamburg, Hessenkollegs,
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