CHAPTER III :

THE BACKGROUND PERSPECTIVE

> Educational developments draw their sustemance from their environments. The physical conditions, the social fabric, the economic life, the traditions developed in education, the political influences, all of them mould and weave the complex web of education. Studies in comparative education can ill afford to miss these background perspectives.

--- PROFESSOR D.M. DESAI in "Toolanatmak Shikshan Vyavastha" (Comparative Educational Administration,1974)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the significant conclusions of the review of research presented in the previous and the first Chapter was that in the universities of Gujarat,^{*} the field of comparative education is little explored and only a few studies have been attempted in the area of comparative education. The country of the Philippines has figured only in one study so far and that, too, dates quarter of a century back when one Miss Devi Mirchandani did a small study on the educational system of the Philippines. This fact of insufficient tillage in the realm of research in comparative education in the universities of Gujarat State has given an edge to the present study.

The present Chapter is intended to be a background perspective study. It is assumed that a brief introduction to the land, people, society, culture, educational system, schools and the system of teacher training at the primary stage would serve as a frame of background setting which

^{*} They are six : (1) The Gujarat University, Ahmedabad, (2) M.S. University of Baroda, Baroda, (3) Sardar Patel University, Vidyanagar, (4) South Gujarat University, Surat, (5) Saurashtra University, Rajkot and Bhavnagar and (6) Gujarat Vidyapeeth, Ahmedabad.

would make the unfoldment of the story of teacher education in both the lands meaningful. The approach adopted is one of comparison with Gujarat State in the focus, and comparing and contrasting it with the Republic of the Philippines. In this, the basic difference that while one is a State - a regional unit of a vast continent-like country and the other is a country in itself will not be given any weightage or consideration because both are viewed as two <u>different lands</u> having their own distinctive history, society, culture, economy, educational system and both in the present times are in the state of development - they have been making a bid to achieve speedy and effective development.

The background perspective attempted in the Chapter relates to the following :

- (a) The land and the people
- (b) The cultural moorings and some vital dimensions
- (c) The State economy
- (d) The educational system
- (e) The State Education Department Direction, supervision and control

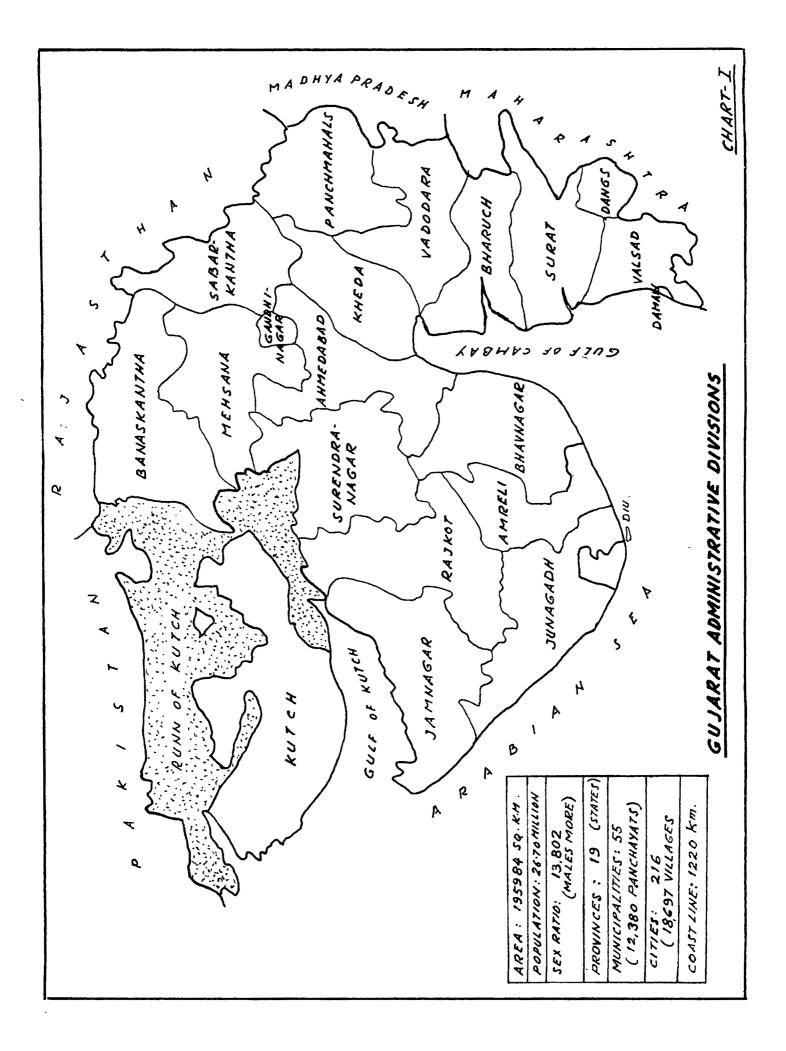
(f) Education of elementary school teachers.

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These background perspectives will have a focus on Gujarat State and the descriptive narrative of the Philippines will be brought by way of comparison and contrast. It is held that such an approach will help in avoiding the presentations of the two background perspectives unrelated, unlinked and without a meaningful coordinating focus. Such synchronised treatment of the data will be going to be a distinctive feature of this study which deviates from the widely followed model^{*} which deals first with two or more countries <u>separately</u>, that is, one by one and then attempts comparison and drawing of conclusions.

The sources used in this Chapter are mostly official documents consisting of reports of Committees and Commissions and surveys, research reports, published literature in English as well as in Gujarat language (so far as

^{*} This is to be found in many studies on comparative education such as those by Edmund King ("Other Schools and Ours"), and T.L. Reller and E.L. Morphet ("Comparative Educational Administration")



Gujarat State is concerned) and some literature published the by the UNESCO on the Philippines and/Asian countries. The statistics used in the Chapter would largely be true upto 1970, but in some cases they may go beyond that, that is, upto 1973.

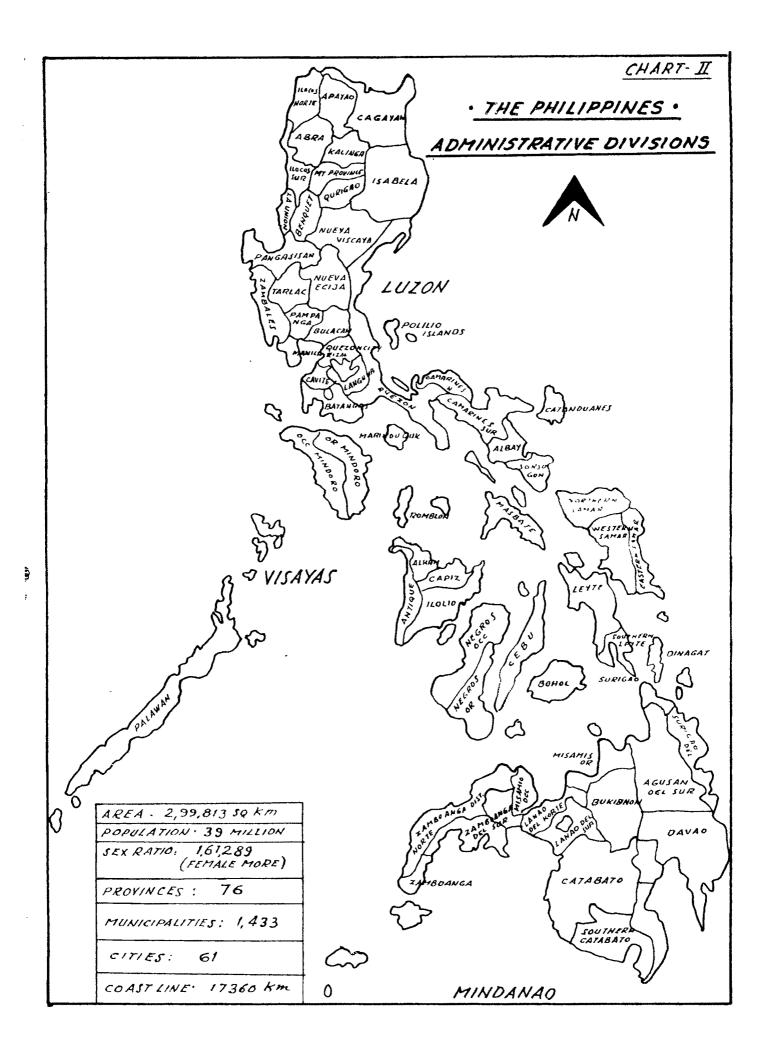
3.2 THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE

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Gujarat constitutes one of the 22 constituent States of the Indian Union. It is a linguistic State, having its own distinctive language and culture dating from ancient times, i.e. from the pre-Vedic times. Relics of the ancient Harappan culture have been discovered in Gujarat which establish Gujarat's linkage with the ancient river civilization of the Indus valley which flourished some three thousand years back. Recent explorations in Gujarat have further unearthed early Stone Age tools from the gravels of rivers of Kutch, Saurastra and the mainland Gujarat regions. The Government document entitled "Gujarat 1971" (p.7) observes that "the Stone Age Man seems to have roamed all over Gujarat." This establishes the fact that Gujarat had a pre-historic past. It has pre-history, protohistory legends and myths and epics and puranas "all jumping into the melting pot

* Vide - Chart I.

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of time." It is certainly far more ancient than the Philippines.

The Gujarat State is geographically situated on the west coast of India between 20.1 and 24.7 degrees north latitude and 68.4 and 74.4 degrees east longitude. On the west of Gujarat is the Arabian sea. To its North--West lies the small sandy desert of Kutch which joins its boundary with the Sindh region of Pakistan.

The State has an area of about 196 thousand square kilometers. In area, it represents 5.97 per cent of the total area of the Indian Union. According to the latest Census of 1971, it has a population of around 26.7 million. Its population constitutes 4.87 per cent of the total population of India. In area, Gujarat ranks seventh and in population ninth in India.

The Republic of/Philippines*is, geographically, to the South-East of China. From Baroda in Gujarat, the capitol of the Philippines, Manila, is approximately at from Baroda. an air journey distance of 3375 miles/ There are about 7,100 islands which make the fairly large archipelago. In size, it is nearly the same as the British Isles and is larger than Italy. The area of Gujarat is about

^{*} Vide - Chart II.

62.39 per cent of the Philippines. Though the Philippines is larger than Gujarat in size, it is not a continuous block of land; it is full of islands distributed in a shape of the isosceles triangle. The islands form one political unit, under a unified and well integrated political system.

According to the UNESCO document entitled "Long-<u>Term Projections for Education in the Republic of the</u> <u>Philippines</u>" (1965, p.101), the population of the Philippines in 1971 was estimated to be 38.5 million. In comparison to the Philippines population, the Gujarat population of 26.7 million comes to be its 69.9 per cent. Thus, Gujarat State is smaller both in size and population, but not very much small.

3.3 CULTURAL MOORINGS AND SOME DIMENSIONS

Culturally, Gujarat has predominantly the Aryan culture. The Buddhist influence began in third century B.C.^{*} and the Jainism acquired its foothold in some parts of Gujarat in the Seventh Century.^{**} Gujarat has now the Hindu or Aryan culture. It has also Muslim population to the tune of around 9% of its population. Gujarat was under the Muslim rule for more than four centuries and a half - to be more

- * Vide Chitra Desai, op.cit., p.113.
- ** Ibid, p.122.

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precise between 1300 A.D. to 1753 A.D. Even earlier than this date the Muslim cultural influences had begun to spread in Gujarat from the seventh century A.D. The people of Gujarat has cultural integration with other cultural regions of India retaining, however, its regional culture which after 1818 had begun to come under the exogeneous influences of the culture of the English men and changed markedly.

The influx of foreign influences into the Philippines before the advent of the Europeans consisted of the Chinese, Muslims and the Indians which, according to Juan Francisco (1971, p.1), "enriched the cultural life of the early Filipinos, who then transmitted these influences to later generations." This, according to the above writer, forms a basic substratum of the present Philippine cultural foundations which blended with Europeo -American cultural patterns that followed. The Indian cultural influences had begun to spread in the Philippines perhaps between the fifth and ninth century. There is conflicting thinking among the Philippine scholars as to exactly when the Indian cultural influences infilterated in the country. Makarenko (1964) has published a paper in which he has discussed at some length the

probable influences of Tamil language words on Tagalog, the Philippine language. The Philippine folk literature seems to have also borrowed profusely from ancient literary treasury of India. Earlier Arsenio Manuel (1948) had revealed Chinese elements in the Tagalog language. Despite these foreign cultural influences and enrichment from diverse cultures, a relatively homogenous culture in its broader perspective and aspects has come to be developed in the Philippines. The conclusion that is being emphasised by the historians of the Philippines is that the Philippine culture is uniform.

This Asian south-east country has predominantly Christian community, though it has also a small population of the Muslims. It has also its tribal population and tribal culture and history. The original settlers of the country, the Negritos, inhabit the mountain regions of Luzon, Panay, Negros and some smaller islands as the tribal population of Gujarat live in the forests and hills of the South Gujarat and the East Gujarat (the Panchmahals district) regions. Whereas in the Gujarat State **i**he tribal population is 14.25 per cent, in the Philippines, according to Devi Mirchandani (1951, p.3), it has not been more than one tenth of its total population. The nine-tenths of the population of the country are of the Malayan sub-type.

Thus, Gujarat has cultural moorings of the Aryans and the Muslims and it also reflects the cultural influences of Jainism, Christianity and Zoroastrianism (of the Parsee community).Though considerable cultural blending of the diverse strands of culture over a long stretch of centuries has taken place, the bulk of the population being Hindus has retained its ancient Aryan cultural moorings and heritage.

It is a little known fact in this country that the Philippines, too, had ^Indian influences in its early history of development. One theory propounded by Majeeb Saleeby (1921, pp.8-9) is that powerful development of Hindu civilization had taken place in Java and Sumatra which greatly affected the Malayan people and led to the rise of new States and great kingdoms. This is said to have begun in Western Malaysia in the 4th century A.D. and it is presumed that it had reached the coasts of the Philippines by about fifth century A.D. Francisco's (1971, p.7) interpretation is that the introduction of Indian cultural elements in the Philippines Islands was motivated by culture - drift and stimulus through long centuries of slow percolation. The customs, manners and traditions of Indian origin were, perhaps, brought to the island by the Hinuized and Islamized Malays and Indonesians. It is, therefore, no wonder that the language of the people of the Philippines, <u>Tagalog</u>, has adapted words from Sanskrit language, as it has done from the Spanish language besides reflecting the effect of the American English language.

3.4 THE SOCIAL FABRIC

(a) Characteristics of People :

The basic strands of the social fabric of the people of Gujarat, according to Chitra Desai (1976, p.198) are family, religion, commercial activity, land and pleasure-seeking. The Gujarati has earned the colourful name of '<u>Chhel Chhabilo</u>' - an elegant, foppish dandy type of an individual. He is easy-going, and fond of delicious spicy food, good dress and outside-the-home movements. However, he relishes in maintaining affiliation to traditions and honours age-old customs. He is religious-minded and does, by and large, morning prayers and visits to temple. He has abiding faith in God and in destiny. It is observed in <u>Gujarat 1971</u> (p.4) :

"The people of Gujarat are courageous and enterprising. Though not so stout in physique, they are gentle and have created a legend of their courage, patriotism, valour, chivalry and hospitality... Proximity to the sea coupled with the spirit of enterprise has made the Gujaratis explore new horizons which in turn have fostered in them sound practical wisdom, catholicity of taste and social flexibility."

According to Carson (1961, p.20), the three basic strands of the Filipino social fabric are family, religion and land.Seldman (1960) has referred to the emergence of a new class of enterpreneurs which has developed new strands of interest from those traditional ones in the ownership of land. Carson's conclusion is that despite phenomenal changes taking place in the social fabric of the Filipino people, the ties of family and religion are still major elements in their society. Carson (p.20) cites a common example of the sacrificial willingness of parents or other relatives to support a member of the

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family in school or college, as contrasted with the slow response to proposals for local school taxes. From Rajgor's (1974, p.33) recent study, this cannot be observed about a Gujarati family which has strong attachment to its members and makes many sacrificies for children but the intensity of the eagerness to give full and best education is not to be found at least in lower classes of the society.Forbes (1928, p.18) pays tribute to the happy family life of the Filipino, parental generosity and the affection and care shown to the aged and the crippled. The Filipino have lot of human milkness of love and kindness in them.

(b) Status of Women :

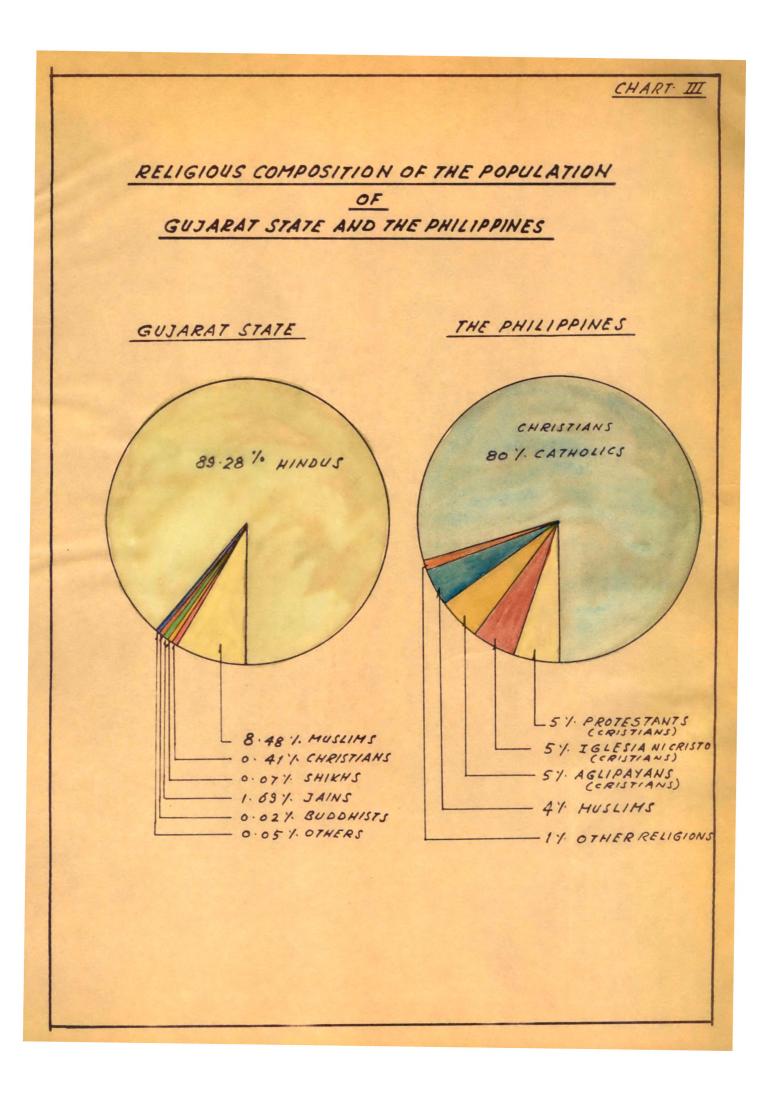
Chitra Desai (1976) describes Gujarati society as a traditional society, but at the same time, it is on its way to modernisation. Women of Gujarat had high social, economic and educational status in the past, but this came to be gradually lost and from the beginning of the Christian era, they have come to occupy a subordinate and subservient place in the family and in the society. After Independence, they have achieved some social emancipation - they are free from many social taboos, customs, attitudes which stagnated them intellectually and had subordinated completely to the father till they were maidens, to the husband after marriage and to the son or any supporting male relative in the event of widowhood. In the course of last twenty-years or so, things have much improved for women of Gujarat. The new generation of Gujarati females is much better off socially. There are some communities like Nagar Brahmin, dominating their men folk. The females in urban areas and in high castes like Brahmins, Banias and Jains and among the Parsee community, are much more emancipated than what they were in the past and than their sisters from lower castes. More girls now go to colleges and universities than they did in the past. A recent study by Chitra Desai (1975, p.375) has revealed that against every 100 boys enrolled in primary schools there are 64 girls at lower primary stage, 57 girls at the upper primary stage, 53 girls at the secondary stage and 33 women at the higher education stage receiving education. A document recently published by Government of India ("Educational Statistics at a Glance", 1973, p.15) shows

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an enrolment of 20,778 for women as against 19,111 for men in First Degree Courses in Arts. This greater enrolment of women than men in colleges of Liberal Arts would have been almost unbelievable some twenty-five years back.

As against the low and diffused picture of the social status of women in Gujarat, the corresponding picture of the women of the Philippines shows striking contrast. The Filipina or the Filipino female enjoys considerable freedom and respect in the society. In fact, the freedom and respect accorded to women in the Filipino society makes for a unique quality of its home-life. Carson observes (p.21) that the tradition of such freedom goes far back in the racial past. Forbes (1928, pp.18-19) show that the Filipino women have a tradition of prominence in commerce, retail trade, management. Filipino women hold important positions in public affairs and in Government services. Rita Gerona (1960, p.14) attributes the high social and economic status of women to educational reforms and advancement. She observes :

"After 50 years of continuing educational reforms and expansion, the advancement of women in



professional, cultural, political, and civic spheres has become the rule rather than the exception."

A similar impact or role of education in the social, economic and religious emancipation of women in Gujarat has been identified by Vakil (1966), Dave (1971), Saroj Desai (1972), Punambhai, Patel (1975) and Chitra Desai (1975). The inescapable conclusion is that advancement of women's education in Gujarat holds master key to their social, economic and political emancipation and progress.

(c) Religious Composition :

This factor has been already referred/earlier i.o while discussing the cultural dimensions of the Gujarati and Filipino Society. The Table 3.1 gives the percentage of religious adherents in Gujarat and the Philippines. It is not given here for any comparision but only to illustrate the fact that in both the lands different religious groups reside, but in each land, it is only one religious group which is the most dominant so far as its numerical population is concerned. It should also be noted ' that while the figures for the Philippines are for 1948,

* Vide - Chart III.

those for Gujarat are recent, i.e. for 1971. The latest figures for the Philippines were not available to the present researcher \odot

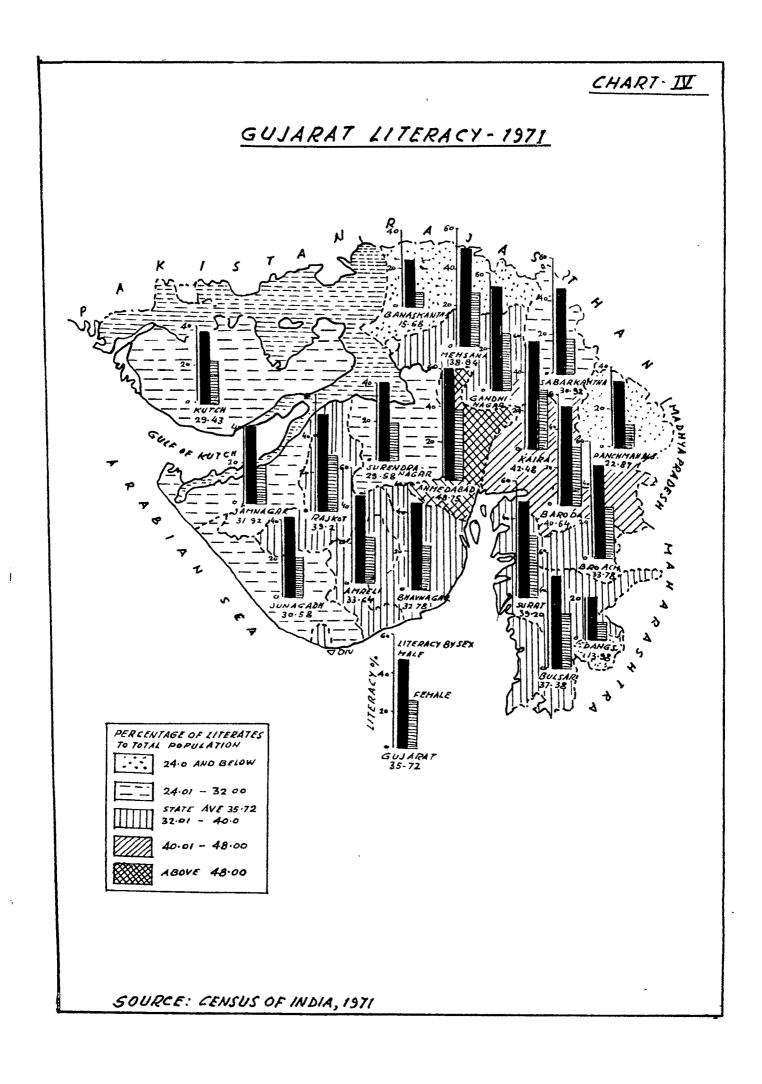
| GUJARAT | | | | PHILIPPINES | | |
|---|--------------------|--|-----|---|--|--|
| | Religious Group | Its %age in the state population | | Religious Its %age in Group the Nation's population | | |
| 1. | Hindu | 89.28 | 1 | • Roman Catholic 82.9 | | |
| 2. | Muslim | 8.48 | 2 | . Philippine | | |
| 3. | Christian | 0.41 | - | Independent Church 7.6 | | |
| 4. | Shikh | 0.07 | N N | . Muslim 4.1 | | |
| 5. | Jain | 1.69 | · 4 | . Protestant 2.3 | | |
| | Buddhist Other | 0.02 | Ц.) | • Pegan and no religion 1.8 | | |
| | religions | 0.11 | 6 | . Iglesia ni Kristo 0.5 | | |
| | | | 7 | . Buddhist 0.2 | | |
| | | <u>.</u> | ε | 8. Other religions 0.6 | | |
| | Total | 100.00 | | Total 100.00 | | |
| Source : Gujarat Census,Source: Carson: op.ci1971.p.21. | | | | | | |

Table 3.1 : Religious Adherents

(d) Language :

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The State language of Gujarat is Gujarati. Around 89 per cent () () of its people, according to the 1971 Census, have their mother-tongue, Gujarati. The other language-groups are : Urdu (2.17 per cent), Kachhi (1.52 per cent), Hindi (1.26 per cent), Marathi (0.97 percent) and other languages (4.72 per cent). In Philippines, aeplethora of languages being spoken - there seems to be many language groups Carson (p.21) refers to 156 subdivisions in the linguistic groups in the Philippines. They are exclusive of those speaking Chinese, Spanish or English languages. The Area Handbook on the Philippines (1956, p.324 and p.339) has shown that 89 per cent of the population of the country could be classified in eight distinct cultural-linguistic groups, viz., (1) Sugbua non (24.7 per cent), (2) Tagalog (19.4 per cent), (3) Hiligaynon (12.3 per cent), (4) Iloko (12.2 per cent), (5) Bikol (7.6 per cent), (6) Samar-Leyte (6.3 per cent), (7) Pampangan (3.3 per cent) and (8) Pangasinan (2.7 percent). The Spanish and English speaking groups in the population constitute 1.2 per cent and 0.1 per cent respectively. About 10.2 per cent speak languages other than the above.



Where there are so many spoken languages, language controversies are bound to arise. This also happened in the Philippines, especially in getting one or the other language recognised as the national language. Efforts were made to press the claim of the Visayan language of the Central Luzon as the national language instead of the Tagalog language. However, the controversies have happily been now cooled off. A language called Philipino is being developed as the national language. It is to be based on Tagalog language. The Institute of National Language has been working in the direction of developing a national language based on Tagalog. The three objectives of the INL as set out in the Annual Report of the Department of Education, Manila (1968-69, p.106) are : (a) development and enrichment of Pilipino, (b) safeguarding the standards used as basis of Pilipino and (c) propagation of Pilipino.

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(e) Literacy :

In Gujarat State, according to the 1971 Census, the percentage of literacy is 35.72. For males, it is 46.17 per cent and for females it is 24.56 per cent. In literacy, the Philippines is far more advanced than Gujarat.

* Vide- Chart-IV.

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Even in 1948, the Census revealed a high literacy per cent for the Philippines of 59.8/ The ratio was 62.8 per cent for males and 56.9 per cent for females. The Presidential Commission to Survey <u>Philippines Education</u> (1969, p.68) refers to 75 per cent literacy achieved at Grade VI level. The following observation from the Report. (p.70) is very much illuminating :

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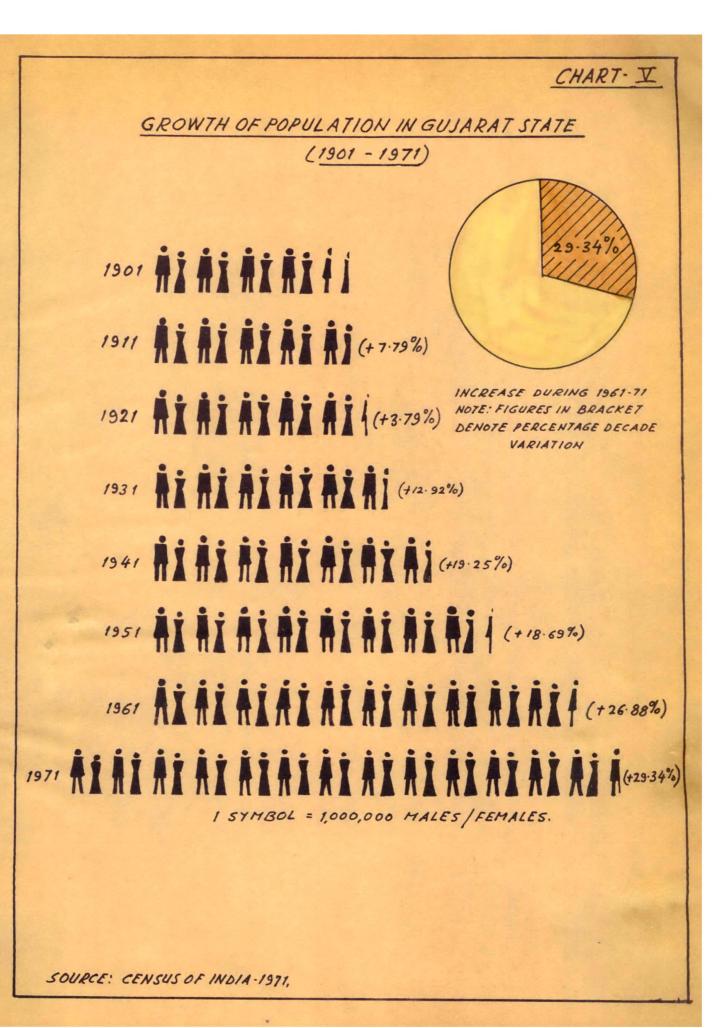
The most benefit from basic education is in increasing one's employment alternatives. Labourers with elementary education are found in all industrial sectors of the economy. About one-half industrial workers have had at least six-years of schooling. Majority (92 per cent) of unpaid family workers on farms and in family enterprises have education below high school. In nonagricultural and wage-salary employment, there is a larger proportion of those with high school and with Grade V and VI education."

The UNESCO document entitled "Long-Term Projections for Education in the Republic of the Philippines (1966, p.9) puts the literacy percentage at 72. It makes two significant observations on the spread and density of illiteracy, viz., (1) the density varies greatly from province to province, from 8.5 per cent in Manila Province to 71.8 per cent in Sulu Province and (2) the disproportion between the number of illiterate males and females was not large as compared with other developing nations and regions.

(f) Demography :

In Gujarat, the sex ratio (the number of females per 1,000 males) is .934. The density of population per k.m. is 136. The urban population of about 7.5 million constitutes 28.08 per cent of the total population of the State whereas the rural population is 19.2 million or 71.92 per cent.

In the Philippines, the average density of population 166. is/However, wide variations exist in distribution.For instance, Rizal Province, which includes the metropolitan 749 area around Manila, has/persons per square mile and the Island of Cebu had 596. The outlying islands like Palawan and the mountaineous and grassy uplands of Bukidnon in Mindanao have quite low density of population - in 1948 it ranged between 18 and 20 per square mile. In 1948, three-fourths of the total population of the country were living in the "<u>barrias</u>" (generally in rural districts outside of cities).



In both the lands, there has been phenomenal explosion of population. In Gujarat State, population has millions increased, between 1901 and 1971 from .903/to around 26.7 million). The annual rate of increase has ranged from 7.49% to 29.34 per cent. The situation has been due to the increasing rate of births and the excess of births over deaths due to improvement, particularly in the post--independence period. in health, sanitation and diet as well as successful control of some deadly diseases like maleria, typhoid, etc. There has been similar population explosion in the Philippines also. Between 1900 and 1948 the annual rate of increase in this country ranged from 2.1 to 3.1 per cent. The population is estimated to have increased from 27.4 million in 1960-61 to 46.2 million in 1975-76. Thus, in both the lands, the problem of rapid rise in the population is real and has been receiving close care and efforts of their respective government.

3.5 THE ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

It is essential to know about the salient features of the economy of a nation or a territory because economic determinants of education are as powerful as its social

^{*} Vide- Chart-V.

and political determinants. This has been particularly the finding in India emerging from the doctoral studies by Shukla (1958), Goel (1968), Patel (1965) and Saini (1975). Recently Chitra Desai's (1976) study on "<u>Girls' Access to School Education in Gujarat State</u>" has reported a similar finding. In developing countries, Dhanwant Desai (1973, p.83) has found a trend to rely on private enterprise to pilot educational expansion programmes.

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Gujarat is predominantly a rural State having agriculture as the main plank of its economy. As indicated earlier, 7 out of every 10 persons in the population of Gujarat live in rural habitations, and 3 in urban towns and cities. From the advent of the present century, a clear trend in urbanisation is evident in Gujarat. The document "<u>Gujarat Through Maps</u>" (1973, p.6) has shown that be tween 1901 and 1971, the urban centres in Gujarat has increased from 166 in 1901 to 216 in 1971. There are now 7 cities in Gujarat which have over 100,000 population. Chitra Desai (pp.396-7) observations in this connection are : (a) during the decade 1961-1971, the growth rate of towns ranged be tween 50.83 and 128.67; (b) the rapid pace of urbanisation has been greatly facilitated by the new and increasing transport facilities developing within and without the State (but which are also inter-connected); (c) in urban and larger villages, families are exposed to more (humanising and liberal influences which are favourable to the spread of education especially among girls and weaker sections of the society; (d) public transport system has tremendously expanded and improved; (e) there is an accelerated pace of industrialisation, trade and commerce; (f) a new middle class has emerged in industrial areas of towns and cities which have perceptible interest in not only educating their children but also educating them well.

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Despite this well come development of urbanisation and industrialisation, the bulk of the population is steeped in poverty. The press in 1960s reported that 48.5 per cent of the State's population lived below the poverty line. Gujarat's <u>Dratt Fourth Plan</u> (1969-1974) reported an increase in per capita from &.313^{*} in 1955-56 to &.365 in 1967-68. The booklet "<u>Statistical Outline of Gujarat</u>, <u>1974</u>" places Gujarat's per capita income for 1971-72 at current prices at &.856 as against &.645 for India.

^{*} The Philippine currency carries the exchange value of <u>one Paiso</u> = B.1.5.

Professor M.B. Desai's (1974.p.7) finding is that only 61 per cent of farmers have 1 and upto 5 acres for cultivation and 40 per cent of all farm households cultivate between 2.5 to 5 acres of unirrigated land. A recent study done at the Sardar Patel Institute of Economic and Social Research at Vidyanagar (Central Gujarat) tends to suggest that the percentage of the population living below the poverty line in Gujarat State has come down from 48.5 in the sixties to 43 per cent. The study strikes an optimistic note that in the next twenty-five years, it would be possible to have in Gujarat State an annual rate of economic growth at 4.16 per cent, and along with equitable distribution of wealth. for which the present 20 Point Programme of betterment of the miserable lot of the masses launched recently by India's Prime Minister Indira Gandhi gives optimistic hopes. it would be possible for Gujarat to reduce the number of people living below the poverty line. The study strikes a still further optimistic note. It observes. "Even without such a distribution, the figure of such poor people would be only 32 lakhs** in the then population which would be double of what it is sto-day."

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* This was reported in the Ahmedabad edition of the English daily <u>Indian Express</u> (Oct.17, 1975).
** One lakh is 100.000.

Some more data about the economic fabric of Gujarat are available. In 1970, according to the "<u>Statistical</u> <u>Outlines of Gujarat</u> (pp.10-11), there were 5,544 working factories which constituted 7.2 per cent of the total factories in India. The productive capital of the State was &.5,690 million which was 6.5 per cent of the productive capital of India. The industrial consumption of generated electricity in Gujarat is 73 per cent as against an average per cent of 67.2 for India. Thus Gujarat has been emerging industrially a significantly active State in recent times. There are 1,320 banking offices of commercial banks. However, the population per bank office continues still to be low - it is 20. The number of Cooperative Societies is 20 with a working capital of 6,730 million.

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In Gujarat the population of economically active workers is around 8.4 million against the population of 18.3 million who which consists of non-workers. Of the total workers, 43.12 per cent ape cultivators, 22.48 percent agricultural labourers, 1.98 per cent workers in forestry, fishing, orchards, etc., 0.41 per cent in mining and quarrying, 9.25 per cent in manufacturing, processing, etc., 1.43 per cent in construction, 6.94 per cent in trade

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and commerce, 2.86 in transport, storage and communications and 7.71 per cent in other services.

One conclusion about the economic conditions in Gujarat which is significant for studies in the sphere of education is that the economic conditions of the people of Gujarat has been improving significantly. This would mean greater spending ability of people to receive more and better education and more willingness on the part of the State to allocate more funds for education.

In 1973-74, according to the latest available educational statistics contained in the mimiographed booklet "<u>Educational Statistics At A Glance,1973</u>", published by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, Gujarat spent &.633.1 million on education. The percapita budgeted expenditure on education in Gujarat worked out to be &.22.6 for 1972-73. The percentage of the budgeted expenditure on education to the total budget of Gujarat State came to be 20.8. This was a little less than the national mean national percentage of 22.7. Thus, today Gujarat spends roughly rupee one, out of every five rupees it budgets for the entire spectrum of expenditure on all heads.

Like Gujarat, the Philippines is also an agricultural country. It appears from available accounts of agriculture in the Philippines that it, too, is still somewhat primitive and less productive 'than it might be, but the degree of mechanisation of agriculture seems to be more achieved in the Philippines than in Gujarat. Some twenty years back, a fifth of the total land area of the country was taken up by farms. They varied from large mechanised plantations in the fertile plains to the scattered and burnt-over clearings oin the hills. Rivers and McMillan (1952, p.19) concluded in/of their studies on the agricultural economy of the Philippines that nearly half of the farms measured less than 4 hectares or 10 acres and only 16 per cent had more than 5 hactares or 12 acres. Spencer's (1954, p.290) finding also is that 40 per cent of the cultivated land is given over to rice production and 16 per cent to maize, which forms the principle article of diet for about 25 per cent of the people, especially in the uplands and in southern islands.

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Thus, the point of weakness in the economy of both the lands is that they depend too largely on agriculture, but even in this Gujarat is more backward and handicapped than the Republic of the Philippines.

The <u>U.S. Economic Survey Mission</u> appointed in 1950 at the request of the President of the Philippines had arrived at a conclusion that "the basic economic problem in the Philippines is inefficient production and low income". A recent study by Professor M.B. Desai (1974) on the Surat district of South Gujarat warrants a similar conclusion about Gujarat.

Economically, the Philippines is recognised, like India, as one of the comparatively underdeveloped areas in the world. But, the hearting fact is that both the lands have in the last 25 years, made remarkable progress in the sphere of industrialisation.

Therefore Reller and Edgar Morphet (1962, p.293) observe that "the per capita income in the. Philippines is higher than that in a number of the other relatively underdeveloped nations, but is below that of countries such as Mexico and Japan and a little less than a fourth of that in England." Even this picture of the per capita income of the Philippines has improved quite significantly. In his <u>Independence Day Address</u> of 1960 the President of the Philippines could proudly claim an increase of 80 per cent in the Gross National Product of the country

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since 1949 and a doubling of agricultural production. He said that mining had trebled its output in 10 years; manufacturing was also producing at three times the pre--war rate. It appears also from some reports that appeared in a leading newspaper of Manila that the capital investment of the country had begun to bear fruit in the Philippines and the structure of the national economy had begun to improve with the manufacturing receiving increased importance. Thus the expansion of the manufacturing industry has been changing the face of the Philippines economy.

The improvement of industrial production is being reflected in the rise of per capita income of the people. The Report of the UNESCO Regional Advisory Team for educational planning in the Philippines in its Report (1965, p.43) observes that "the pre-war <u>per capita</u> income level was regained around 1953-54 and since than the economy has registered a steady growth. The GNP has grown at a rate of over 4 per cent and in some years has exceeded 5 per cent, reaching 5.9 per cent and 7.8 percent respectively in 1955 and 1961. In India as well as in Gujarat, the rate of growth of the GNP is perceptibly

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lower. According to a document of Union Ministry of Education, New Delhi entitled "Education in the Fifth <u>Five Year Plan</u>, 1974-1979 (1972, pp.58-59), the percentage of National income at current prices was 1.2 per cent in 1951, 2.4 per centin 1961 and 3.3 per cent in 1973-74. The improvement of the growth rate of the GNP in the Philippines seems to be largely due to the growth of the manufacturing industries in which was over 10 per cent during the decade 1951-60. By 1963, this sector had become quite significant, accounting for 16.2 per cent of the net national product.

In 1963, the Philippines GNP had grown to P.12,510 million. It was estimated to grow upto P.26,773.6. The UNESCO Regional Advisory Team has observed in its report (1965, p.43) :

"As regards the appropriate assumption for the future rate of growth, past trends indicate that a rate of 5 per cent per annum would be realistic. This rate is lower than the 6 percent rate assumed in the <u>Socio-Economic</u> <u>Development Plan</u>, but after consultations with the officials concerned it becomes clear that the assumption of 6 per cent for the period 1960-80 would be slightly over-optimistic."

Despite a steady improvement in the Philippines GNP revenues, the manpower utilization seems to be low, as in Gujarat State and in India. A recent report of the Presidential Commission on the survey of the Philippines education, entitled "Education for National Development: New Patterns, New Directions" (1969, pp.36-37) placed the stock of manpower in the population 14 to 65 at 17.6 million. The degree of utilization measured as ratio of employed to stock of manpower came to be in 1969 around 52 per cent. This was judged by the Commission to be "fairly low". One reason for this fact pointed out by the Commission was the increase in the rate of growth experienced in the 1950's which has been having its impact on manpower in the later part of the 1960's and 1970's. In Gujarat, too, the rapid rise in the population has been having similar hampering effect on the Growth of State's economy. The Approach Paper on the Fifth Plan (1974-1979) of the Gujarat State underlines (p.5) the urgency of the need of "reducing the growth rate from the present level of 2.9 per cent to 1.6 percent in the year 1984." Thus, in the case of both the lands, the population explosion is one of the most formidable of social and economic problems.

THE UNESCO studied in 1970 sectorial structure of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of some selected countries. India and Philippines were among these countries. The findings are tabulated below which would show clearly that between 1950 and 1968, the average rate of growth of per-capita GDP was significantly higher in the Philippines than in India. Available data would warrant a conclusion that what was true of India was also largely true of Gujarat State.

| | Agricul ture | - Indu- stry | Servi- ces | Production of commodi- ties | |
|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|----------|
| India | | | | | |
| 1950-52 | 53.2 | 20.1 | 26.6 | 73.4 | 46.7 |
| 1965 -6 7 | 43.2 | 23.3 | 33.5 | 66.5 | 56.8 |
| | -12.0 | + 3.2 | + 6.9 | - 6.9 | +10.1 |
| Avera | ge Annua | l Rate o | of Growth | Per Capita P | roduct: |
| Philippines | | ` | | • | ` |
| 1949-51 | 36.5 | 21.8 | 41.7 | 58.3 | 63.5 |
| 1966 -6 8 | 30.8 | 22.9 | 46.3 | 53.7 | 69.2 |
| | - 5.7 | + 1.1 | + 4.6 | - 4.6 | + 5.7 |
| Avera | ge Annua | lRate of | f Growth | Per Capita Pr | oduct: 2 |

Table 3.2 : Sectoral Structure of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for India and Philippines

Region, Bangkok, 1970.

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It would, thus, be seen that economic conditions in the Philippines are mass better than in Gujarat, though both the lands are still in the developing stage. It is, perhaps, because of a perceptible part in the rate of economic growth since 1952-53 that the Philippines has been able to budget a high proportion of its current expenditure to expenditure on education. The UNESCO report of its Advisory Team on Educational Planning in Asian Countries (1965, p.50) shows that between 1955 and 1963, the percentage of educational expenditure on total. current expenditure of the Philippines ranged from 31.05 per cent in 1955 to 32.05 per cent in 1963. The Annual Report of the Philippines Education Department, Manila for 1968-69 (pp.7-8) states that "the actual disbursement budget" of the Department of Education amounted to around P.762.5 million which came to be 25.32 per cent of the national budget. It is this welcome tradition of giving education its rightful due has constituted a welcome trend in the financing of education in the Philippines. This may probably be due to the impact of the American influence which has always been liberal so far as allocation of money for education is concerned. Gujarat, and as a matter of fact India, had the British tradition of

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stringent allocation of funds for education and in case of economic difficulties, the axe of economy has almost always fallen on education. This is an instance of cultural difference in attitude towards education.

3.6 THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

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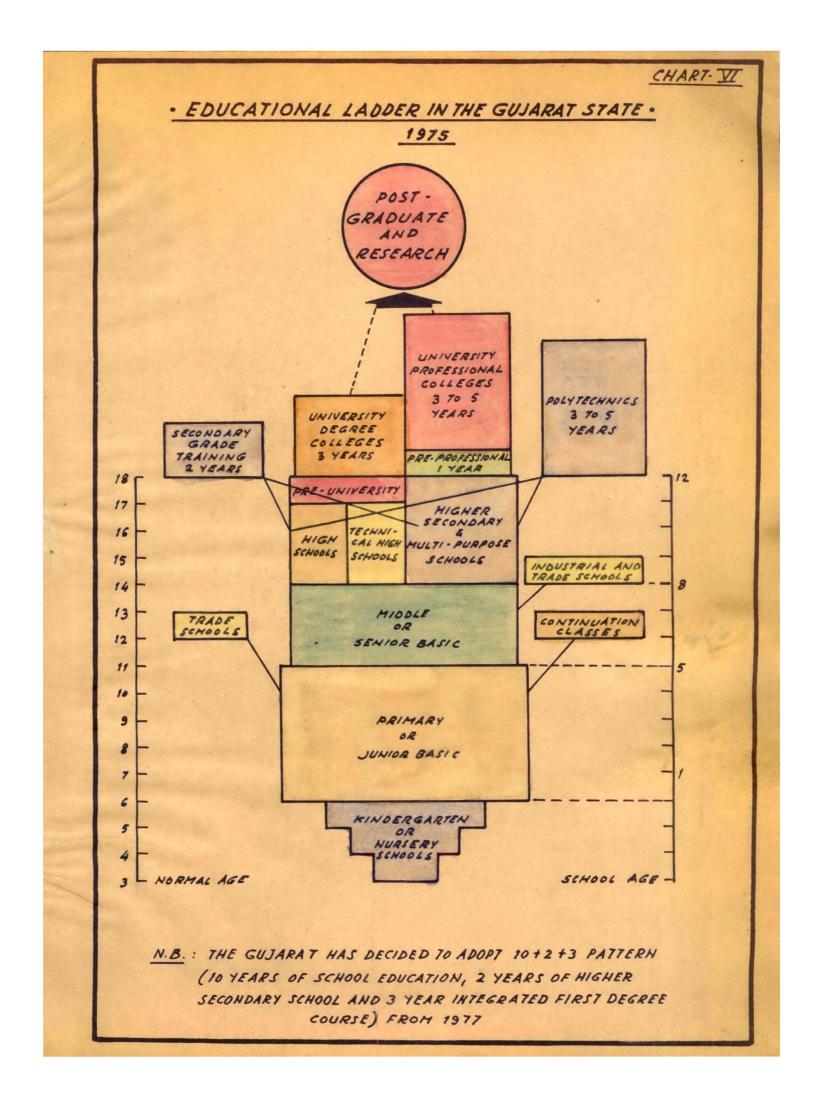
So far an attempt has been made to describe and interpret such aspects of the demographic social and economic aspects of Gujarat and the Philippines which have an important bearing on the development of education in them. In fact the educational system and the educational programme of a nation are largely architectured and built up by the interacting and intertwing complex of the demographical, political, social, religious and cultural forces that operate in a land. A proper understanding of an educational system and the programme is difficult without reference to these determinants of education.

The present educational system of Gujarat is, by and large, the outcome of the administration of education in the Bombay Province (of which some parts of Gujarat constituted British districts) between 1818 and 1947. India became politically free from the British rule 1 on 15th August 1947. The educational system that came to be built up in Gujarat after 1947 and upto April 30, 1960 was an integral part of the educational system built up in the bilingual Bombay State - the two linguistic constituents of which one was Gujarat and the other was Maharashtra. Gujarat was made a separate federal State of the Indian Union from 1st May 1960 by an Act of the Indian Parliament. The present educational system in Gujarat State is largely built up on the British set-up inherited by the Bombay State in 1947, but it has been considerably strengthened, enriched and expanded, as observed by Desai (1967, p.7) as a result of the efforts of firstly of the former Bombay Government, then of the Government of Gujarat, under the leadership role performed by Government of India and its coordinating impact.

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The chart VI given on the next page shows the educational leader or structure of education in Gujarat State.

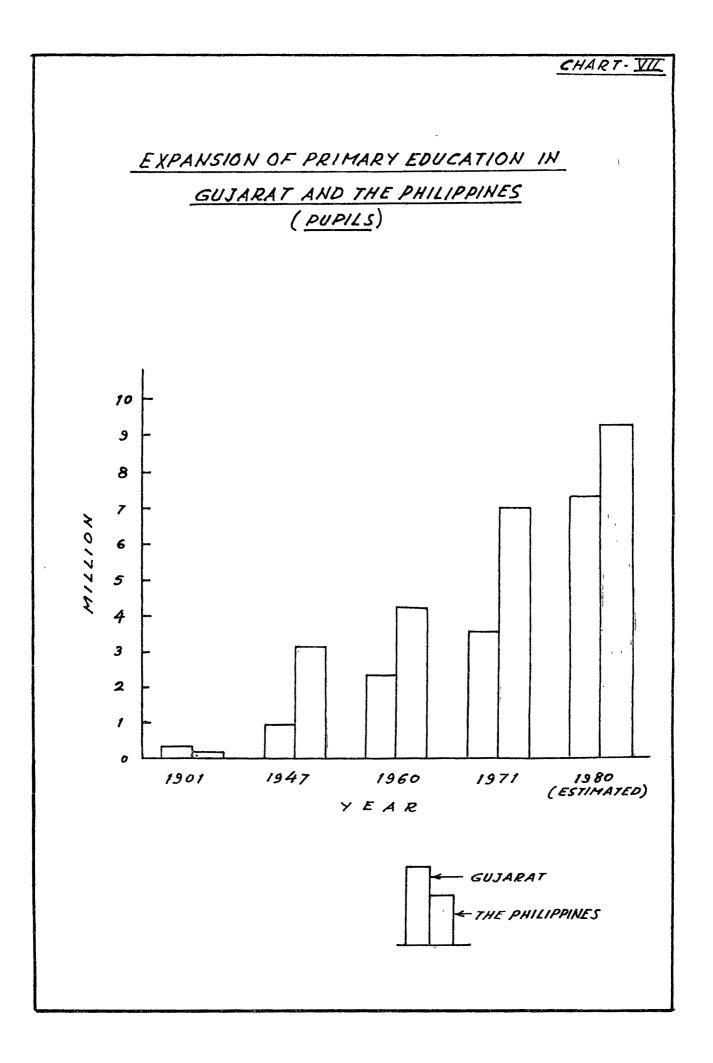
The period between the age 3 and the age 6 is the period of pre-school education. It is operated purely on voluntary level. The State has not accepted any responsibility for the pre-school education which is known by different names such as Balmandir, Nursery classes, Kinder-

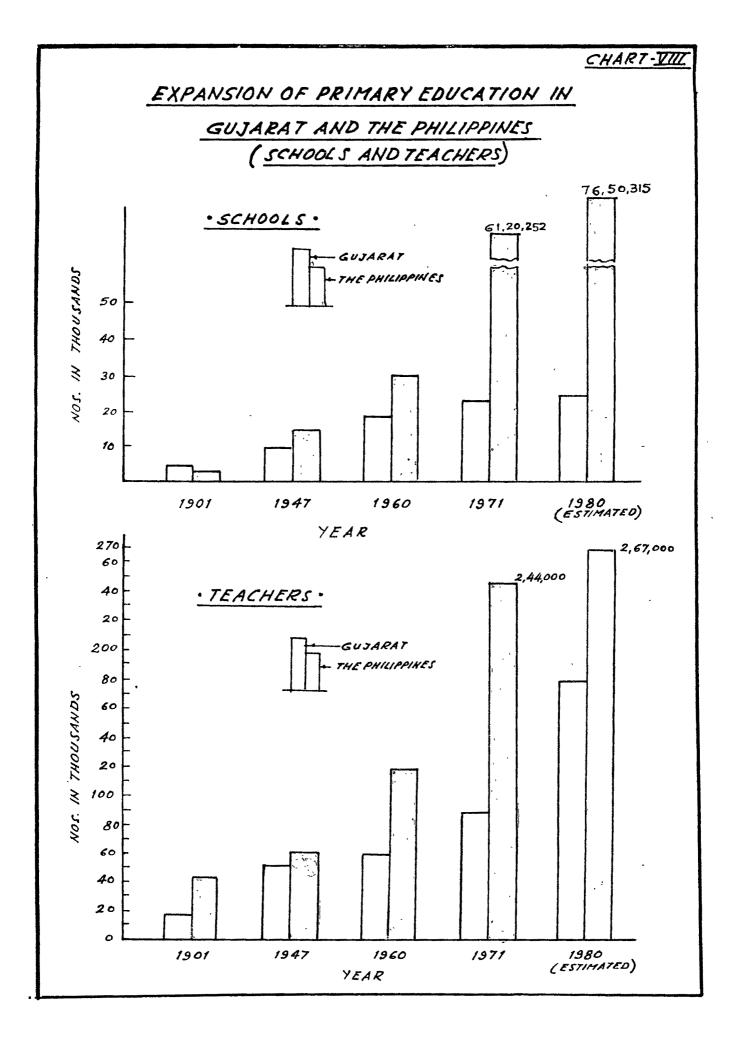


Garten Classes, Montessory Classes. These institutions are to be largely found in cities - their cluster is the highest in the metropolitan cities of Ahmedabad, Vadodara, Surat and Rajkot. Quite a number of them are unrecognised and even unregistered in the Government Education Department. The State Department of Education has laid down rules for the area, building, teachers, equipment etc., for the pre-primary schools,/it is doubtful, as observed by Desai and Patel (1974, p. 39), whether the Education Department is sufficiently vigilant about them. The State Department of Education has developed a teacher education programme for the teachers of the pre-schools and few teacher training institutions also prepare teachers to work in school at this level. However, it cannot be said that all pre-school level educational institutions have well qualified and training staff. Some universities of Gujarat like the M.S. University of Baroda offers programmes of preparing teachers to work in kinder Garten schools. The Faculty of Education and Psychology of the University offers an under-graduate teacher education programme for persons intending to work as teachers in pre-school institutions and the Ghild Development Department of the Faculty of Home Science offers a post-graduate diploma course in nursery school education.

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primary

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The school stage in Gujarat begins at the age of 6. The classes I to VII are primary classes. In India, education is compulsory and free in the age-group 6-14. In Gujarat, too, primary education is made compulsory and free in the age-group 6-14 under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, and the Gujarat Compulsory Primary Education Act 1960. Classes I to IV of the primary school are called <u>lower primary</u> and classes V to VII constitute upper primary school.

The Table 3.3 given on the next page gives some vital statistics of education in Gujarat State for the year 1972-73. It would be seen that Gujarat State has been able to achieve almost cent per cent universal school provision. The goal of universal primary education has not been achieved so far. Only/per cent of children of the age-group 6-14 and 44.0 per cent in the age-group 11-14 are enrolled in primary schools. In 1972-73, according to the Annual Progress Report of the Directorate of Education of the State, there were around 3.8 million children studying in the State's total 22,000 primary schools. Primary teachers numbered 1,03,416. However, the percentage of drop-out is, as reported in the Gujarat's

* Please refer also to chart VII.

| | (Primary education: | Second Level (Secondary Education: Grades VIII-XI | Third Leve (Graduation & H Grade Studies) | 20st+c |
|--|--|--|--|---|
| .Institutions | - | - | 1.Universities: | 6 |
| (a) Govt. (b) Panchayat - (Local Bodies) | 21,592 : 0.98% 96.42% | 2,382 3.19 % 8.90 % | 2.(a)Research Instituti- ons (b)Students | 10 284 |
| (c) Private | 3.50% | 87.91 % | 3.(a)Arts & Sc. Colleges | 248 |
| 2.Enrolment (a) Boys (b) Girls 5.Teachers (a) Men (b) Women (c) Untrained 5.Educational Expenditure (Million Rupees) | 3.59 millio 64.29% 35.71% 98,015 65.46% 34.54% 8.27% 265.49 | n 8.22 lakhs 87.20% 12.80% 29,229 79.87% 20.13% 15.60% 184.43 | <pre>(b)Enrolment Females 4.(a)Profes- sional colleges (b)Students 5.(a)Special Education Colleges (b)Students 6.Expenditure Bs.</pre> | 1.02 lakhs 34.49 101 53,20 5 642 111.3 |
| 5.Teachers' Colleges (a) Trainees (b) Female trainees | 63 7.211 43.9% | 33 4,260 35.1% | Fee Income | 45.0% |

Table - 3.3 Some Latest Available Statistics of Education (Gujarat State) (1972)

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Source: Annual Report of State, 1971-72.

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Draft Fifth Five Year Plan as high as about 60 at the lower primary school stage and 45 are at the higher primary school stage. The teacher-pupil ratio is around 1:37. The total stock of 1,03,416 primary school teachers include 35,822 or 34.6 per cent women teachers. The percentage of trained, primary teachers in the State total teachers are /come out to be around 90 per cent, though there/marked district-wise variations. Under the Gujarat Panchayat Act of 1960, * the responsibility of administering primary education in rural areas is given to the District Panchayat in every district and in urban area to <u>Nagar Panchayat</u> ...e. the City Council. At the primary school level, the role of the voluntary agencies or the private enterprise is quite low - it is to the extent of 3.5 per cent.

The age-group 14-17 is for the secondary school. Upto 1975, Classes VIII to XI constituted high school or secondary education stage. In that year the Government of Gujarat has taken a policy decision to adopt the 10+2+3 pattern of education. According to this pattern, the first ten years

^{*} The Panchayati Raj or the Panchayat System constitutes an experiment in democratic decentralised administration. It functions at three levels: (a) the basic level or tier is the Gram or the village; (b) the taluka is the intermediate tier above the village level (A taluka is a complex of number of villages); and (c) the top-most tier is the Jilla Parishad or the District Panchayats. In Gujarat State, there are 19 District Panchayats, taluka panchayats and village panchayats.

of child's schooling will constitute school education, 11 and 12 years or classes be Higher Secondary School Stage, and the first degree programme offered in colleges and university departments will be of three years after the conclusion of one's studies at the Higher Secondary School. In 1975, there were around 2,500 secondary schools in Gujarat. From 1976 the new type of Higher Secondary Schools will come into existence. The Government, however. seems to have a plan to set up around 200 to 250. Higher Secondary Schools only at places which have resources or potentiality for setting up such new type of institutions and running them without their being too heavy a burden on the State Government, In 1973, 26.4 per cent of boys and girls belonging to the age-group 14-17 were receiving secondary education in Gujarat. The actual enrolment of pupils in the secondary schools was around 848,000. The teachers numbered 31,271, of which 6,455 were women. At the end of the Secondary Stage, i.e. after instruction in Class XI. the Gujarat Secondary School Examination Board conducts the S.S.C. Examination and awards the successful students the S.S.C. Examination Certificate. Around 200,000 students appear at this examination, of which between 50 and 55 per cent pass. From 1977, the Gujarat Secondary

Education Board will conduct the S.S.C. Examination at the end of Grade X and the Higher Secondary School Certificate Examination at the end of Grade XII. This secondary schooling is largely academic. Vocationalisation has been effected to the extent of 20 per cent. But, as the Draft Fifth Five Year Plan of the Gujarat Government has stated that the Government intends to provide every year increasing number of vocational courses. The Kothari Education Commission, 1964-66 (para 2.28) has recommended an expansion of the Secondary School Courses "to cover about half the total enrolment at this stage." Actually, the State Department of Education had published in March 1975 a chart which indicated diverse streams of vocationalising and polytechnising higher secondary school courses taking an impulse from the Kothari Commission's recommendation, viz., a large variety of terminal courses should be organized varying in duration from one to three years.

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"They will include courses for the training of primary and pre-primary teachers; courses conducted by the industrial training institutions for a large number of trades for which the completion of studies in Class X is the minimum qualifications; courses in agriculture and industry which will train the middle level of personnel needed; courses for training para-medical health personnel; courses for secretariat work; and courses that will make secondary education mainly terminal." (Report, 1966, para 2.28)

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> At present, the students enter colleges or universities after passing the S.S.C. Examination at the end of Grade XI. At the University stage, the first degree programme is three years followed by a two year post--graduate programme and then another two additional years for doctoral degree which is, in most academic disciplines, is a research degree on the British Ph.D. degree model. Till recently, colleges and universities in Gujarat conduct Pre-University Class in Arts, Science and Commerce as a temporary measure till higher secondary schools are established in the State.

In Gujarat State, besides the six universities to which a reference was made earlier, there are **state** other two universities, one of which is the Agricultural University and the other is the Aurvedic University of Indian Science of medicine. There are, according to the 1973 statistics for education, 158 Arts and Science Colleges,

42 Commerce Colleges, 7 colleges of engineering and technology besides 39 undergraduate institutions, 18 undergraduate, degree and post-graduate medical colleges, 2 graduate colleges of physical education along with 6 under-graduate colleges in the same field, 40 colleges of education for secondary school teachers and 65 primary teachers' training colleges. Around 244 thousand students are enrolled in institutions of higher learning, of which around 22 per cent are in pre-university classes, 70 percent are in colleges of Arts, Science and Commerce and the remaining 8 per cent are distributed over disciplines of engineering and technology, medicine, education and others. DUDING In the period between 1961 and 1973, the institutions of higher education increased at very fast rate from 101 in 1961 to 305 in 1973 and the enrolment swelled from 50 thousand in 1961 to 144 thousand in 1973.

Some other aspects of the educational system of Gujarat State deserve notice. They would include the following :

 (a) The Education Minister and Deputy Education Minister are popularly/elected persons belonging to the political party in majority in the State Legislature;

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(b) The Secretariat in Education 'is a policy-making wing of the Education Department and the Directorate of Education as its Executive Wing, both being headed by persons belonging to the Cadre of Indian Administrative Service (The IAS);

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- (c) district, an administrative division of the State,
 is a basic unit of administration;
- (d) The three tire democratic decentralised administration of primary education at district level is : (1) the village Panchayat, (ii) the taluka (a sub-division of a district) panchayat and (iii) the Education Committee of District Education in rural areas and Municipal Education Committees in urban areas;
- (e) educational administration having quite strong
 elements of bureaucrats; however, they have been
 gradually becoming more responsive to the people;
- (f) the dominant role of the private enterprise has been firmly rooted at the levels of secondary and collegiate education;
- (g) primary and secondary education is free of tuition cost;

 (h) educational concessions and scholarships are provided to certain categories of economically handicapped parents;

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- (i) almost an 'open-door' policy of admission is operating in school and university education;
- (j) education at all stages has been now spreading to the masses even higher education has becoming mass education;
- (k) women's enrolment in educational institutions has been steadily improving; 69.4 per cent in age-group 6-11, 31.3 per cent in the age-group 11-14, and 18.2 per-cent in the age-group 14-17;
- (1) increased enrolment of children of the Scheduled
 Castes (6-11 age-group 92.00 per cent, 11-14 age-group 18.2%
 45.9 per cent age-group 14-11/2 and of Scheduled Tribes
 (6-11 age-group 56.0 per cent, 11-14 age-group 17.4
 per cent and 14-17 age-group 5.8 per cent).

In brief, it may be observed that the educational system in Gujarat has become more responsive to the educational needs of rural areas, and weaker sections of the society and is geared to the steady improvement of quality of education, expansion of vocationalising secondary and post-secondary education, modernisation of school and college curricula and programmes and the diffusion of innovation and change. At the school level, however, it faces two twin gigantic problems of stagnation and wastage.

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As compared to Gujarat State, the exogenous influence of reorienting and shaping the educational system in the Inan Philippines began earlier with the advent of the Spaniards in the islands in sometime in 1565. Aldana (1949, p.2) has shown how the control and supervision of the education of the people of the Philippines was almost completely taken over by the Catholic Church during the Spanish regime. The educational system that developed during the Spanish regime developed three major focal points: (1) spread/the Christian Doctrine, (ii) spread of literacy. as Aldana (p.3) observes "in the Spanish way, forgetting their native cumbersome characters; and (iii) the products of native clerks. printers and even officials. Pathak (1952), Rajgor (1958), Neela Shelat (1964), Vinod Patel (1975), Punambhai Patel (1975) and recently Chitra Desai (1976) have identified similar trend of ideology and motives

in the role of the Christian Missions in assuming a leadership role in the spread of western type of education among the masses of Gujarat when the British regime began in 1818. One dominant characteristic of the educational system in the Philippines, as it developed during the Spanish regime, was the importance attached to higher instruction. Aldana's interpretation is that education in the Philippines started with higher education - it started from the top rather than from the bottom. The Spanish rule lasted for over three centuries. During that regime schools and institutions of higher instruction largely came to be established under State patronage or blessings. The principle agency was the Christian Missions, particularly the Jesuit and Dominican orders. The educational system that developed was predominantly for the upper classes, and the aims of secondary and higher education were largely determined by the aristrocratic ideal of the function of the society, viz., social refinement and distinction were the ends emphasised in education. According to Aldana (p.4), primary schools came into existence only after 1803. These schools offered largely a curriculum consisting of reading, writing, arithmetic, music, religion

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department and some vocational training particularly for the lower classes. The Royal Decree of 1863 of the Spanish Government of the Philippines. as observed by Alzona (p.172), provided, among other things, that there should be one male and one female teacher for every 5,000 inhabitants. The Report of the Philippines Commission, 1899-1900 (Part III, p.38) has shown that a typical municipal school was housed in a temporary building, constructed largely by forced labour, where the teacher usually lived. Thus, school buildings were of poor quality. However, teachers enjoyed high status. Sancho Paulino (1939, p.186) mentions that the teacher occupied a position of distinction in the town and was considered second in rank only to the parish priest in the social scale, especially if he spoke Spanish. Another contribution of the Spanish regime to the development of the educational system of the Philippines was the provision of the institution of the normal school for men, which to use the words employed in the Royal decree, was intended "to serve as a source of supply for religious, moral, and educated teachers to take charge of native schools or primary instruction."

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The Spanish rule over the Philippines came to an end in 1899. Under the Treaty of Paris, the Spaniards

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surrendered sovereignity over the Philippines Islands to the United States of America. But the change over of government from the Spanish to the Americans was not a smooth affair. Some conflicts almost war-like developed between Filipino leaders and the American military administration. Almost a war broke out between the Filipino national leaders and the Americans between 1899 and 1902. The Filipino revolution was, however, crushed ultimately by the Americans. But, as Devi Mirchandani (1951, p.9) observes, even before the Filipinos were completely subdued, the American authorities had started reorganising the system of government and education in the Philippines. Development of a good and efficient government, as far as possible based on the broad basis of the Filipinos' will became the basis of the enlightened American policy in the Philippines. This was in a sharp contrast to the policy of bureaucracy, autocracy and flouting of the people's will pursued by the British in India.

The American rule over the Philippines lasted roughly for about half a century - specifically between 1898 and 1945. The Americans did a lot of good to the people of the colonised country. They succeeded in developing a fairly efficient and effective system of education which has been providing a good base for development after it became independent. Some of the salient features of the system of education established by the Americans in the Philippines are briefly indicated below :

- (a) Organisation of the Department of Education with its
 well Structured Beuros;
- (b) Construction of adequate and sanitary school buildings;
- (c) Establishment of provincial normal schools for the training of elementary school teachers not only in subject-matter but also in modern methods of teaching;
- (d) Organization of the public school system;
- (e) Revision of courses of instruction and systematiza tion of industrial instruction and vocational training;
- (f) Preparation and adaption of textbooks;
- (g) The Philippines serving as a laboratory for educational experiments based on American ideals and institutions;
- (h) Expansion and reconstruction of education based on educational surveys.

General Emilio Aguinaldo (1957, p.255) evaluated the contribution of the Americans in these words: "Taking the American mistakes together with the impressive accomplishments, America's record stands out as an example of international magnamity."

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From a number of studies on the administration of education in the Philippines under the American regime a picture of the achievements of the new system emerges fairly clear to. These studies include studies by Paul Monroe (1925), Aldona (1936, 1949, 1956), Alzona (1940), Antonio Isidro (1949), Devi Mirchandani (1951), Morrison, Guiang and Yanson (1953), ICA and NCC (1961), Theodore Reller and Edgar Morphet (1962), Arthur Carson (1961) and others. Their consolidated conclusions are : Firstly, a government department of education was organised and put under the direction of professional schoolmen; secondly, the Public School System was used to develop the country into a representative democracy; thirdly, a unification of the people of the different regions into a single body politic was attempted by providing a common curriculum language; fourthly, development of and textbooks though their base was supplied by the United States,

yet they were considerably modified to suit local needs and conditions; fifthly, the inclusion of the industrial instruction in the programme of studies and almost universalisation of vocational education and home-economic at the elementary grades level; sixth(y), training of personnel for the government service; seventhly, a fairly well effective organization of the professional preparation of school teachers; and lastly, fast rate of growth of literacy of both men and women.*

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The American administration made it a policy to impart all instruction in the English language. This reflects the political motive of the colonial power. It manifested both in India and in the Philippines, though the colomising countries were different. To implement this bold design, the American government in the Philippines brought from the U.S.A. over 1,000 experienced English educated teachers to augment the teaching force of the/Filipinos who had begun to be available in the islands. Thus, the enterprise of teaching on new lines was made a co-operative one right from the beginning. The private enterprise in education was also given all incentives and help to

^{*} By the end of the American rule in the Philippines in 1946, the *Mage* of literacy for the population 10 years of age or over had risen to 59.8, males 62.8 percent, females 56.9 per cent.

develop, but as it happened in India, provision was also made by the alien government for the direction, control and supervision of private educational institutions. The motive behind allowing the private enterprise in education to grow was to lighten financial burden on Government as the demand for public elementary education had begun to grow fast during the Américan regime, and the government could not allocate adequate funds to meet this demand. Carson (1962, p.41) observes that it was because of the financial difficulties, that of the Education Department of the Philippines was forced to omit the seventh grade at the end of the elementary school education stage and to introduce "the double single-session" into many of the schools which was not considered desirable of from the maintenance/quality of education. The interest in the pre-school education had also come to be limited to private institutions.

For a short period, i.e. between 1942 and 1944, the Bhilippines came under the military occupation by Japan. did not But the Japanese administration of education/leave any appreciable impact on the educational system of the Philippines.

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The Philippines became an independent country - a Republic on July 4, 1946. Hartendrop (1956) gives the following statistics for education in the Philippines for the period 1945-1954.

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Table 3.4 : Growth of Education in the Philippines during the First Decade after the Attainment of Independence (1945-1954)

| Stage of education | Institutions | Students | Teachers |
|--------------------|--------------|-----------|----------|
| Elementary | 13,396 | 2,387,513 | 43,319 |
| Secondary | 151 | 112,687 | 3,507 |
| Collegiate | 5 | 1,664 | 38 |

In the course of the last twenty years, education however, in the Philippines has,/expanded and developed much more in quantum and in quality than in the past. The chart given on the next page shows the organization of the current educational system, and the Table 3.5 gives the latest available vital educational statistics of the Republic.^{*}

* Please also refer to Chart VIII.

| Table 3.5 | 2.5. : Some Late | st | Available Vital Statist | ics of Educat | Statistics of Education (the Philippines) |
|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|--|
| | | | (1970) | | |
| | First Level (Primary education) | | Second Level (Secondary education) | Third Level (Higher Education) | |
| 1. Grades and Age-group | I-VI 7-12 yrs. | General VII-X 13-16 yrs. | | I | Population (1974) : 43.90 millions Average annual rate |
| 2.(a)Enrolment | 6,969,000 | 1,621,000 | 98,366 | 757,613 | of increase (1970-74): 3.6 |
| (b)Percentage females. | 48 | 50 | 38 | 56 | Population (age-group) (5-14) 27.9% |
| 3. (a)Teaching staff | 243,821 | 46,689 | N.A. | 32,454 | |
| (b)Percentage females | 81 | 69 | и. | 51 | |
| 4. Pupil Teacher | | | ۵ | | rercentage of population of receiving education: |
| Ratio | 29 | 35 | . N.A. | Ĩ | 5.24 : 52.1 |
| 5. Enrolment Ratio | 1 09 | 46 | 49 per 1 tion. | 2,056 1 lakh popula- n. | L- Retention (Grade I-VI): 89% (20 mol) |
| 6. Average annual rate of increase in enrolment since 1960 | e 5.2 | 10.3 | ۲ . ۲. ۵ | · 6•1 | 90 female) 90 female) Transition ratio(first and second level): Male : 66 Temale : 63 |
| Source : UNESCO Regional Bangkok, 1975. | Of fl ce | for Education | in Asia : Progress | ess of Education | in the Asian Regi |

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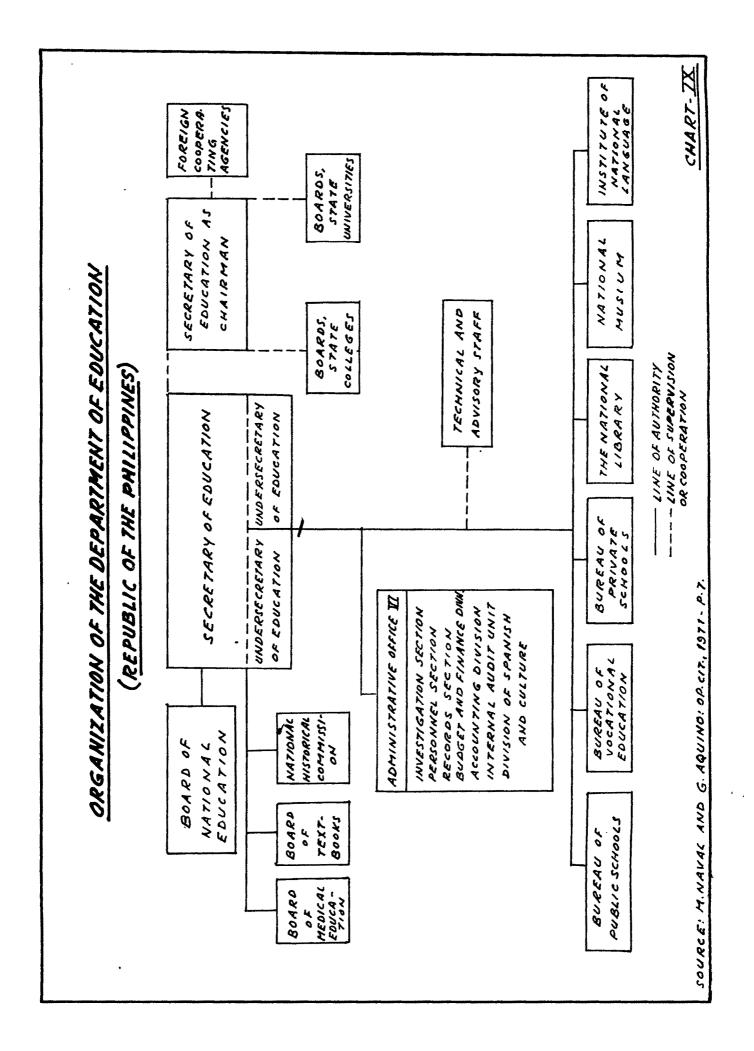
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Some facts of the administration of education and the current educational system deserve to be noted for a better clarify of them. For the purpose of administration, the entire area of the Philippines is divided in to Provinces and Chartered Cities. According to a UNESCO Report (1970, p.88) there are 80 Provinces, 30 chartered cities, 1,409 towns and 31,432 barrios. Provinces are made up of municipalities each with a principal town or "poblaction". There are also "barrios". Carson (1962, p.27) gives the following description of barrios :

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"The area of municipality outside of the poblacion is divided into "barrios" which are geographical districts and quite different from the compact villages that characterize so much of Asia."

One characteristic) of the educational administration in the Republic of the Philippines which engages one's attention is its highly centralised character. It has the Board of National Education which is the highest policy-making educational body in the country. But it has a Department of Education also. It is located in Manila. It is this department which is responsible for the implementation of the educational policies archi-

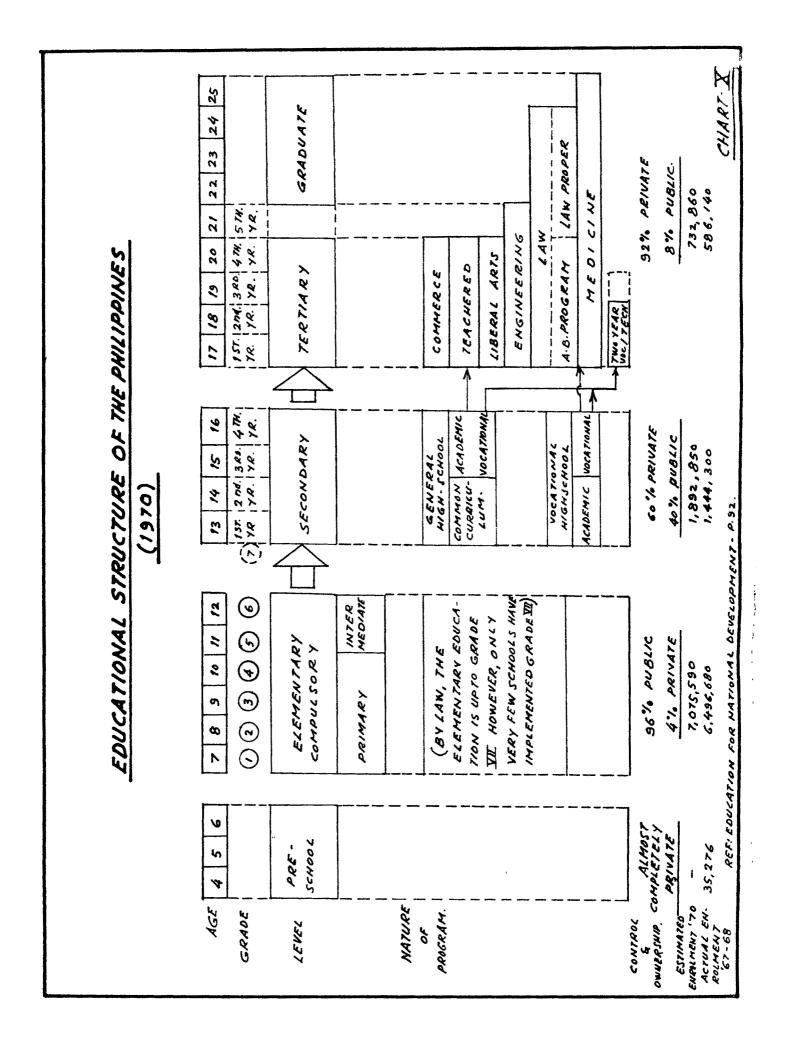
* The organisation of the Department of Education of the Philippines is given in Chart IX.

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techered by the Board of National Education. In Gujarat State, these functions are discharged by the Secretariat and Directorate of Education respectively. In the Philippines, unlike in Gujarat State, the Secretary of Education, who is the head of the Department, is the ex-officio Chairman of the Board. The Departments of Education in both the lands control and supervise their respective public school education system. In the Philippines, the State chartered universities and colleges are governed by the Board of Trustees where the Secretary of Education acts as Chairman of the Board. In Gujarat State, universities largely enjoy autonomy.

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In Gujarat State, the educational administration at the district level or the local education level is decentralised and is carried on by the Panchayati Raj bodies which are independent local self-government bodies. This is not the case in the Philippines. Local educational administration is carried out by Provincial Superintendents (Divisional Superintendents) or City Superintendents and the staff are national government officials representing the Department of Education.



The duration of public elementary education in the Republic of Philippines is six years. It is the compulsory education stage. Elementary schools are usually of two types, viz., (1) 4-year primary schools and (2) 2-year intermediate schools. The Report of the UNESCO Regional Advisory Team for Educational Planning (1965, p.1) observe that a primary school exists in most of the barrios with grades I to IV, and an elementary school of six years covering both primary and intermediate grades is to be found in every central barrio. The Report adds that it is usual for those who complete Grade IV of a school in a barrio to continue their education in Grade V of a Central elementary school. Elementary education is free. Not only that, free textbooks are also provided to pupils at this stage. At the level of intermediate school education, there are agricultural or farm schools. But they exist in negligible numbers. The elementary schools in the country are all maintained by the National Government. through its Department of Education. The elementary schools are largely public, and the role of the private enterprise at this stage is negligible. The expansion of elementary education at the compulsory stage has been much more faster in the Philippines than in Gujarat State.

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> * The educational structure of the Philippines is shown in Chart X.

In Gujarat State even in 1973, the enrolment in the around 80 four-year primary school was / per cent; in the Philippines according to the document "Education for National <u>Development</u>" (1969, p.34), the participation rate of population of 7-12 year school children was 99.3 per cent in 1962-63 and 104.2 per cent in 1963-64. The survival rates show that in 1966-67, of those who enrol in Grade I, 55.8 per cent reach grade VI; in Gujarat the rate of drop-out is 22 per cent.at the end of grade VII.

In the Philippines, the duration of secondary school is four years. These schools are of two categories, viz., general education or academic type of schools and the vocational schools. Vocational schools are sub-divided into Arts and Trades, Agriculture and Fishery. The vocational schools are mainly supported by national funds. One feature of the high schools in the Philippines is noted and it is the Barrio High School Movement. It seems to have begun in early 1960s. According to the Annual Report of the Education Department (1969, p.32), the number of Barrio High Schools which was only 4 in 1964 increased to more than 1,800 in 1969 and the enrolment from 350 in 1964-65 to 118,193 in 1968-69. This Barrio

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High School Movement has afforded rural folks an opportunity to get secondary education. In 1960-61, the percentage of enrolment of school children of the agegroup 13-16 was 26.6. According to the official document "Educational for National Development" (op.cit., p.34), the participation rate in this age-group increased to 35.4 per cent in 1964-65, and it is estimated that the enrolment in Secondary Schools (General) will be 61.4 per cent and in Secondary Schools (Vocational), it will in 1975-76 be 6.0 per cent/. At the Secondary Stage, in 1969, the private enterprise was to the extent of 64 per cent and public enterprise was 36 per cent. It is also envisaged to make the secondary school course of five years. The Presidential Commission of 1969 (p.75) had recommended five years of secondary schools and diversification in the fourth and the fifth year.

Higher education in the Philippines is imparted in colleges and universities. The three important Bureaus of the Department of Education, viz., of Public Schools, Vocational Education and Private Schools are connected with the programmes of higher education. Unlike in Gujarat, the word 'school' is used in the Philippines in the larger

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> sense of an 'educational institution' of both school and college type.Therefore, all the three Bureaus have under their charge at least some institutions of higher education.For instance, the Annual Report of the Education Department, Manila for 1968-69 (p.13) gives the following statistics describing them as also "<u>school enrolment</u>".

Table 3.7 : Enrolment in Institutions of Higher Education, 1968.

| . C | ollegiate | Graduate |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| Public Schools | | |
| - Bu.of Pub.Schools | 8,830 | 66 |
| - Bu.of Voc.Schools | 9,070 | |
| - State Univ. and . colleges | 42,016 | 2,080 |
| Total | 59,916 | 2,146 |
| Private Schools | 531,302 | 8,176 |
| lotal Public and Private Schools | 591,218 | 10,322 |
| Percent Enrolled : | | , |
| -Public Schools | 10.13 | . 20.79 |
| -Private Schools | 89.87 | 79.21 |
| Total | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| Per cent | | |
| -Public Schools -Private Schools | 0.89 31.67 | 0.03 0.49 |
| Total | 7.03 | 0.12 |

Source : Department of Education: <u>Annual Report</u> : 1968-69, Manila, p.13.

The latest statistics for 1975-76 on higher education are given in the form of estimation, and they have been taken from the <u>Report of the UNESCO Regional Advisory</u> <u>Team</u> (The Philippines, 1965, p.57). They are tabulated below :

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| | Age-group (in '000) | Enrolled (in '000) | Per cent Enrolled |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| Undergraduate (General) | 3,555 | 101.8 | 2.9 |
| Undergraduate (Prof. Voc.) | 3,555 | 459•4 | 12.9 |
| Graduate (General) | 1,638 | 12.6 | 0.8 |
| Graduate (Prof.Voc.) | 1,638 | 28.1 | 1.7 |

<u>Table 3.8</u> : <u>Projected Enrolment in Higher Education</u> in the Philippines-(1975-76)

In 1959, there were 24 universities, 200 4-year colleges and 65 colleges with 2-years or more but less than 4-years, all totalling 289. The investigator did not succeed in getting the latest corresponding statistics.

Some facts about higher education in the Philippines, however, deserve to be noticed viz., (1) very considerable

part of the total enrolment in colleges and universities are in private educational institutions - it was 92 per cent in 1969; (2) the rate of expansion is quite fast the average yearly increase in enrolment is nearly 10 percent (Annual Report, 1968-69, p.72); (3) the six courses with the highest enrolments usually are: teacher training, commerce and business administration, arts and science, engineering and technology, law and foreign services and nursing; the courses where the enrolment is the least are: social work, optometry, dentistry, philosophy and letters and pharmacy; (4) usually, around 64 per cent of total students who enter the portals of colleges reach fourth year of the first degree; (5) the trend of enrolment in courses in special vocational and technical courses has been irregular; (6) the teacher-training institutions are. graduating more than what the schools in the country can absorb; (7) the participation of the national budget for education of state colleges and universities ranged from 4.5 per cent to 11.9 per cent between 1960-61 and $1979-70^{*}$

* The Presidential Commission in its Report (1969, pp.45-46) make the following observation :

"The minimal government participation has deep implications on the quality of education at this level. The State Colleges and Universities accommodate a very small proportion of college population and their contribution to raising the general quality of education is minimal." (Vide - <u>Education for National Development</u>, p.45); and (8) the average cost in private colleges and universities is about one-fourth of what it is in the University of the Philippines and it is three or four times in private colleges and universities. The average cost for nine members of the Philippines Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges and Universities (PAASCU) which provide higher quality education, is almost double.

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Such are the major distinguishing features of the system of higher education in the Philippines. Some more facts of the educational system in the Republic may be noted :

(a) The Department of Education consists of three Bureaus, viz., of Public Schools, Vocational Education and Private Schools; it has also administrative responsibility for the National Library, the National Museum, Institute of National Language and National Historical Commission. But the Bureau of Public Schools is the main constituent of the Department. In 1969, the Bureau of Public Schools accounted for 93.67 per cent of the total programmed expenditure of the Department and the Bureau of Private Schools

* Please also refer to Chart IX.

5.66 per cent. The other sections of the Department each accounted for less than one per cent of the total expenditure of 716.1 million.

- (b) For the administration of education, the country is divided in ten regions, viz., (1) Northern Luzon,
 (2) Central Luzon, (3) Greater Manila, (4) Southern Tagalog, (5) Bicol Region, (6) East Visayas, (7) West Visyas, (8) Eastern Mindanao, (9) Western Mindanao and (10) Normal/Teachers' Colleges.
- (c) There has been a shift of slant in literacy promotion from citizenship-oriented to work-oriented functional literacy;
- (d) There has been a growing interest in continuing education which is carried out chiefly through organised classes, community assemblies, radio broadcasts, publications and out-of-school youths with opportunities for improving their reading and writing skills and increasing their comptencies in various fields of community living;
- (e) The concern for expanding and enriching vocational and technical education has been at the back of the

recent increasing emphasis on manpower planning. Of the total enrolment of 105,831 in 1968-69, 55.92 per cent were in trade, 30.83 per cent in agriculture, 9.23 per cent in fishery and 4.02 per cent in home industries;

- (f) The adjusted school enrolment ratios in the Philippines and India at the elementary and secondary school education level are 83 and 44 respectively. Per 100,000 population, the enrolments in higher education in the Philippines and in India, are respectively 1,560 and 235.
- (g) The total manpower (employed population from 14-65 years old) in 1974 was 14,253,000 or 66.3 per cent of the total stock. Of these, 40.5 per cent had 4-5 years college, 38.4 per cent 1-3 years college, 74.9 4 year high school and 56.1 per cent 1-3 year high schools. (Vide - Education for National Development, p.42)
- (h) The Philippine investment in education is 6.7 percent of the GNP.
- (i) The Presidential Commission (1969) had proposed an educational structure of 3 years of pre-school

education (age-group 3-6 years), 6 years of compulsory elementary education (age-group 7-12 years), 5 years of secondary education (age-group 13-17 years), 5 years of under-graduate programme (age-group 18-22 years) and 4 years of post-graduate programme (age-group 23-26 years). It was also recommended to institute the comprehensive high school initially in a network of public secondary schools.

3.7 EDUCATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

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The educational system that developed over a period of time in both the lands under study has been described, discussed and interpreted at length in the previous section. The prime concern in the present research being the study of the training of elementary school teachers, the examination of the historical development, main events and trends and issues in the sphere of the education of elementary school teachers and experiences accumulated in that field in both the lands will now be taken up. This will be done keeping in mind the major objective of examining the teacher training in the Philippines with a view to assessing its applicability to teacher

training programme in Gujarat State for its streamlining and vice versa. The present section will be devoted to examining the main facets of the development of the pro-

in Gujarat Before the advent of the British rule, it does not appear that there were any facilities for teacher training, and as Vinod Patel (1975, p.97) observes the need to train teachers was not felt at all by the society. The British rule began in Gujarat from 1818. Between the early decades of the nineteenth century and 1947, Gujarat was a region of the British Province of Bombay. The system of teacher training that developed in Gujarat during the British regime followed strictly the ideology, pattern and programme that came to be architectured for primary teachers of the whole of Bombay Province.

gramme of teacher education in both the lands.

The centenary volume on the growth and development of the Bombay Education Department prepared and published by the former Bombay Government under the title "<u>A Review</u> <u>of Education in Bombay State, 1855-1955</u>" (1958, p.288) mentions an interesting fact about the growth of the training of primary school teachers in the ^State, viz.,

"the training of teachers proceded even the organisation of primary education." The alien Government had set up the Bombay Native Education Society in 1822 as its agency to spread the new type of Western education among the people. As a first step towards this objective, the BNE Society decided to start "Vernacular schools". But they could not be spread fast as there was an absolute dearth of teachers who knew the subjects of Western science and literature and who could teach them through the mother--tongue of the childrenein Gujarat. This led to a situation wherein it became necessary first to start a "training class" where the prospective teachers could first be instructed in Western Science and literature in order that they would be able to disseminate this knowledge later on to their pupils. The first training class for primary school teachers began in 1824 at Bombay * and the primary schools themselves were started two years later, that is, in 1826. In Gujarat, the first training college for men could be established in 1857 and for females in 1871. Both these colleges were at Ahmedabad.

* It is now in the State of Maharashtra.

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Some features of the early teacher training at the primary stage may be noted :

- (a) Great importance was attached to the possession of the knowledge of Western Science and literature on the part of primary school teachers;
- (b) Their training meant "general education" rather than training in the science and art of teaching;
- (c) Training in methodology of teaching was limited to the Lancastrian or Monitorial System of Education,
 but such a training was a very incidental part;
- (d) Government declared its policy that a primary school teacher had to be "<u>trained</u>" before he could be entrusted with the responsibility of teaching in a vernacular school.**
- (e) Regular classes of teacher training came to be started in Gujarat first at Surat in 1854. The Bombay Review (Centenary Report) (p.284) mentions that in 1855 there were 2 teacher training classes in Gujarat and both of them were in Surat. Thus, teacher training

** A vernacular school was a primary school imparting Western knowledge through the medium of the mother-tongue of the child, i.e. Gujarati.

^{*} Under this system selected youths in each taluka (a sub--unit of a district) were apprenticed as pupil teachers to the ablest vernacular school masters in the neighbourhood. This system was successfully tried out in England and its adoption in India was recommended by the Wood's Despatch of 1854.

in the form of training class first began in Gujarat. It took another three years for a regular training college to be established at Ahmedabad in 1857;

- (f) The early teacher training facilities were all for men. These facilities for women primary teachers began in Gujarat in 1871. The finance for both these colleges came from private individuals;
- (g) The duration of teacher training was generally two years;
- (h) According to the "Bombay Review" (p.289), the earliest syllabus of teacher training included (1) English,
 (ii) Sanskrit, (iii) Gujarati, (iv) History (v)
 Geography, (vi) Mathematics including Arithmetic,
 Algebra, Mechanics, Astronomy and Trigonometry),
 (vii) Natural Philosophy and (viii) the art of Teaching;
- (i) The Bombay Review (p.289) also mentions the fact that "all the trainees were given small stipends' during the period of their training and were required to give an undertaking that they would serve in a Government primary school for a specified term after their training was over;

(j) A practising or a laboratory school was not thought of a required attachment of a training class:

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(k) Prior to 1855^{*}, no regular training schools or colleges were organised because not only at that time the number of primary schools in Gujarat was small, but they were also expanding at a very slow pace.

Such were the pattern and the facets of training of primary school teachers in Bombay Province upto 1855. Teacher training at this stage was in the process of formation. A significant fact was that while Government perceived no need to train secondary school teachers, it made training obligatory for all teachers who wanted to teach in primary schools.

Changes and improvements began to be effected in teacher training after 1855. During the British period, teacher training expanded considerably. It developed also considerably in its vital dimensions. The mile-stones in the further development of teacher training for primary school teachers are briefly indicated below: The sources used for data are the Annual Reports of the Director of

^{*} According to Rajgor (1966, p.51), there were 41 primary schools in British Gujarat in 1855. This number grew to 303 in 1865-66 (p.56) and to 2,862 in 1900-01 (p.61).

Public Instruction, Bombay, Bombay Review 1855-1955 (1958), Reports of the Committees appointed by Bombay Government from time to time on teacher training and studies done by Mandre (1953), Nandordikar (1957), Rajgor (1958, 1966), Gordhanbhai Patel (1963), Pathak (1963), Tikmani (1970), Jayendra Bhatt (1973) and others.

- (a) The earlier objective of introducing the primary school teacher to "the highest form of Western science and literature" that could be achieved through his mother-tongue came to be abandoned between 1855 and 1870, because it was realised that it was too ambitious and also was very difficult to be practised;
- (b) A simplified syllabus better correlated with the work of the primary schools was introduced in Primary Training Colleges first in 1865-66 which retained the study of English, but the revision of the 1870 removed it;
- (c) The education of primary school teachers was spread over three years from 1870:
 - (1) <u>First year</u> was the preparatory one during which a thorough revision of the more difficult portions

of the primary school syllabus was done;

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- (2) The <u>Second</u> and the <u>Third Year</u> were devoted to "<u>training</u>" proper;
- (3) At the end of the Third Year, a trainee was expected to have studied adequately the following subjects:*

(i) Arithmetic (complete); (ii) Eaclid (Book I and II) with exercises; (iii) Algebra upto quadratic equation; (iv) book-keeping; (v) mother-tongue; (vi) elementary Sanskrit; (vii) Physical Geography. Geography of India, and use of the globe; (viii) perspective and plan drawing; (ix) general knowledge of European and Asiatic peoples connected with India; (x) elementary view of the political system; (xi) laws of Government of India; (xii) economic history of India and of countries in contact with it; (xii) elementary astronomy and geology; (xiii) gymnastic and (xiv) the art of teaching and knowledge of principles of education and (xv) the knowledge of Departmental orders regarding the maintenance of school registers and accounts;

^{*} The first Training College Code which contains this syllabus was printed in the Annual Report of the Bombay Director of Public Instruction for 1869-70, pp.381-88.

(d) The bias towards subject knowledge dominated the curriculum of training institutions for primary teachers all throughout the British period and it continues even to this date. This is the legacy of the past and it has become difficult to reduce the weightage of the subject knowledge;

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(e) The syllabus of primary training institutions has
 been frequently revised, the more important revisions
 having taken place in 1884, 1899, 1910, 1919, 1925,
 1935 and 1939.

The following excerpt from the Centenary Report of the Bombay Department of Education (1958, p.301) throws significant light on the specific changes introduced in the syllabus of training institutions in the years mentioned above :

"The <u>Syllabus of 1884</u> was a direct result of the recommendations made by the Indian Education Commission* of 1882. It included the compulsory study of the principles of school management, Sanskrit, Mathematics, History, Geography, Mother-tongue and Natural Sciences

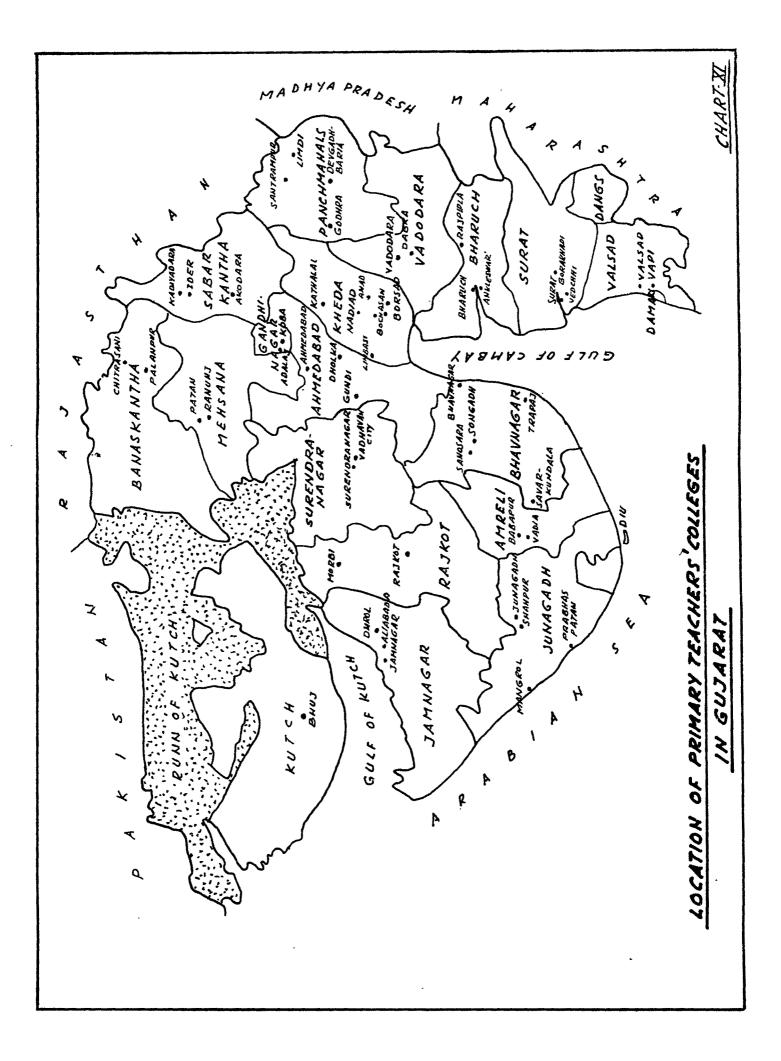
* It was appointed by the Government of India and was expected to make recommendations for the improvement of primary education in the whole of India.

Physical Education also continued to be a compulsory subject, but drawing, carpentary and smithy were introduced as optional subjects. The Syllabus of 1899, adopted mainly because of the decision to abandon the pupil-teacher system, continued the same compulsory subjects, although the content of studies under each was modified and added the study of one subject out of drawing, handwork and agriculture on a compulsory basis. The Syllabus of 1910 added Kindergarten, Native Accounts and Manual Training as compulsory subjects. The Syllabus of 1919 added Nature Study or Gardening as compulsory subjects, because it had been introduced in the primary course by this time. But as these additions increased the volume of studies very considerably, a radical decision was taken and both Algebra and Classical Languages were omitted from the curriculum. In 1925, the Third Year Training Class was abolished as a measure of economy and it was revived in 1935. Both these changes led to corresponding revisions of the training course which now emphasised practical work and observation and included an elementary knowledge of music. In 1939, the Third Year Course was again abolished and the system of intermittent training was given up. This led to a very radical revision of the training course which now included a study of Hindi in addition to almost all the subjects included in the syllabus of 1925."

It would, thus, be seen that the training syllabus of primary teachers' training colleges in Gujarat came to be frequently revised during the British rule. Though gradually the syllabus became less ambitious and more geared to the needs of primary schools in which the trained teachers had to work. From 1870, primary education had begun to expand slowly but steadily. According to Rajgor (1966), there were 303 primary schools in British Gujarat and 71 and 14 in the Indian princely states of Saurastra (Kathiawad # and #Cutch) totally in all 388 primary schools for the whole of Gujarat. This number increased to 3,899 in 1900-01, 6,547 in 1910-11, 5,851 in 1921 and 9,337^{*} in 1945. The army of primary school teachers also swelled with increasing number of schools; By 1947, 36 primary teachers' colleges had come into existence in cities and larger towns like Ahmedabad, Nadiad, Godhara, Surat, Baroda, Ankleswar, Udwada, Mahesana, Amreli, Kathlal, Anand, Borsad, Mudra, and others. were not Even these training institutions/adequate to meet the growing need of training primary teachers. By the end of the British rule, the percentage of untrained primary

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^{*} Rajgor (1966, p.81) adds that these figures include omly 69 per cent of the areas of Gujarat, and smaller Princely States are not included therein.



teachers in Gujarat remained, according to Joshi (1973), way as high as around 57 per cent.

The facilities of teacher training however, began to expand at a faster rate than in the past after the attainment of political independence by India in 1947. Between 1947 and 1973, the number of primary teachers' colleges and increased to 59 by 1955, / to 79 by 1965. But thereafter the number began to fall. It became 63 in 1971. Between 1965 and 1972 16 primary teachers' colleges were closed down.

| District | Male Training Colleges | | | Female Training Colleges | | | Grand Total |
|--------------------|---------------------------|--------------|-------|-----------------------------|--------------|-------|----------------|
| | Govt, | Pri- vate | Total | Govt. | Pri- vate | Total | |
| 1.Ahmedabad | 2 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 4 · | 5 | 10 |
| 2.Vadodara | 2 | - | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| 3.Bharuch | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| 4.Kheda | 1 | 3 | 4 | - | 3 | 3 | 7 |
| 5.Mehsana | | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 2 |
| 6.Panch- mahals | 2 | - | 2 | _ | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| 7.Sabar- kantha | .1 | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8.Banas- kantha | - | - | - | - | 2 | 2 | [,] 2 |

<u>Table 3.6</u> : District-wise Break-up of Primary Teachers' <u>Colleges in Gujarat, 1973</u>.

Table 3.6 : (contd.)

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| District | | Male Training Colleges Govt. Pri- Total | | | Female Training Colleges Govt. Pri- Total | | | Grand Total | |
|--------------------|-------|---|------|----|---|------|-----|----------------|--|
| | | | vate | | | vate | | | |
| 9. Surat | | 1 | 1 | 2 | | 2 | 2 | 4 | |
| 10. Valsa | .d. | **** | 1 | 1 | | 2 | 2 | 3 | |
| 11. Amrel | i | 1 | | 1 | | - | | 1 | |
| 12. Cutch | 1 | **** | - | | •••• | | - | 1* | |
| 13. Rajko | t | 1 | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
| 14. Junag | adh | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 ' | 4 | |
| 15. Bhavr | lagar | 2 | - | 2 | | 1 | 1 | 3+2* | |
| 16. Jamna | gar | 1 | 1 | 2 | | 1 | 1 | 3 | |
| 17. Suren nagar | | 1 | | 1 | | 2 | 2 | 3 | |
| Total | . 1 | 7, | 12 | 29 | 7 | 24 | 31 | 60+3* | |

* They are mixed and private.

In 1973, there were 19 districts, out of which 17 districts had on an average 3 to 4 primary teachers' colleges operating in their talukas. The present number of primary teachers' colleges is 65. They are distributed over all the 19 districts of the State. The list of these colleges is given in the Appendix.

Some developments of far reaching consequences have taken place after the end of the British rule and in the

* Vide- Chart XI.

era of independence. They are briefly indicated below :

- (a) Consequent upon the decision of the State Government to convert all primary teacher-training institutions to the pattern of Basic Education, it was decided to introduce in all primary training colleges a training syllabus suitably modified on the Basic pattern. This reform, however, could be completed only in 1954-55 (Vide - Bombay Centenary Review, p.301). Subjects like Crafts, and programmes like correlated teaching and community living became an integral part of the Gujarat teacher training programme;
- (b) The duration of the training course continued to be for 2 years and two categories of trainees entered the portals of teacher training institutions, one with Primary School Certificate (Std.VII) and the other with Secondary School Certificate (Std.XI). For the S.S.C. passed candidates, the training course was for one year only. The training programme became different for both the categories of the trainees in 1955;
- (c) More set private training colleges came into existence. In 1955, there were 36 private training colleges as

against 23 Government institutions. In 1973, there were 46 private colleges as against 17 Government training colleges. The 12 primary teachers' training colleges that were closed down between 1965 and 1972 14 were Government and only 2 were private;

- (d) The training course for primary teachers was again reorganised in 1970. The duration of training continued to be 2 years both for S.S.C. passed as well as P.S.C. passed candidates, but whereas the former were trained to teach in full-fledged primary schools of Grades I to VII, the latter were qualified to teach only in lower primary schools having Grades I to IV.
- (f) Government has decided not to force experienced untrained primary school teachers who are in the service of Education Committee of the Panchayat Raj bodies to get trained and who have completed the age of 35 years/ They are, however, to be given the pay scale laid down for untrained primary school teachers.

Such is broadly the picture of development of professional preparation of primary school teachers in Gujarat in historical perspective.

In the Philippines, the beginning of the education occurred of elementary school teachers begin later than in Gujarat it began after 1863 whereas in the Bombay Province the first training class, as stated earlier, was founded in 1824 and in Gujarat proper in 1854. Here, too, the factor causing this educational change was exogenous - it was largely due to the initiative of the Spanish government which ruled over the Philippines from 1565 to 1899. The Royal Decree of 1863 had provided for the first time in the history of the country /the establishment of a normal school to train primary

school teachers.

In the Philippines, as in Gujarat, the training of school mistresses began later than that of school masters.*

In Gujarat, in the syllabus of teacher training, the emphasis was largely on "<u>content</u>" or subject-knowledge and training in the art of teaching occupied only a minor place. It was not so in the Philippines. Pedagogy, religion and

^{*} Fresnoza and Casim (1964, pp.10-11) observe that in 1871, thè Colegios de Sta, Catalina, Sta. Rosa and de la Concordina were founded to undertake the training of women school teachers. However, since the courses of studies in these colleges were felt to be inadequate, Normal School for women teachers came to be established. In 1892, the Royal Decree formed the Superior Normal School for Women which had a four-year training course.

academic subjects were given almost equal weithage. Aldana (1949, pp.7-8) mentions the following subjects of the earliest teacher training syllabus: (1) principles of teaching, (ii) theory and practice of good citizenship, (iii) sacred history and religion, (iv) arithmetic, (v) Spanish language, (vi) practical agriculture, (vii) vocal and organ music and (viii) theory and practice of writing.

From the studies by Anderson (1899), Alip (1940), Alzona (1940), Aldana (1949), Fresnoza and Cassim (1964) and others, the following characteristics of the early programme of teacher training for elementary school teachers in the Philippines emerge :

(a) Two kinds of candidates were admitted in the Normal Schools : the regular and supplementary candidates. The regular student-teachers were admitted free but were required to teach for ten years after graduation; the latter were paid for their instruction but were otherwise the same as the other group. This was not so in Gujarat. The focus was not at all on preparing religious teachers, and though some Christian Missions did start primary training colleges, but they were meantfor preparing teachers to teach in school and not necessarily religion;

- (b) After the completion of training, a teacher was assigned to teach in an advanced school or to a school of beginners depending upon his grade one with a higher grade was placed in charge of instruction in an advanced school;
- (c) The normal school^S for men and women were established in Manila - both were under the immediate supervision and administration of the Christian Missions - the men's normal school was under the Jesuits and the women's normal school under the Sisters of Charity;
- (d) Ordinarily, a three-year course for the certification of teachers for primary schools operated; but a fouryear training course operated for certification of teachers for superior instruction.

Thus, the professional preparation of elementary school teachers began in the Philippines under different ideology and with different motivations

It was only under the American regime between 1899 and 1945 that the Philippine educational system became really well organised and it developed fast and became effective. Aldana (1949, p.13) divides the Philippines' educational history after the advent of the American rule into five periods, viz., (1) the period of orientation and organization, from 1898 to 1910; (2) the period of adjustment, from 1911 to 1925; (3) the period of adaptation, from 1926 to 1935; (4) the period of the Commonwealth, from 1936 to July 1946; and (5) the period of the Republic from July 5 1946 to the present times.

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In the First Period, the pressing problem was twofold : the training of teachers not only in subject-matter but also in modern methods of teaching, and the construction of adequate and sanitary buildings. Naval and Aquino (1971, p.107) refer to a circular sent out by Superintendent of Public Schools which required the holding of a month's normal training course for Filipino teachers in each school division. The same circular further provided that an hour a day of the school session was to be devoted to teaching the Filipino teacher in English language and methods of teaching. Bright and promising student-teachers were even given additional instruction in English after school hours so that they were equipped to help American teachers to teach other Filipino students English.

During the Second Period, with greater rate of expansion of elementary education taking place in the Philippines, additional classrooms had to be built. This made the problem of supplying school systems with trained or certified elementary school teachers really acute. It had happened in Gujarat that when more teachers were needed in a shorter time. to man increasing number of schools, the length of the training period got reduced. The same thing happened in the Philippines. Aldana (p.15) refers to the development of a two-year normal curriculum in some provincial schools. Emergency normal schools were also opened in some provinces.

In 1906, the Bureau of Education prescribed the qualification for teaching in primary grades as the completion of the Intermediate Grade. But training facilities for teachers with higher academic qualifications began. In 1918-19, as pointed out by Fresnoza and Casim (p.20), a two-year collegiate course in teaching was offered in the Philippines Normal School.

From 1917, a new trend began in teacher education which was to establish regional normal schools.

During the Third Period, more normal schools were set up by the Bureau of Public Schools - actually between 1918 and 1929 normal schools came up. They catered to the training needs of elementary school teachers of various parts of the country such as the Northern Luzon Provinces, Pangasinan and La Union, Bicol Provinces, Eastern Visayas and Northern Mindanao, Western Visayas, Southern Mindanao and Sulu and Bu Kidnon.

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During the Fourth Period, further expansion on normal schools must have continued, but more in the private sector. The eight regional normal schools that operated during the period offered at first only the secondary normal course and then two-year collegiate normal school granting the elementary teachers' certificate.

In the Fifth Period, significant developments have taken place in the sphere of education of elementary school teachers. Some of these developments are as under :

(a) In 1950, the Philippines Normal School which operated as a training school from 1901 to 1949 was converted into a college under the Republic Act 416 of 18th June 1949 Section 5 of the Act empowered the College "to confer the degrees of Bachelor of Science in Elementary Education and Master of Arts in Education to successful candidates." A college Council has been provided to approve the curricula. The Philippines Normal School ceased to be a teacher training institution under the Bureau of Public Schools and became independent of the Department of Education;

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- (b) The Zamboanga Normal School also became a chartered college in 1965;
- (c) Some of the earlier normal schools have changed their names preparatory to becoming independent chartered colleges. For instance, the former Ilocos Norte Normal School is now called Northern Luzon Teachers' College; Albay Normal School is now called ^Bicol Teachers' College; and Iloilo Normal School has now become West Visayan State College. However, these colleges are still under the administrative authority of Director of Public Schools.
- (d) Naval and Acquino (pp.110-111) observe that the Philippines Normal School had served as the nucleus for the establishment of the College of Education

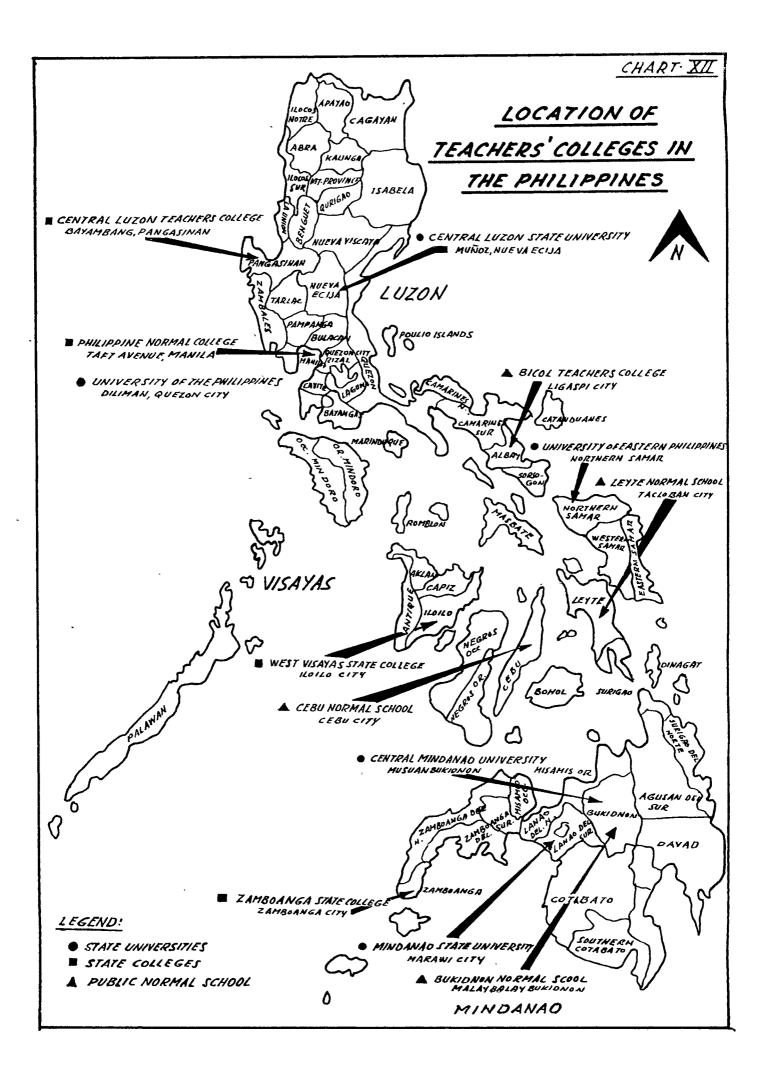
University of Philippines^{*} for the preparation of secondary school teachers;

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- (e) The administrative and supervisory organisation of the regional normal schools are, in theory, of the line and staff type, but in Naval and Acquino's evaluation they operate on democratic lines and enjoy plenty of internal autonomy and freedom;
- (f) There are a number of private universities in the Philippines that, too, have their colleges of education. The big ones among them are the Far Eastern University, the University of the East, the University of Sto, Tomas, the National University and the Arellano University. The Colleges of Education, by Indian Standard, are very big institutions. For instance, according to Naval and Acquino (p.112), there were 10,000 students in the College of Education of the University of the East in 1966-67. It grants both B.S. degree in Elementary Education and B.S.E. degree;^{**}

^{*} It was created in 1908 under the Act No.1870, otherwise known as the University Act.

^{**} It is a training degree for general secondary school teachers.



- (g) By 1955, the minimum professional qualification for school teachers has been graduation from the four-year teacher: education programme or an equivalent fouryear degree programme;
- (h) In 1970, the Report of "<u>The Special Area Group for</u> <u>Teacher Education</u>" of the <u>Presidential Commission</u> (p.7) mentions 359 schools having teacher education programmes.
- (i) Teacher training institutions have eventually came

 (i)
 to be grouped into/Public Normal School or College,
 (ii) State College, (iii) State University and (iv)

 Private College or University;
- (j) The Bureau of Public Schools maintains a Teacher Education Unit which is responsible for the coordination of their administrative and supervisory programmes. The latest statistics that were available to the investigator about schools having teacher education programmes are for the year 1968-69. The distribution of the 359 teacher training schools is given in Table 3. on next page.

* Vide- Chart XII.

Table 3.7 : Number of Teacher Training Schools by

| | Region | Bureau of private schools | Bureau of Public schools | Bureau of voca- tional educa- tion | State Colleges and Univer- sities | To tal |
|-----|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|---|--------|
| 1. | Manila | 32 | | - | 2 | 34 |
| 2. | Ilocos- Mountain Province | 17 | | 1 | 1 | 19 |
| 3. | Cagayan Valley and Batanes | 8 | _ | 2 | 2 | 12 |
| 4. | Central Luzon | 39 | - | 1 | 5 | 45 |
| 5. | Southern Luzon | 54 | | 2 | 3 | 59 |
| 6. | Bicol Region | 18 | 1 | 1 | - | 20 |
| 7. | Western Visaya s | 36 | - | 1 | 1 | 38 |
| 8. | Eastern Visayas | 39 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 46 |
| 9. | Northern Mindanao | 27 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 31 |
| 10. | Southern Mindanao and Sulu | 50 | - | 3 | 2 | 55 |
| | Total | 320 | 4 | 15 | 20 | 359 |

Sectors and Region.

<u>n</u> in the Philippines, Makati, Rizal, 1970, p. 15.

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It would be seen that historically the professional preparation of elementary school teachers in the Philippines had certain advantages not possessed by the system of teacher training in Gujarat. Firstly, though the two major teacher training institutes in Gujarat viz., P.R. Training College for Men (1857) and the Mahalaxmi Female Training College for Females (1871) were established ment earlier than the premier Philippine institute, the Philippines Normal School (1901) in Manila, they did not get an opportunity to develop themselves into four-year or five-year degree colleges - the stream of teacher training at primary stage could not rise in level and could not become the part of the main stream of university life; secondly, for a very long time the admission qualification for the entrants in teacher training colleges were kept lowly limited to a pass certificate of Grade VI (the Philippines) or Grade VII (Gujarat); however, whereas the same got gradually upgraded to high school graduation in the Philippines. this reform was not at all attempted in Gujarat till after India became politically free. This was responsible for keeping the status of elementary school teacher education low in Gujarat; thirdly, whereas in Gujarat, the training of teachers at the two levels

remained separate streams, the two streams in the Philippines though they did not merge retained their inter connect entry with each other, and provided a scope for shift or transfer from one stream to the other; fourthly. Gujarat did not think, as was provided in Section 2 af Philippine the Act (No.416) of the/Act of 1949, "to provide professional, technical, and special instruction for special purposes and progressive leadership in the field of elementary education." This defect was not only of the elementary teacher education programme in Gujarat but also of the Indian teacher training system; fifth $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, while regional normal schools were established in the Philippines, some of which could later on became chartered colleges of education having a status independent of the Department of Education but in Gujarat State or Bombay -Province/State no such perception and ideology emerged; sixthly, though in both the lands the private enterprise dominated the field of teacher training, a much better administrative and supervisory organisation for private training institutions developed in the Philippines than in Gujarat; seventhly, whereas a tradition of academic freedom and liberalism developed in the Philippines under American influence, a tradition of control with little

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internal autonomy developed under the British influence in Gujarat - in India; eighthly, the teacher-training institutions in the Philippines developed a tradition of larger intake, bigness of college plant, better equipment and a better articulated and more comprehensive curriculum; in Gujarat not only no such tradition existed, but in many cases the opposite was the case; Lastly, in the Philippines, teacher-education institutions came to be organised under the Bureau of Vocational Education. According to Naval and Aquino (p.183) in 1966 as many as 161 National Vocational Schools and in the private sector 283 colleges and universities offered teacher education courses for teachers of industrial education, trade and agriculture varying in length and kind from the elementary teacher's certificate to Doctor of Philosophy in various . fields of education; no such development took place in Gujarat State.

Thus, whereas teacher education in the Philippines could develop on makes broader, more comprehensive, more quality-oriented and better monitored lines from the very advent of the present century, it continued to move in Gujarat in the narrow groove which created for the training

programme lower status both in the educational hierarchy and in the society at large. The private training colleges in Gujarat had never been financially a viable proposition, and little efforts had been made both by Government and the local communities to strengthen them financially so that they could provide necessary physical, academic and professional climate or setting conducive to effective teacher education programme. Most of the training colleges for primary teachers in Gujarat are no better in physical plant and staff than an private high school of average grade or quality. From fifties onwards, the teacher education institutions in the Philippines have developed off-campus internship programme for student-teachers. Not only that, but many other academic reforms and practices have come to be introduced in teacher education programme for both elementary and secondary teachers in the Philippines. In Gujarat State, some of these innovative trends are perceptible in the teacher education for secondary school teachers, but they are not to be found in the teacher training institutions at the elementary stage in Gujarat, because perhaps, historically no such movement or tradition could develop. The Kothari Education Commission (1964-66) was led to the conclusion (para 4.02)

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"By and large, training institutions for primary and secondary teachers have remained isolated from the main stream of the academic life of university, as well as from the daily problems of schools. The quality of training institutions remains, with a few exceptions, either mediocre or poor."

Many of the problems that the teacher education of primary school teachers faced by Gujarat today have their moorings in the past. It is this fact which makes rapid change difficult.

3.8 CONCLUSION

With this chapter ends the presentation of the background setting of both the lands. It has been dealt with at some length because the investigator humbly believes that education programme of any dimension, in any sector, cannot be properly examined unless the cultural, political, social and economic factors that usually mould the patterns and practices in education are adequately understood. This constitutes a new trend in present educational research, especially in the sphere of comparative education. This chapter was, therefore, utilised to describe in meaningful details the land and people in both the territories, their social fabric, their economic conditions, their political and administrative functioning, their educational ladder, pattern and organization and the origin and development of the education of elementary school teachers. It is assumed that a meaningful background perspective has been developed in this chapter which can be utilised hereafter to examine critically and in depth, the teacher education programme for elementary teachers in both the lands. This exercise will be done in the next chapter.

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