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ABSTRACT

A general review of the progress of education in rural areas in the Asian region precedes articles from various countries. It is noted that the physical geography of the Asian region as a whole and the social conditions which prevail therein make up a panorama of variety and complexity which taxes the imagination and the ingenuity of those who seek to bring the benefits of education to Asian young people. The review analyzes, as far as is possible with the limited data available, the quantitative and qualitative educational attainment in rural areas of the region. Individual articles deal with ungraded lower primary education in India, history of rural education in Japan, education in the rural environment in Laos, sociology of rural education in Laos, educational development in rural areas of Malaysia, rural education in Nepal, rural education in the Philippines, the 4-H education program in Taiwan, rural teacher training in Thailand, and education in rural areas in the Republic of Viet-Nam. A final article deals with 2 prime factors in striving for quality in rural education in general--teacher training and the primary school curriculum--and discusses the concept of the rural school as a community center. (JH)

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FOREWORD

Education in rural areas in many parts of the world has until recently been the poor "country cousin," losing touch with nature as it tries to imitate a more sophisticated city-bred education. In some places there may not have been enough money for any school at all; in others there was only enough for a basic shelter. Some areas are very difficult of access anyway; not much could be done until new roads and bridges were built. Schools in the villages have been constructed, but it may only be possible to offer three or four years of education. Curricula and syllabi were prepared by city-dwellers who often drafted their programmes as though life should adjust itself to the classroom, instead of the reverse. There is probably a teacher shortage; it is easier to keep the trained or experienced teachers in the cities than to move them out in the wilds. The teachers have not wanted to go to the country; if they have to teach there, they sometimes expect special compensation. Too few textbooks have been available for the urban schools; certainly not many could be spared for the rural. The result of this is that the approximately 80% of Asian population which lives in rural areas has been educationally deprived in relation to the urban population, however rapidly education may have been advancing in general.

Nor is the situation entirely dependent upon the central authority's limitations. People in rural areas everywhere who have not had the opportunity to go to school themselves have been traditionally suspicious of "book-learning". The farm children helped their parents, for generation-upon-generation. They learned supposedly all they needed to know

from working in natural surroundings, and in so-doing probably learned more about life than city children who were "wasting time" with paper and pencils. Those who may have wanted formal education for their children were (and are) unable to allow them enough free time to go to school - there is too much work for them to do. If they could be spared for a while, it was thought that going to school would probably only give them ideas to make them dissatisfied with farm life. [1]

If any of this basic reasoning was ever defensible, and it may have been, it no longer is so. People in rural communities now require the benefits of formal education, and most of them know it. They need it in order to increase the production of handicrafts as well as farm produce, and in so-doing augment their revenues (and contribute toward an increased national income), and they need it in order to keep abreast of the changes in a world where we become daily more interdependent. In a technological age, rural people need to know how to plan their work, how to fertilize their fields and rotate their crops, how to utilize, operate and repair machines, and how to organize into groups for successful wide-scale marketing. They need to know how to protect and increase their harvest without further destroying the balance of nature - and ultimately themselves - in the bargain. And perhaps most of all, they need to know how to form a philosophy in order to offset technology's assault upon the human spirit which is unaccustomed to increasingly rapid living.

Clearly, the kind of education which has sometimes gone under the term "formal" can be of doubtful value to pupils in any environment, urban or rural. But rote learning of

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1. There is another kind of rural parent, the kind who is dissatisfied with the conditions of rural life, and wants his children to be able to escape it by going to school to work toward a technical, commercial or professional vocation. This parent, finding that the schooling in his locality is inadequate, sends his children to the city, thereby contributing to the heavy migration to the metropolis, with the resultant crises stemming from overcrowding, unemployment and delinquency.

theoretical material, unrelated to nature and the life around them, is almost certain to be particularly ineffective for pupils in rural areas.

The key to good classroom education remains the teacher. A number of authors discuss the nearly universal (except with regard to the Philippines) teacher shortage, and steps being taken to not only augment the teaching force, but to give all teachers longer and more intensive education and training. It is sometimes thought that new or varied methods (co-operative study, team teaching, pupil teaching) and techniques (mass media, programmed instruction, teaching by correspondence) will relieve the teacher of much of his work. This same thought was expressed when the invention of the printing press led to the creation of the textbook. An imaginative and well-trained teacher with a good knowledge of his subject can use any number of new methods and techniques to enhance a pupil's learning and make it a thrilling experience.

In one of the articles herein, it is pointed out that the aims of education for pupils in rural and urban areas are essentially similar. Education for the rural environment does not seek to accomplish fundamentally a different task than does urban education; it is in the approach to realizing the aims that variation according to the environment and existing social conditions will occur.

Educational planners in most countries are well aware of the disproportion in educational opportunity and achievement between urban and rural areas and, within their limits, are undertaking to correct it. In compiling this issue of the Bulletin, the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia requested the contribution of articles on education in rural areas from national officials and international experts in Asian Member States. Those who have been able to comply with the request have demonstrated, by the variety in substance of their contributions, the complexity of the educational panorama and of the possible means toward efficiency in rural education.

A general review of the progress of education in rural areas in the Asian region precedes the articles from various countries. A curious aspect of the topic is that definitions of rural and urban are many; relatively small towns or even

villages may sometimes be classified as urban, while prosperous residential and commercial suburbs of large cities may be included in rural areas. In any case, the physical geography of the Asian region as a whole, and the social conditions which prevail therein, make up a panorama of variety and complexity which taxes the imagination and the ingenuity of those who seek to bring the benefits of education to Asian young people. The review analyzes, as far as is possible with the limited data available, the quantitative and qualitative educational attainment in rural areas of the region, and discusses the problems encountered as reported in the country articles.

To consider a fundamental quantitative problem, enrolments in the first year of primary education in rural areas are now generally much higher than they were a few years ago, but the educational wastage in the first four grades may be as high as 60 per cent, (and very much higher in terms of "dropout" for later grades, if only because many schools offer only four grades). The article from India describes the experiment now being carried out there, on the recommendation of the National Education Commission, which is designed to drastically reduce wastage: the ungraded curriculum at the lower primary stage.

Rural schools (with western-style architecture) appeared in Japan at a relatively early date but they were at first for the more fortunate minority. The author of the article from Japan describes the impact upon rural education of the land-reform of over 20 years ago when most farmers became owner-farmers with an improved financial position. Primary enrolments thereupon reached a very high level, and the period of compulsory education was meanwhile extended from 6 to 9 years. The village schools have served since their inception as community centres, with the teacher holding a certain unofficial advisory status. Economic and cultural distinctions between urban districts and rural areas, however, are rapidly disappearing.

Since the Reform of 1962, education in the rural areas of Laos, a mainly agricultural nation, has been expanded and a number of innovations both in administration and curriculum have been made. Primary enrolments have surpassed the

target figures of the Asian Model.[2] Rural secondary education, however, is at an early stage of its development.

In Malaysia, implementation of the Education Ordinance of 1959 brought about increased educational opportunity for children in rural areas through increased grants making possible the extension of facilities of all kinds. Some comprehensive rural secondary schools having Malay, the national language, as medium of instruction have been established, and vocational schools at the second level are being set up.

Nepal is the prototype of the land where transport and communication require enormous ingenuity and enterprise, as exemplified for instance by rope suspension bridges spanning thousand-foot Himalayan gorges. While new highways now under construction promise new transportation possibilities for equipment and supplies, administrative decentralization is being widely tested to make possible more community schools through locally-levied taxes.

In the Philippines, education in rural areas has many facets, among them the "barrio" secondary schools, which utilize the primary school buildings in off-hours, and involve the making of a three-way contract between the school authorities, the parents, and the pupil. The article in this issue describes the entire range of Philippine educational activities.

The article from the Republic of China deals with a particular activity which is enjoying success with the rural youth there: the 4-H clubs. Several other countries in the Asian region also are encouraging the formation of these out-of-school, spiritually uplifting youth groups.

A Unesco-sponsored rural teacher training project in Thailand is described next in this issue of the Bulletin. With this project, Thailand has been seeking to alleviate the seemingly never-ending shortage of trained teachers.

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2. Unesco. An Asian model of educational development; perspectives for 1965-80. /Paris, 1966/ 126 p. (The document was presented to, and published in the form approved by, the Conference of Ministers of Education and Ministers Responsible for Economic Planning of Member States in Asia, 22-29 November 1965, Bangkok.

In the Republic of Viet-Nam, the usual problems of rural education - shortage of buildings and teachers, and school programmes suited to rural life - are greatly amplified by their having to be met in the midst of a long and destructive war. It is hoped by the government that the programme which they are tenaciously trying to carry forward, e.g., 10 secondary schools of agriculture at the present, community primary schools, adult vocational training, will help toward the development of rural areas.

The last article deals with two prime factors in striving for quality in rural education: teacher training and the primary school curriculum (a third factor, secondary school curriculum, gaining in importance as the countries begin to expand rural education at the second level). The author discusses the concept of the rural school as community centre.

The Unesco Regional Office wishes to express its appreciation to the authors of the articles reproduced here, and to the National Commissions for Unesco who assisted in obtaining the manuscripts. All articles except those from Laos were received in English. This Bulletin appears with a new cover design, to mark the publication of its ninth issue and to commemorate, in International Education Year, a topic which concerns Asian people in the near and far corners of the region.

EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS IN THE ASIAN REGION - A GENERAL REVIEW

Demographic setting

Of all the regions in the world, Asia * has the largest concentration of rural population. With about 11 per cent of the world land area, it has nearly 35 per cent of the world's rural population.

The two-fold urban-rural distinction eludes precise definition. National censuses employ differing classification systems which, even within the same country, change from time to time. A recent United Nations study observed 172 different definitions of "urban" in 123 censuses examined. In many countries, although rural population predominates, it is obtained as a residual after subtraction of the urban from the total population. Even though statistical precision may not yet be within reach, the magnitudes of urban and rural populations should serve to delineate the broad dimensions of the problem which has to be kept in view in evolving a balanced social and development policy.

Out of a total population in the region of 825 million in 1960, about 665 million were in the rural areas. Urbanization is increasing at an accelerating rate but, numerically, the rural population will continue to be the dominant segment.

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* In this article the term "Asian region" or "Asia" refers to the developing countries in Asia served by the Unesco Regional Office for Education; namely, Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Republic of Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and the Republic of Viet-Nam. Singapore is predominantly urban and is an exception to the general pattern in the region.

It is estimated that the percentage annual rate of growth in the Asian region in the period 1960-80 is likely to be of the order of 4.3 in urban population and 2.1 in rural population.[1] In spite of this marked differential, urban population would have added about 120 million in twenty years while the rural population would have increased by nearly 560 million. Looking beyond to around the year 2,000 (in spite of the compounded uncertainty of such long-term projections), it would appear that the rural population would still be the majority population segment.

A significant factor contributing to a high rate of urban growth is undoubtedly to be found in migration to towns and cities from rural areas. The motivations for migration to cities, although primarily economic, are also influenced by cultural, social, educational and political factors. In addition to the movement from the rural to the urban sector, there is a migratory mo· ·ment within the rural sector and its pace is determined by a variety of economic and social influences - movements from small units of settlement to bigger villages, from villages to small rural towns. Consequently, the demographic features of a rural area change although not as dramatically as in fast-growing cities.

The demographic characteristics of urban and rural populations show some significant differences. Because many economic and social influences enter into these demographic expressions, it is not possible to attribute these differences precisely to the related causes. But it seems clear that they are part of the urbanization process. The sex composition of the two segments of the population is one illustration of variation between urban and rural sectors. The number of males per 100 females (masculinity rate) in the Asian region tends to be higher in urban than in rural areas and the gap is wider in the age-group 15-24 years than in 0-14 years. This has significant implications for the provision of educational facilities in rural areas, and especially for women's education. The

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1. United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Population Division. Growth of the World's urban and rural population, 1920-2000. New York 1969. VII, 124 p. (ST/SOA/Ser.A/44)

differences for some countries for which relevant data are available are illustrated in the table which follows.

Table 1. Masculinity rates (males per 100 females), urban and rural differences for selected age groups and countries, around 1960

Country	Age group	Urban	Rural
India	All ages	118	104
	0-14 years	108	105
	15-24 years	121	96
Indonesia	All ages	100	97
	0-14 years	102	102
	15-24 years	101	86
Iran	All ages	108	106
	0-14 years	108	110
	15-24 years	109	85
Pakistan	All ages	129	109
	0-14 years	111	108
	15-24 years	141	98

Another difference is in the age-composition of the urban and rural population. In most countries of the region, the proportion of children in the primary school-age group (5-14) is higher in the rural than in the urban sector, while the population of the age-group 15-24 tends to be higher in the urban than in the rural sector. This is illustrated for a few selected countries in Table 2. On the basis of available data it is not possible to say how much of this difference is caused by migration and how much should be attributed to other factors, but to the extent that migration influences this variation, it has obvious consequences for education.

Table 2. Primary school-age and youth population as percentage of total population in urban and rural areas for selected Asian countries*

Country	Census year	Per cent in age-group 5-14 years		Per cent in age-group 15-24 years	
		Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Ceylon	1963	23.9	26.9	20.0	17.5
India	1961	25.3	26.1	18.8	16.2
Indonesia	1961	23.6	24.5	20.1	15.4
Iran	1966	28.3	28.8	17.5	13.5
Korea, Rep.of	1960	24.9	25.0	20.2	17.4
Nepal	1961	20.0	19.8	19.9	16.9
Pakistan	1961	25.8	27.3	19.2	15.4

How the rural population is concentrated or dispersed in villages and hamlets is of special importance for determining the educational needs. The general picture for the countries of the region is made up of a large number of small population units accounting for as much as one-third of the total population. By way of illustration, Table 3 gives the distribution of population by size of localities for Iran (1956 Census) and India (1965).

* Table 2, and certain others in this review, are based mainly upon data published in: United Nations/ Nations Unies. ECAFE/CEAEO. *Statistics on children and youth, supplement to the statistical yearbook for Asia and the Far East/ Statistiques sur l'enfance et la jeunesse, supplément à l'annuaire statistique pour l'Asie et l'extrême Orient.* Bangkok, ECAFE/ CEAEO, 1970. 1 v. (various paging) (pagination non-continue) (United Nations publication: E/CN.11/879 / Publication des Nations Unies: E/CN.11/879)

Table 3. Distribution of population by size of localities

IRAN

Size of locality	Number of localities		Population	
	No.	%	No.(000's)	%
All localities	49 240	100.0	18 711	100.0
1000 and over	2 124	4,3	9 237	49,4
500 -- 999	4 314	8,8	2 937	15.7
200 - 499	12 805	26.0	3 988	21.3
Under 200	29 997	60.9	2 548	13,6

INDIA

Size of locality	Number of localities		Population	
	No.	%	No.(000's)	%
All localities	982 251	100.0	396 580	100.0
1000 and over	86 725	8.8	157 422	39.7
500 - 999	145 001	14.8	100 363	25.3
400 - 499	64 125	6.5	28 562	7.2
300 - 399	93 745	9.5	32 146	8.1
200 - 299	137 113	14.0	33 369	8.4
100 - 199	214 530	21.8	30 583	7.7
Below 100	241 012	24.5	14 135	3.6
Total below 500	750 525	76.4	138 795	35.0

Source: India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. Second all-India educational survey. New Delhi /c1967/ 500 p.

The overall regional picture is of course subject to important variations amongst countries and even within the same country. The pace of urbanization is not the same and

the variations cover a considerable range. The following table shows the countries of the Asian region grouped by the level of urbanization around 1960.

Percentage of Urban population (1960)	Number of countries
Less than 10%	3
10 - 19%	8
20 - 29%	1
30 - 39%	3
40% and over	3
Total	18

While, in the course of the next decade, three or four countries in the region could have a majority of population in the urban sector - even reaching levels comparable with the developed countries of Europe - the main feature of the Asian scene will be rural.

Economic setting

Economic growth is bringing about important structural changes in the economies of the countries, with a declining share of agriculture in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Table 4 shows the sectoral structure of GDP for selected countries in the region.

The trend for an increasing share of GDP being generated in the non-agricultural sector will undoubtedly accelerate in the future decades but the basis for this accelerated growth is to be provided by a modernized and high-productivity agricultural sector. It is estimated that an average annual expansion of 6-7 per cent in the total Gross Domestic Product in the region will call for an increase of around 4 per cent per year in agricultural output. The role of the agricultural sector will remain a strategic one for many decades to come. The following observation from the UN Study applies with particular force to the Asian region:

> In the last analysis, even the most urbanized society subsists on food. An urbanized country may trade

Table 4. Sectoral structure of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)[1], selected countries for various periods (percentages)

Country	Years	Agriculture (1)	Industry (2)	Services (3)	Production of commodities (4) (1)+(2)	Non agriculture (5) (2)+(3)	Average annual rate of growth of per-capita product (6)
Burma[2]	1953-55	38.2	12.5	49.3	50.7	61.8	
	1962-64	32.4	19.0	48.6	51.4	67.6	2.9
		-5.8	6.5	-0.7	0.7	5.8	
Ceylon[3]	1956-58	48.1	12.2	39.7	60.3	51.9	
	1966-68	45.5	14.0	40.5	59.5	54.5	1.7
		-2.6	1.8	0.8	-0.8	2.6	
China[4] (Taiwan)	1951-53	35.8	18.6	45.8	54.4	64.4	
	1966-68	23.8	30.4	46.0	54.2	76.4	4.9
		-12.0	11.8	0.2	-0.2	12.0	
India[5]	1950-52	53.3	20.1	26.6	73.4	46.7	
	1965-67	43.2	23.3	33.5	66.5	56.8	1.1
		-10.1	3.2	6.9	-6.9	10.1	
Indonesia[5]	1959-61	49.9	18.7	31.4	68.6	50.1	
	1965-67	48.5	18.1	33.4	66.6	51.5	0
		-1.4	-0.6	2.0	-2.0	1.4	
Iran[6]	1959-61	32.9	31.1	36.0	64.0	67.1	
	1965-67	23.6	39.5	36.9	63.1	76.4	4.3
		-9.3	8.4	0.9	-0.9	9.3	
Korea, Rep. of[7]	1953-55	51.0	12.3	36.7	63.3	49.0	
	1966-68	35.9	28.3	35.8	64.2	64.1	3.8
		-15.1	16.0	-0.9	0.9	15.1	
Malaysia[8]	1955-57	33.5	22.0	44.5	55.5	66.5	
	1965-67	29.1	25.5	45.4	54.6	70.9	2.1
		-4.4	3.5	0.9	-0.9	4.4	
Pakistan[6]	1949-51	58.8	7.5	33.7	66.3	41.2	
	1966-68	45.5	17.7	36.8	63.2	54.5	1.8
		-13.3	10.2	3.1	-3.1	13.3	
Philippines[9]	1949-51	36.5	21.8	41.7	58.3	63.5	
	1966-68	30.8	22.9	46.3	53.7	69.2	2.8
		-5.7	1.1	4.6	-4.6	5.7	
Singapore[4]	1960-62	5.9	12.9	81.2	18.8	94.1	
	1966-68	4.1	18.1	77.8	22.2	95.9	4.7
		-1.8	5.2	-3.4	3.4	1.8	
Thailand[2]	1951-53	42.3	16.7	41.0	59.0	57.7	
	1966-68	30.6	22.7	46.7	53.3	69.4	3.8
		-11.7	6.0	5.7	-5.7	11.7	

Sources: Various United Nations and national sources. (Data received courtesy of ECAFE)

1. Three-year averages of industrial origin of GDP in constant factor cost at the beginning of the 1950s and at the end of the 1960s.
2. GDP at 1962 market prices.
3. GDP at 1958 factor cost.
4. GDP at current factor cost.
5. GDP at 1960 factor cost.
6. GDP at 1959 factor cost.
7. GDP at 1965 factor cost.
8. GDP at 1964 factor cost.
9. GDP at 1955 factor cost.

it manufactures for food produced elsewhere. Nevertheless, an efficient and prosperous agriculture will remain a pre-requisite for other developments. Whether comprising a majority or a minority of the sector measured, in any one country the rural component remains a foundation supporting a superstructure of urban settlements.[2]

Agriculture, which is not only a source of livelihood but also a way of life for the vast millions of rural population in the region, is in the beginning of a profound transformation. The recent biological breakthrough in agriculture, often called the "green revolution", brought about by the discovery and introduction of high-yielding and fast-maturing "miracle" varieties of food plants, has brightened the prospects of developing agriculture as a modern and viable sector of the economy. The sustained growth of the area under high-yielding varieties, increasing use of fertilizers and pesticides[3] and the expansion of irrigation facilities have added new dimensions to the prospects of agriculture.

This technological advance has also highlighted, however, the urgent need for developing a whole range of inter-related factors, without which the full benefits of new technology may fail to be realized or its further development may be retarded; e.g. storage and marketing, credit, land tenure, co-operatives, small scale industries and, not the least important, education of the rural population. The new discoveries like most "miracles", may contribute to a new problem, while providing a solution to an old one. A prominent economist has recently stated that the "green revolution" may weaken land reform,and cause credit co-operation and agricultural extension services to benefit those who are already better off. Labour-saving machinery would make underemployed agricultural workers

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2. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *op. cit.*

3. Massive use of some of these, however, itself constitutes a constant threat to the environment, through the killing off of animals, birds, and fish, as well as insects.

even less necessary and drive more of them to the cities where over-crowding is at the root of worsening living conditions.[4]

Another important change is the recent trend in a number of Asian countries to give increased attention to the development of small-scale industries as an instrument of rural development. Earlier, the primary emphasis was on large-scale industries set up in cities. A strategy of support for medium and small-scale industries, especially those connected with agriculture or production of producer and consumer goods needed by farmers, is now coming to be viewed as a means, on the one hand, of strengthening the industrial foundation and, on the other hand, of industrial decentralization and maximization of employment opportunity. This trend is further encouraged by a growing emphasis on national planning by regions within the country. In the earlier phase, economic planning was cast, almost exclusively, in terms of national aggregates. Inadequacies in implementation, emergence of imbalances between different parts and regions of the country, and the expression of dissatisfaction by sections of the population who felt themselves left out of development benefits, have drawn attention to the need for incorporating national regional planning as a tool of development planning. This approach, it is believed, will go a long way in correcting the balance of development effort which so far has weighed heavily against the rural sector and its population.

Education of rural population

The progress of education in rural areas has to be viewed against the background broadly presented in the preceding pages - the vast number involved, the changing population pattern, and the variety of rural environments in which new economic and social forces are at work.

An attempt to review systematically how far and in what form educational opportunities for the rural population have

4. This analysis was made by the economist Gunnar Myrdal in a keynote address which was read to the Third International Congress of Food, Science and Technology in Washington, D.C. on 10 August 1970. In the same paper, he noted that "work and income must be provided for the masses of the labour force that are confined to agriculture".

progressed is baffled by paucity of data. Very few countries in the region differentiate rural-urban sectors in their national educational statistics and there is yet little research on problems of rural education or the performance of the education system in the rural sector. As educational planning becomes more effective, it is to be hoped that improvement in the collection and analysis of essential data on the education of the rural population will provide a broader basis for policy formulations.

In a continent as vast and varied as Asia, reference to a "rural sector" covers in fact a very wide range of differences in environmental conditions. There are countries where high mountains and difficult terrain impose isolation and a pattern of very small population units on the rural scene; there are countries of large land mass and heavy population pressure; some countries are a chain of islands with varying population densities, their remoteness broken only by sparse means of communication. Within a country, also, the rural environment may vary greatly. There are peasant communities and large holdings; plantation estates employing wage-labourers and small family plots of small cultivators; the landless labourers and the traditional craftsmen; nomadic tribal groups and the "shifting" cultivators. In many countries, urbanization has centred on a single metropolitan city, commanding the heights of trade, business, industrial and governmental activities and the ruralness of the countryside is determined by distance from the metropolitan city.

Various as the rural environments are, there is one characteristic that is becoming common to them: they are all affected by change and by the new forces being released by social and economic factors at work.

The traditions of education in Asia are a part of the great civilizations which had their origin in Asia. The impact of the West, beginning in the seventeenth century and culminating in colonial domination of most of the Asian countries, superseded or totally disrupted traditional forms of education. New education systems were gradually established by the ruling power, modelled mainly on the systems in the metropolitan countries. Educational policies were centred on an "elite" concept of education and, in the result, the spread of education in rural areas,

primary or adult, was extremely slow. Opportunities for seeking a broader base for education came only after World War II when the countries regained the independence.[5]

Adult education and literacy

Based on previous census results and the output of formal education systems, it is estimated that in the Asian region, despite considerable efforts made over the last two decades, over one-half of the adult population (15 years and over) is illiterate. Although adult illiteracy rates have declined progressively, the process has not been fast enough to keep growth of literacy ahead of population increase and, as a consequence, the absolute number of illiterate adults has continued to rise - from 307 million in 1950 to about 315 million in 1960 and an estimated 324 million currently.

In this, as in all other indicators of levels of living, there is a marked urban-rural differential - the rural population lagging well behind. The high illiteracy rate in the rural population is further differentiated by an extremely high illiteracy rate among women in rural areas.

The diffusion of education is reflected in the educational attainment of the total population. Here also the unfavourable situation of the rural population stands marked out.

In the absence of systematic data for all countries, an attempt is made to convey an idea of the overall situation by presenting the data for some of the countries. Tables 5, 6 and 7 show for selected countries urban-rural differentials with reference to illiteracy rates, educational attainment of the population and educational attainment of the labour force. The data on illiteracy are derived from the last censuses where data are available. In a few countries (notably Iran) massive efforts have since then been launched to liquidate illiteracy and consequently the incidence of illiteracy there is declining rapidly.

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5. For a review of the historical background see "Reform and reorganization of education in the Asian Region" *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia*, Bangkok. IV(2), March 1970. p.7-16

The countries presented in these tables represent differing levels in the development of their formal education systems. For example in Ceylon and the Philippines, the enrolled population forms 22-24 per cent of the total population, while India, Iran and Indonesia have around 14 per cent and Nepal has about 5 per cent. Although it is to be expected that a higher level of adult literacy should be found with a higher level of development of the formal education system, it is also clear that the problem of adult illiteracy is not solved by development of the formal system only. Special measures have to be taken if the 'backlog' is to be cleared.

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Table 5. Urban-rural differentials in the illiteracy rate, by sex, selected countries (in percentage)

Country, census year and age-group	Area	Both sexes	Male	Female
Ceylon (1963)	Total	24.9	14.6	36.3
15 years and over	Urban	12.8	8.1	18.9
	Rural	27.9	16.4	40.3
India (1961)	Total	72.2	58.5	86.8
15 years and over	Urban	45.3	31.5	62.8
	Rural	78.4	65.4	91.8
Indonesia (1961)	Total	53.3	40.2	65.9
10 years and over	Urban	33.4	20.1	46.7
	Rural	57.0	44.0	69.4
Iran (1966)	Total	71.9	61.0	83.5
10 years and over	Urban	50.9	39.1	64.0
	Rural	86.3	76.5	96.6
Nepal (1961)	Total	91.2	83.3	98.5
15 years and over	Urban	38.0	...	...
	Rural	92.3	...	...
Pakistan (1961)	Total	81.2	71.1	92.6
15 years and over	Urban	63.3	52.6	78.9
	Rural	84.2	74.7	94.6

Table 6. Urban-rural differentials in the educational attainment of the population 25 years and over, selected countries (in percentage)

Country, census year and level of education	Urban population	Rural population
Ceylon (1963)	100.0	100.0
a) Less than 5 years and no schooling	39.9	62.7
b) 5 years and up to complete secondary	56.6	35.8
c) Higher education	3.5	1.5
India (1961)	100.0	100.0
a) Illiterate	50.0	81.1
b) Literate (no schooling)	25.1	13.8
c) Primary grades and up to complete secondary	15.0	4.3
d) Complete secondary and above	9.9	0.8
Indonesia (1961)	100.0	100.0
a) Less than 5 years	71.3	93.5
b) 5 years and up to complete secondary	28.1	6.4
c) Higher education	0.6	0.1
Iran (1966)	100.0	100.0
a) Less than 4 years	76.3	97.6
b) 4 years and up to complete secondary	21.4	2.3
c) Higher education	2.2	0.1

Table 7. Agricultural and non-agricultural labour force by level of education, selected countries (percentages)

Country and highest level of education attained	Total Labour Force	Agricultural Labour Force	Non-agricultural Labour Force
India (1961)			
Illiterate	72.9	80.9	54.6
Literate (without educational level)	17.1	14.1	23.9
Primary or junior basic	7.3	4.6	13.4
Matriculates	1.7	0.3	5.0
Intermediates	0.4	0.0	1.2
Graduates	0.6	0.1	1.9
Total: Percentage	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number (millions)	(188.6)	(131.1)	(57.4)
Iran (1966)			
Illiterate	73.2	87.7	60.7
Literates (no schooling)	6.2	5.4	7.0
Primary	14.1	6.5	20.6
Secondary	5.4	0.4	9.7
Higher	1.1	0.0	2.0
Total: Percentage	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number (thousands)	(6 837)	(3 164)	(3 672)
Pakistan (1961)			
Nil or below primary level	87.2	90.8	76.9
Primary (class V passed and above)	12.8	9.2	23.1
Total: Percentage	100.0	100.0	100.0
Philippines (1961)			
No grade completed	16.9	21.4	10.2
Primary education	62.8	69.1	53.5
Secondary education	14.0	3.5	22.2
Higher education	6.3	1.0	14.1
Total: Percentage	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number (thousands)	(9 400)	(5 617)	(3 783)
Thailand (1960)			
None	37.4	39.3	29.2
Grades I - IV	56.7	56.1	59.3
Grades V - XII	5.5	4.5	9.9
College	0.4	0.1	1.7
Total: Percentage	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number (thousands)	(12 682)	(10 342)	(2 340)

Sources: (1) Organization for Economic co-operation and Development. *Statistics of the occupational and educational structure of the labour force in 53 countries*. Paris, 1969. 287 p.

(2) Pakistan. Planning Commission. *Education and supply of manpower in Pakistan, 1961-66*. Part I, by R.A. Karwanski. mimeo.

(3) Iran. Plan Organization. *Report national census of population and housing, November 1966 total country*. [Teheran] 1968.

The response of the Governments to this massive problem of adult illiteracy in the rural population has varied from one country to another. In the earlier decades, mass movements for liquidation of illiteracy were organized. The gains were substantial in a few countries where measures were also taken to organize follow-up (e.g. by provision of reading materials). This was followed by another phase in which adult education and literacy were merged in the programmes of community development. In recent years a new awareness of the problem of adult illiteracy seems to be growing and the emphasis shifting to making literacy "functional" and "work-oriented".[6] This is pointedly illustrated in a recent Pakistan Government policy announcement:

> The extension of literacy is a pre-condition for success in any sphere of development. New ideas and new practices cannot be effectively communicated to minds which are not trained to receive and make use of them. The various efforts to organize community development programmes, agricultural extension, family planning, co-operative movement, and self-government are dependent for their success on a considerable dissemination of functional education enabling adults to improve their productivity in their respective occupations and their usefulness as citizens.[7]

Education systems and education for rural population

It is estimated as an order of magnitude, that there are in the rural population of the Asian region about 77 million children in the age group 6-12 who have yet to be provided effective access to education at the first level. Since the countries of the region are at different stages in development of

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6. The Unesco Regional Office, Bangkok, will publish in 1970 a relevant document: Study visit and seminar: Work-oriented Adult Literacy Pilot Project in Iran. *Final Report*. Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. (In preparation)

7. Pakistan. Central Bureau of Education. "The new education policy", *Pakistan Educational Review* (2) April 1970.

their education systems, the Asian Model of Educational Development[8] grouped the countries in three Groups with reference to the time in which they are likely to achieve universal compulsory education of at least seven years' duration.[9]

At the first level of education (primary), the enrolment ratios in Group A countries range from 20 to 40 per cent and the differential between urban and rural enrolments is high. Broadly stated, two-thirds or more of the rural children do not have access to schools.

In Group B countries, the enrolment ratios at the first level range from 40 to 75 per cent. Here also there is a marked differential between urban and rural sectors and since this is found in combination with a high dropout rate, effective educational opportunities for rural children do not cover more than 50 per cent of the age-group population - in some countries, it is considerably less.

Countries in Group C have enrolment ratios ranging from over 75 per cent to nearly one hundred per cent. Educational opportunities in urban and rural sectors are nearer equality, notably in countries which have legislated and enforced compulsory education.

There are important problems relating to the education of special groups in the rural population, such as ethnic and religious minorities. In addition, there are two special problems in regard to the schooling of children generally in the rural areas.

First is the problem of educational wastage, to a great extent through dropout, or premature withdrawal of children

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8. Unesco. *An Asian Model of educational development: perspectives for 1965-80. op. cit.*

9. Group A: Afghanistan, Laos, Nepal (after 1980)

   Group B: Burma, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Iran, Mongolia, Pakistan, Republic of Viet-Nam (by or around 1980)

   Group C: Ceylon, Republic of China, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand (before 1980)

from school.[10] It is a major phenomenon in almost all Asian countries and its incidence is particularly high among rural children. As a result of heavy erosion by dropout, enrolment ratios which are calculated on the basis of total enrolments at one level of education have to be drastically modified downward to give an accurate indication of effective enrolment. Taking the total enrolments (both urban and rural sectors) at the first level of education, it is estimated that of 100 children who enter grade I, only about 40 reach the last grade of (6 years in most countries) cycle. The highest proportion of dropout normally occurs between grades I and II.

Associated closely with dropout is the problem of repetition: the detention of a pupil in the same grade to repeat the work done in the previous year. Repetition, particularly when it occurs in the early grades, contributes to dropout - pupils who repeat may ultimately drop out.

The studies carried out in some countries of the region show that dropout and repetition take a bigger toll in rural schools. For example, a study made in Burma found that the dropout rate in rural schools was 73 per cent as against 61 per cent in urban school. In Iran, the percentage of wastage between grades I and VI was found to be 17 per cent in urban areas and as high as 57 per cent in rural areas. In the Philippines, a study was made which revealed that the holding power in grade VI in rural schools was less than half of the holding power of the same grade in urban schools.

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10. The problem of educational wastage in the Asian region is discussed in greater detail in *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia*, Bangkok, I(2) March 1967. (o.p.) Unesco (Paris) has made two studies of the problem for the XXXIInd Session of the International Conference on Education (1-9 July 1970, Geneva).

The Reduction of Educational Wastage. 104 p. (ED/BIE/CONFINTED/32/4)

The Statistical Measurement of Educational Wastage. Various paging. (ED/BIE/CONFINTED/32/Ref.1)

For statistical data by country, see also:
Unesco. Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok. *Progress of education in Asia, a statistical review.* Bangkok, 1969. 211 p. (p. 82-122, 167-191).

The other special problem is education of girls in the rural areas. There is a marked difference in the enrolment ratios for girls and boys in the rural population. In most countries, notably in Group B, expansion of educational facilities for the rural population means to a large degree the expansion of girls' enrolments.[11] The following table shows the percentage of girls in total enrolment in three selected countries and is indicative of the existing disparities as well as the magnitude of the effort needed to rectify them.

Table 8. Percentage of girls in total enrolment by urban and rural - selected countries

Country, year, grades	Urban areas	Rural areas	Total country
India (1965)			
Grades (I-V)	43.3	34.3	36.2
Iran (1968)			
Grades (I-VI)	44.8	23.0	36.1
Pakistan (1967/68)			
Grades (I-V)	37.6	25.7	28.5

The Great Gap: Education beyond the primary level

Beyond the first level of education, educational opportunities for the rural population diminish rapidly at each stage till they reach the narrowest point at the third level. Much of this is due to the physical location of educational institutions which at the post-primary stages tend to cluster in cities and towns. Selection procedures of admission and financial costs also work against the rural pupils.

11. For a detailed study of the problem of girls' education in rural areas, see: Unesco. *Access of girls and women to education in rural areas: a comparative study*. Paris, 1964. (Educational Studies and Documents, 51)

The most important gap is between the first and second levels of education: there are few facilities for the provision of educational facilities for the age-group 12-18 years, corresponding to high-school grades. In most countries there is an imbalance between the output of first-level education and the available facilities for further training and education before the young people enter the labour force. The chasm is wider in countries which provide a truncated primary education for rural children of only the first three or four grades. An illustrative example is the finding of the Second All-India Educational Survey that 27.42 per cent of the habitations in the rural areas were not served by any middle schools (grades VI - VIII) and nearly 40 per cent were not served by any secondary schools.[12]

From the point of view of human resource development (and for rural development, this is a fundamental problem), lack of facilities for education and training beyond the primary level is a crippling handicap. It means that the group of young people who complete grade V or VI, and in whom considerable investment has been made, have no opportunity to retain and use their skills of literacy nor do they have access to forms of education and training which will equip them to contribute more productively in the labour force.

There is a growing awareness in the region that a qualitative reorientation of education in rural areas is not possible unless there is a new approach to the provision of educational opportunities at the post-primary level. In some countries such as Republic of China, Republic of Korea and Malaysia, the duration of the first level of education is being extended to nine years. Provision is made for a diversified range of training and education in the last three grades but the nine-year span is treated as a unified whole. In the Philippines, the Barrio High Schools movement seeks to expand educational facilities by using community resources and the resources of elementary schools, linking the high schools in the barrios more closely to local development needs. The Republic of Viet-Nam and Indonesia have experimented with community

12. India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. *op. cit.*

schools and the concept has found favourable reception. In all countries, the search is for a form of institution which will be relevant specifically to the needs of rural areas.

Some problems of education in rural areas

Providing education which is qualitatively relevant and quantitatively adequate for rural areas presents a variety of problems. Some of these are concerned with questions of resources (both financial and real) while others are linked to fundamental issues of educational policy.

Should education in the rural areas have different purposes and orientation from these which are conceived for other pupils? Should the structural pattern of institutions be uniform throughout a country or are there special features of education in a rural environment which call for special institutional structures? Are the problems of rural children and of rural schools different in kind and degree from these of the urban sector? What is the function of the school in the community? Questions such as these raise fundamental issues to which clear answers are not always discernible in educational policies and plans.

During the colonial period, education systems, designed on metropolitan models, were first established in urban centres. In all their subsequent growth they retained their urban moorings, and such educational facilities as were provided for rural population were developed on a different and distinctly less attractive pattern.[13] The primary school, limited to instruction in the three R's, was virtually a terminal point of education, with only a few openings to one or two years of vocational training. Promotion from a rural primary school to a secondary school not only involved migration to a town or city but meant that the pupil had to spend another one or two years in "special class" before he could qualify for admission. As a result, a dual system of education evolved in which the

13. Development of education in the Philippines was an exception to this general pattern. See also "Reform and Reorganization in Education in the Asian Region," *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia. op. cit.*

rural side came to be equated with a different and inferior education. When the countries became independent, one of the first measures of educational reorganization initiated by most of them was aimed at abolishing the duality of the system. The growth of social consciousness in the general population and other political and economic developments have further stimulated attempts at evolving unified national education systems. At the same time, one cannot fail to notice a blurring in official recognition of the fact that there are certain special problems and features associated with education in rural areas. The assumption seems to be widespread that as resources increase and educational facilities are expanded in rural areas, these special problems will become marginal. The attitudes of rural parents who have associated "different education" for rural population with inferior "blind-alley" education have tended to strengthen this belief. It is perhaps significant that few educational policy statements or educational plans treat education for the rural population explicitly as a distinct issue for special consideration in programming.

Evolution of national education systems with common goals and purposes is a pre-requisite for a relevant and meaningful development of educational in a country. The main goals of education are the same for all communities, just as these communities, whether rural or urban, are seen as one nation. This concept is a reflection in education of wider social, political, economic and ideological forces which are making for a larger national identity, e.g. the emergence of national markets, greater mobility of population, influence of mass media. Seen in this light, the effort to find in education the means to keep the rural population from migrating to urban centres, with due regard nevertheless to the consequences of the rural exodus, may be as misplaced as it is unrealistic.

A unified education system does not mean uniform education, however, nor is it to deny that there are differences between urban and rural communities with respect to the ways and means of developing education programmes which are related to their needs and environment. The situation is not unlike what the educator has in relation to individual learners: while the goals of good education are the same, they are interpreted and realized through individual differences.

One of the conclusive findings of educational research is that equality of educational opportunity is not ensured only by access to education. If the education programme is not suited to the needs and environment of the pupils, it creates subtle and powerful barriers to their educational achievement and the realization of equal educational opportunity. The rural environment has its distinguishing characteristics, its points of strength as well as weaknesses; on the one hand, the small community with its close-knit social relationships and, on the other hand, an environment that is educationally impoverished. Expansion of existing educational programmes without modification of their heavy academic bias may therefore defeat the very purposes which a unified national education system should have in view.

Recognition is growing that rural development is an integrated process which is stimulated by the combined effect of a large number of inter-related factors of which education is one. The school therefore has to function also as an instrument of development along with other development agents. The curriculum of the school has to serve a wide range of objectives: to provide a sound foundation in basic educational skills, to develop an understanding and enquiring attitude toward the environment, and to acquire the skills and attitudes needed for adaptation to change.

In some countries, the concept of "community schools" is gaining acceptance; e.g. Thailand, Republic of Viet-Nam, Indonesia, Philippines. In some others an attempt is being made to reorient rural education by incorporating in it elements of community work and agricultural experiences (Indonesia, Cambodia, India, Ceylon). Illustrative of this renewed attention to rural education is the Philippines' experience of Barrio High Schools. Since it exemplifies admirably the constraints as well as the opportunities, it is quoted at some length:

" The purpose of the barrio high schools is fourfold: First, educational: to enable every boy and girl of high school age to complete the secondary course; to raise the educational level of rural communities; to strengthen the holding power and thus reduce the percentage of dropouts in the elementary grades; and to provide a close articulation between the elementary and secondary levels of instruction.

"Second, economic: to encourage and guide parents to raise their income by improving the productivity of their farms so that they can pay the tuition fees of their children, and to enable the students to earn part of their school expenses by engaging in home projects.

"Third, social: to reduce if not to eradicate juvenile delinquency by having the young people usefully occupied all the time...

"The high school classes are held in the elementary school buildings of the area. They use the classrooms, the garden and workshop tools, and the home economics buildings and equipment when not in use by elementary classes. Some enthusiastic parents have constructed additional buildings with funds and materials provided by themselves and others. Additional classrooms are not needed, as it is possible to get along with the existing rooms by staggering attendance of high school classes...

"Achievement of the set goals has been:

"1) Educational. More sixth-grade pupils were able to continue their studies. Academic achievement of the students was remarkable... In first-year reading, the median score of the students of the main high school was 4.40, whereas in Cabaruan it was 7.18; in Bactad, 9.54; and in Cabuloan, 7.73... In first-year general science, the main high school median was 15.45, whereas the corresponding figures for Cabaruan, Bactad and Cabuloan were 20.55, 25.45, and 24.39.

"In first-year arithmetic, the main high school median score was 12.00, whereas the corresponding scores in Cabaruan, Bactad, and Cabuloan were 11.69, 17.88, and 21.75. In the second year, the median scores were: main high school, 11.67; Cabaruan, 15.83; Bactad, 17.88; and Cabuloan 21.75.

"There was considerable improvement in environmental sanitation of the community, including an increase in the number of toilets, better cleanliness in home yards, more privacy in the homes, and the construction of "blind drainage". Students and parents learned the importance and uses of compost. The holding power of the barrio high schools was significantly higher than that of the main high school.

"2) Economic. Of 126 students in Cabaruan, 72 were engaged in poultry raising; 31 in piggery; 118 in home gardening; 31 in cattle raising; and 23 in other projects, such as bag making, slipper making, and basketry. In Bactad-Cabuloan, 23 had mudfish and "gourami" projects; 31 had orchards, 30 had piggeries; 37 had poultry; 38 had home gardens; and 37 made barachac bags and slippers. The farms were producing eggplants, tomatoes, corn or mongo.

"Among parents, 112 are now using some of the modern methods of farming, and have increased production. Piglets given to indigent students have been sold and the profits distributed. All the goats bore kids. Some of them were sold, and half the profit went to the students.

"3) Social. The problem of juvenile delinquency in the barrios has been definitely solved. According to the authorities of Urdaneta, not a single crime was committed in the three barrios by young people during the year."[14]

Curriculum development for rural environment, changes in teaching methods and objectives, adaptation of the school to developmental needs in rural areas - these are all continuing processes in the qualitative improvement of education. There are other problems and difficulties which lie within the immediate province of educational administration and management - training and supply of adequately prepared teachers, textbooks and instructional materials, school buildings and equipment, supervision and administration.

By far the most important of the problems is the preparation and supply of teachers. The schools that serve the rural population represent a great variety in size, structure and environment - from one-teacher schools to large and crowded secondary schools, schools in sparsely-settled areas to schools in rich agricultural lands. Although in the last ten years the total teaching staff has increased by 68%, enrolments have increased faster, with the result that pupil-teacher ratios at all levels and in most countries have risen. Since the supply of

14. Orata, Pedro T. "Barrio high schools and colleges," *International Review of Education* XII (4): 476-478, 1966.

teachers to rural areas has always lagged behind that for urban areas, rural schools generally have more crowded classes and shorter supply of teachers, particularly in curriculum areas which are of critical importance in the renovation of rural education: science and mathematics. The qualification level of the teaching staff in the rural areas is also appreciably lower than the national average.

In an earlier phase, when the output of the education systems was small and the systems served mainly the urban centres, the source for the supply of teachers for rural areas was limited to the pupil-teachers picked out from primary schools. In the last two decades the teacher training systems in all but a few countries have expanded on a scale that should ensure, subject to policies which give the teachers an incentive through good salaries and professional status, that the demand for teachers can be met quantitatively from the output of the system. Most countries in recent years have been following a policy of dispersing the location of educational institutions, and increasingly secondary schools and teacher training institutions (in some countries even universities and other third-level institutions) have been established in provincial towns, or district and sub-district townships.

The priority areas of need would now appear to be: the preparation of teachers for the kind of tasks that they have to carry out in the rural areas; continuously enriching their qualifications and educational experience to prevent the stagnation that isolation in the rural environment can impose; and supportive services for both teachers and learners.

In the training of teachers the crucial question is, should teacher education programmes be designed specifically for prospective teachers in rural areas, or should they be more general in their orientation to prepare teachers to serve anywhere? The assumptions underlying the existing teacher training programmes can be uncovered by an analysis of these programmes and prevalent practices. Very often, they retain their earlier urban orientation. In recent years in some countries, this has come under increasing challenge. The Indian Education Commission, pointing to some of the weaknesses in the system of professional education observed, "By and large, training institutions for primary and secondary teachers have

remained isolated from the main stream of the academic life of the university, as well as from the daily problems of the schools. The quality of training institutions remains, with a few exceptions, either mediocre or poor. Competent staff are not attracted; vitality and realism are lacking in the curriculum and programme of work which continue to be largely traditional...[15]

In the Philippines, education of teachers for rural areas recognizes the need for preparing teachers for their specific tasks.[16] In Thailand, teacher training for rural teachers is the spearhead of a programme aimed at linking education with the development of rural areas.[17] In Iran, the Army of Knowledge is designed not only to increase the supply of teachers but also to articulate training of teachers with the realities of the rural classroom.

There are two directions in which teacher education programmes for teachers in rural areas need to be re-examined. First is the role of the school and the teacher in overall rural development. Recent changes or suggestions for changes in teacher education programmes are directed mainly to increasing the teacher's understanding of the work of other development agencies and giving him some knowledge of agricultural processes and practices and the organization of community services. In a few countries, a beginning is being made with giving him training in methods of adult literacy.

The other area in teacher education programmes which needs to be re-examined is the preparation of teachers with reference to the specific problem of curriculum and instruction in rural schools; e.g. the problem of dropout and repetition,

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15. India. Education Commission, 1964-66. *Report.* New Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1966. 692 p.

16. Pires, E.A. "Training of primary teachers for rural schools", *Prospects in Education* (2):35-40, 1969.

17. Attagara, Bunthin "Rural Teacher Education in Thailand", *International Priorities for Teacher Education.* Washington, D.C., International Council on Education for Teaching, 1969. p. 6-9.

the special problem of teaching the beginning grades in rural schools, problems of multi-grade teaching in one- or two-teacher schools, making of teaching aids with local materials, teaching of scientific concepts, the use of environmental materials in teaching, teacher-made evaluation procedures, organization of extra-curricular activities for rural youth. It is in this area that progress in developing the curriculum for rural needs seems to be slow, principally because of lack of research and systematized experience about the learning processes in the rural environment.

The teacher in a rural school, even more than his urban counterpart, needs the stimulation of continuous education to renew himself professionally and to upgrade his qualification and competence. In most countries of the region, in-service training programmes are receiving increasing attention. The important question is how to make in-service education of teachers in rural areas a continuing process for qualitative improvement of education. Teacher training institutions could have an important role in providing professional guidance and services to teachers in schools. It calls, however, for a fundamental reorientation of the present outlook which treats pre-service and in-service forms of education as two distinct spheres of responsibility. In some countries (e.g. India, Pakistan), extension centres have been established to provide continuing educational services to in-service teachers. In others, it has been found necessary to establish separate institutions for the purpose, rather than use teacher training institutions. Television, radio, correspondence instruction and programmed learning offer new possibilities and new ways for dealing with problems which have so far eluded solution through traditional methods. They help to maximize the impact of high-level, and scarce, instructional competencies. Promising experiments in the use of these new techniques have been underway in some countries (e.g. use of T.V. in Singapore for in-service training of teachers; correspondence instruction for upgrading teacher qualifications in India and Indonesia).

The supporting services to rural schools (textbooks, instructional materials, audio-visual aids, school libraries) are, on the whole, far from adequate, which is reflected in the proportion of teacher / non-teacher expenditure in per-unit

cost - the teacher's salary accounting for 90-95 per cent of per-unit cost. Textbooks even at the primary level tend to be prepared uniformly, and in the absence of other instructional materials, the teacher has little guidance for adapting the text to the local environment. Where the teachers' teaching skills are limited, the textbook along with the school library is the oldest, and still the most effective, form of self-instructional device, particularly for children of more-than-average ability. The Republic of China has given particular attention to this problem and, with the assistance of UNICEF and Unesco, has published a series of over sixty titles, covering a wide range of subjects, for use as supplementary reading material in elementary (primary) schools.

In most Asian countries, the administration of education is on a centralized pattern, and inspectors and supervisors of rural schools are generally based in the cities or provincial towns. With the growth in the size of the education systems, the highly centralized pattern of administration is gradually giving way to a greater degree of decentralization, and education offices at district and sub-district levels are being strengthened. This trend is reinforced by the measures initiated in some countries to mobilize community contribution, in cash and kind, in support of rural schools. There are few systematic training programmes, however, for educational administrators generally or for those who have to deal with the special problem of rural education. More than management techniques, what is needed is an understanding and an appreciation of rural life and education.

As education expands and its range is increased, the problems of education for the rural population become more urgent and call for attention in national policies. The difficulty of identifying the basic issues and evolving alternative methods for their possible solutions is compounded by lack of adequate data and studies of rural environment and rural schools. The challenging opportunities to study, explore and innovate rural education have yet to find a response from educational researchers and planners.

UNGRADED LOWER PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDIA

by D.V. Chickermane

The concept of ungrading

Ungrading is now being tried out on an experimental basis in different types of small rural schools in India. This pattern has been suggested by the Indian Education Commission (1964-66) for reducing wastage and stagnation at the primary stage of education. As this programme of ungrading would be of interest to other countries in the Asian Region where there is a high proportion of wastage in primary education, it is proposed to present in this article the reasons for ungrading and the procedures followed in schools where ungraded instruction is being given.

The concept of ungrading can be clarified by comparing its pattern with a graded pattern of education. According to the Education Commission's Report,[1] the primary level of education is divided into lower primary and higher primary stages. The lower primary stage consists of the first four grades. A child is admitted to grade I at the age of six and is expected to complete one grade every year, hence four grades in four years, with the syllabus being divided accordingly.

What has been described above should occur normally and does happen in big cities. But this does not usually occur in rural primary schools. In many small schools where one teacher has to teach more than one class, pupils do not

1. India. Education Commission, 1964-66. *Report*. New Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1966. 692 p.

progress at the rate of one grade per year because they do not reach the standard expected at the end of the grade. They are presented for the annual test of the grade at the end of the year, are declared as failures, and are detained in the same grade for another year (and perhaps more). Some students do repeat the grade the next year, but some of them leave the school. These two situations, where a student is detained and continues in the same grade or where he "drops out" of school before completing the lower primary stage of education, are known respectively as repetition (sometimes referred-to as stagnation) and dropout. These two together, the former often leading to the latter, constitute educational wastage, and they are rampant in small rural schools. Figures of percentage distribution of enrolment for the primary stage of education have been published on page 155 of the Education Commission report. The figures for several school years have been extracted from the Report (Table 7.2) to give readers an idea of the high proportion of wastage occurring at the primary level of education.

Year	% of pupils in Grade I	% of pupils in Grade IV	% of pupils in Grade VIII
1911-12	100	20.1	2.8
1950-51	100	37.8	12.2
1965-66	100	36.7	15.4

Though the figures quoted above show an increase in percentage distribution of enrolment, and hence a reduction in wastage, it is not appreciable: even in 1965-66, the wastage in grades I-IV would amount to 63.3%. These figures pertain to a whole block, which comprises of rural as well as urban schools. If the figures were to be collected separately for rural areas, the percentage of wastage would be still higher; in fact the bulk of wastage would come from this area.

There are several factors which lead to the high rate of wastage. One of them is irregular attendance of children in rural areas. During harvesting season, children are taken away from schools for work on the farm. Some families migrate to other villages in search of work. Due to irregular

attendance, children lag behind others in schoolwork and consequently do not come up to the expected standards in the school annual examination.

One way to eliminate repetition is to eliminate the existing system of promotion examinations by adopting an ungraded system. In this system the whole stage of education (or the part of the stage which is ungraded) will be treated as one continuous block. Because there will be no annual promotion examinations for this period, the child will not be detained at any period of the ungraded block but he will progress at his own rate. If he remains absent for some periods, he can pick up the thread on his return and proceed faster to make up for the shortfall due to his absence in order to attempt to come up to the level of other students.

The suggestion for the use of the ungraded pattern in reducing wastage made by the Indian Education Commission appears in the report as follows: "The exam ation at the end of Class I should be abolished and the first two classes (and wherever possible, even the first three or four) should be regarded as one teaching unit, within which each child can progress according to his own pace." [2]

Techniques of ungrading

The ungrading of some grades would not mean merely the elimination of the annual promotion examination. It is a different pattern of working. The present pattern of grades throws more responsibility on the teacher than on the pupil: the teacher is expected to cover the prescribed syllabus within the prescribed period of time. In the ungraded pattern, on the other hand, more responsibility for his own progress falls to the pupil. Since children in the same class are working at different levels, instruction must be individualized in some subjects, enabling pupils with varying abilities to learn at varying paces. For facilitating individualization of instruction, the syllabus for the period of the ungraded unit must therefore be recast into a series of graded self-study assignments to be covered by the child individually with the help of the teacher.

2. *ibid.* p. 157.

In some subjects the formal lecture-type of class teaching is reduced to a minimum, with the greater portion of time spent in supervised self-study by the children. [3] The technique of ungraded teaching can therefore be viewed as resolving itself into two steps:

1. Divising graded self-study assignments, and
2. Organizing class work for promoting self-study of the graded assignments.

Taking up the first step, an essential feature of the self-study assignments is that they be based on the syllabus for an entire course. When the lower primary stage of education is taken for ungrading, the syllabus for the basic subjects for the entire stage must be recast into self-study assignments. The Education Commission specified the nature of the recommended syllabus for the lower primary stage of education in its report as follows: "The proposed curriculum for these classes (Classes I-IV) is very simple and reduces the load of formal subjects. Only language and elementary mathematics are to be specially emphasised with a view to developing the basic tools of learning. The study of the environment will be largely informal in the beginning and will be provided by making the child observe his immediate social and physical surroundings and talk in class about what he observes." [4]

The self-study assignments are thus necessary for language and elementary arithmetic which are regarded as the tool subjects. As for study of the environment, a series of graded assignments is not necessary as the work will be organized through activities and discussions in the class based on these activities. A self-study assignment is composed of three parts. The first part consists of the matter to be studied individually by the child. Such matter will be given to him in loose-sheet form. The second part of the

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3. Although in this system the teacher's work involves much less lecturing, he will need a sound knowledge of his subject matter, and a good imagination, in order to help each pupil to progress to his capacity. - *Editor*

4. *ibid.* p. 188

assignment consists of drill or fixation material based on the first part, designed to fix the matter studied. The third part of the self-study assignment consists of evaluation material.

When the child completes all three parts of the assignment, he is ready to take up the assignment next in the scale. All the assignments in the subject are to be prepared on this basis and supplied to the child. This is a task requiring a very large amount of labour at the beginning, but if we want to introduce the self-study pattern, such graded assignments cannot be eliminated. An essential part of this step will be the evaluation and revision of the self-study assignments.

As the second step in ungrading the curriculum, it is necessary to devise a pattern of work in which the child can get through the assignments smoothly. One recommended system is that of co-operative learning, a pattern in which children are paired or grouped in such a way that they will do their self-study with the help of their mates. This pattern of co-operative learning obtains already to some extent. It is usual for some children to help others. But this pattern is dominated by lecture teaching, and students' learning on their own is sporadic. In the non-graded pattern, co-operative learning will be a regular feature. Once the assignment is given, children will fall to work in pairs or groups as they may be required to do according to the work schedule. It is this pattern of co-operative work that sustains the individualization of instruction in ungraded schools.

Carefully maintained records form an essential feature of work in the ungraded system. Three types of records can be maintained. One type is the individual progress sheet of the child. As the child advances in the scale of assignments, he will note his progress on his record card, which in turn may be checked by the teacher. The record will show when the child started an assignment, when he completed it and when he began a new one. This data may then be transcribed to the class record sheet. The class record sheet will show the names of all children in the group and show their position on the last day of each month, and also show how the whole class is progressing on the assignment scale in each subject for which assignment scales have been devised. A

third type of record that might be helpful in judging the progress of the programme is the annual progress record. This will be prepared on the basis of the monthly class record for the whole year. These three types of records can be developed one from the other in succession in order to evaluate the programme itself and pupils' individual performance.

A seminar of the representatives and workers in different States in India was held by the National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, in January 1970. The main object of the seminar was to devise action programmes for reducing educational wastage at the lower primary stage of education. One of the major recommendations of the seminar was the ungraded pattern of working. Such patterns were to be tried out in two forms, viz., in the first two grades in the larger schools and in grades I to IV in single-teacher schools. A programme of the ungraded pattern of teaching has been introduced in twenty single-teacher schools of the Gargoti area on an experimental basis. All of the schools have introduced the ungraded pattern of work for all students of lower primary, representing four consecutive age-groups during the academic year 1969-70.

The single-teacher schools where this experiment is being tried out had already developed a work plan for improving instructional procedures in single-teacher schools. This work plan, in operation since 1965, included in it graded self-study assignments, grouping of children for co-operative learning, and activity methods of instruction, all of which provided the necessary background for non-grading. [5] The programme is being closely watched and has future promises not only in the matter of reduction of educational wastage but also in the general improvement of the lower primary stage of education in respect of curriculum, methods of teaching and equipment and materials required in rural schools.

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5. Chickermane, D.V., and Mali, M.G. *The single-teacher school; a study.* Gargoti, District Kolhapur, Maharashtra, G.K. Institute of Rural Education, 1968.

SHORT HISTORY OF RURAL EDUCATION IN JAPAN

by Yotaro Hamada

The purpose of this article is to describe in brief the history of rural education in Japan from 1868, the beginning of the modern era, to the present, and to point out the contemporary problems confronting rural education.

People traveling in this country used to be surprised to find Western-style buildings standing in sharp contrast to the surrounding farm houses with straw-thatched roofs. It is no longer a rare thing to find Western-style buildings even in remote mountainous areas, but such buildings were considered rather strange prior to 1945. The fact that those which existed were primary school buildings provides an important key to the evaluation of rural education in this country.

In 1872, the Government promulgated an "Education Order," under which compulsory education was put into force. Under this measure, 12,592 primary schools were established in 1873 and 25,459 in 1877, with a male primary school enrolment ratio of 53.5%. At that time, farmers in rural villages accounted for more than 80% of the total population.

The village as an administrative unit in Japan was established in 1888 as an integral part of the basic local autonomy system, with its basic form being retained until the 1950s. The number of municipalities evolved from 39 cities and 15,859 towns and villages in 1888 to 99 cities, 1,528 towns, and 10,292 villages in 1930.

Comparison of the above figures leads to the conclusion that more than one school was provided to every village. Thus the facilities which eventually became the foundation of rural education were established, although coercively,

at about the same time as the beginning of the development of Japan as a modern nation.

The establishment of primary schools, however, proved a big financial burden for those who were responsible for their founding, and it was not welcomed by the average farmer. Most of the farmers at that time led a hand-to-mouth existence, and their agricultural techniques were so simple that they could easily manage their farms by merely continuing with the methods employed by their parents. As a result, farmers had very little desire for better education. Moreover, they were unable to accustom themselves to the inharmonious Western-style school buildings that suddenly appeared in their villages, and were opposed to sending their children to school, since they relied on them as farm workhands. The rise in school enrolment therefore levelled off and did not surpass 80% until as late as 1901. To accomplish this, various measures, both compulsory and promotional, were undertaken.

But the enrolment and attendance of school children was not the only important result of having such schools. The primary school was regarded as a sort of symbol of civilization, and actually played a role as a cultural centre. It functioned not only as the rallying place of school children, but also as an assembly hall and a source of new information for local villagers. School teachers were considered the source of rural culture and education.

In rural villages, there were only a handful of people, other than school teachers, who underwent any intellectual training. In other words, although Japan was rapidly absorbing Western culture, it was extremely difficult in rural villages to find any pioneer of the new culture other than the teachers. Consequently, the social status of teachers in rural villages was much higher then than it is today. Judging from the fact that, even today, teachers in remote mountainous areas or isolated islands mediate in others' quarrels, give advice on the village's development plans, comment on newspaper stories, and even serve as village doctor at times, in addition to carrying out their teaching duties, the function of the school as a cultural centre should be readily understood.

As another key to the evaluation of rural education in Japan, there is the traditional village structure. While the municipal administrative system was implemented in 1888, an autonomous body called "mura," which became the base of the new administrative unit, had existed as a centre of rural life long before. The new system was designed to keep the "mura" in existence as a collective unit, not through written law but rather through practice. Both the control of irrigation facilities and the management of grass-lands, the villagers' joint assets, were essential in maintaining an agriculture centering on the cultivation of paddy-fields. And the system of mutual aid on such occasions as the coming of age, marriage, funerals, ancestral worship, and emergencies was vital to the farmers. For the purpose of meeting these needs, a sort of social class order had taken shape in the "mura." Although many factors were used to classify rural inhabitants into different classes, there were two major factors that should be mentioned. One was the economic factor, based on the formula of land ownership, as indicated in such ranks as landlord, owner-farmer, owner-tenant farmer, tenant-owner farmer, and tenant farmer. The other factor was based on blood relationship or origin of birth, as indicated in the terms "head family" and "branch family." With these two main (and interrelated) factors, the social order in the "mura" had been formed under the principle of protection and subordination.

Except for some modifications, this structure was retained until the farmland reform of 1947. Under a setup in which most of the landlords and owner farmers were head families while most of the tenant farmers were branch families, the system of mutual aid among the villagers worked according to a combination of rational economic considerations and emotional considerations based on blood ties. The most important consideration that governed this social order was the "peace of the village," for which individual complaints had to be restrained.

This social structure was related to the educational system in the following way. Under the dual school system that was set up, until the end of World War II, whether and

how far a child might advance to higher grades often depended on what particular social class he was in: the children of landlords advanced to schools of higher education, those of owner farmers or owner-tenant farmers went as far as secondary school (i.e., in terms of the old system to a middle school, agricultural school, or normal school), and the children of tenant-owner farmers and tenant farmers did not advance beyond elementary school.

For many years, the social origin (or status) of the students of normal schools was quite different from that of the students of other institutions of higher education. Most normal school students came from rural villages, so that elementary school teachers were for the most part the children of owner farmers. Thus the children of owner farmers secured positions as intellectual-teachers while their families continued to work on the native farms. In this way the owner farmers formed the leadership group in rural society and their children received intellectual training. It is therefore easy to understand why teachers had a rather high social position in rural villages, and why the schools in rural villages played a role as local cultural centres. Owner farmers thus obtained the double advantage of being able to prevent their successors from leaving the village and to consolidate their leading position in the village. At the same time, the village was able to secure educated leaders for agricultural education who were fully acquainted with the local situation.

In the meantime, the owner farmers, who had their children advance to agricultural schools (i.e. who had the financial capability of giving their children a secondary education) were able to secure successors for their farms on the one hand, and to modernize farm management on the other, by using the agricultural techniques their children learned at school. They were thus able to improve their relative financial position in the village, as a result of which they became agricultural - and then political - leaders in the village.

In the initial stage, agricultural schools were opened not only to teach the students agricultural techniques but

also to train the future leaders of the village. In reality, most of the administrative leaders in villages up to the present time have taken the course described above.

In view of such circumstances, favourable consideration and treatment were given by villagers to those youths who were looked upon as potential village leaders. Such young people were often provided fields for experimentation by landlords who were interested in the testing of new crops or techniques.

Landlords who could afford to have their children undergo higher education (mainly those with large and medium-sized holdings) did not especially feel the need of having their children settle in rural villages after graduation. As has occurred everywhere, many of their children left the farm villages to live in urban areas; those who chose to live in rural villages after completing higher education were treated as high-ranking advisers of the village. Guidance on agricultural techniques, including land improvement, therefore, was usually provided under the guidance and direction of the absentee landlords and owner farmers.

The farm villages were managed chiefly by these persons, who could provide both agricultural and administrative guidance for the village. And with the participation of teachers, who took the role of cultural advisors, these central leaders were in charge of education and the maintenance of the traditional order in the village.

In the preceding discussion, agricultural education has been outlined from the standpoint of personnel. The following discussion will deal with content.

One of the principles that affected the content of rural education in Japan was that of the separation of urban from rural villages. In other words, the secluded nature of farm villages was emphasized as the means of maintaining the peculiar structure of farm villages.

A gap in both economic power and cultural facilities necessarily arises between rural villages restricted to agricultural activity and urban areas with secondary and

tertiary industries. It should therefore be taken for granted that, when urban areas are in a period of business boom, the tendency of farmers to migrate from rural villages to urban areas is difficult to stop, especially when they are also attracted by urban comforts and the excitement of modern living. It could be seen, however, that a large agricultural labour force was needed since it was considered necessary to increase the amount of manpower in order to increase production. Consequently, in Japan's agricultural industry, which was based on the family work unit, the size of farm households had to be larger than that of urban households, with the families of three or four generations often compelled to live together in the same house. Actually, as of 1920, the ratio of those households of three generations living together stood at 37.8 for the agriculture-forestry-fishery industry areas, as against 16.6 for the commercial-manufacturing industry areas.

In order to maintain this situation and make the rural people accept it more fully, efforts were made to give them a sense of moral superiority by telling them that (1) rural life was much more wholesome and human than urban life, (2) agriculture was the most important task for the nation, (3) the spirit of protection and subordination in upholding the family system was an important traditional virtue in Japanese society, (4) rural villages abounded with natural beauty, and (5) work was the most important thing in life. All of these ideas were emphasized in order to get rural people to realize that rural villages were entirely different from urban areas.

The village social structure and the position of leaders were considered highly conducive for the introduction of such ideas as the nucleus of rural education. Because such a basis for education was consonant with the national policy of the country, as well as with the people's conception of making much of the parent-child relationship and humaneness, rural education based on these ideas was rather successful. As a result, farmers who considered hard work the most important thing in life were brought up and became the core of 5.5 million farm households.

Meanwhile, urban life and thinking continued to develop independently and in a very different direction from that

of rural areas. Indeed, it was only after World War II that rural villages and rural education underwent drastic changes.

The farmland reform enforced in 1947 and 1949 led to radical changes in the social system which had served to keep the previous order stabilized in the rural community. Under laws limiting the amount of land-holdings, the landlords, who did not till the land by themselves, were deprived of much of their land and nearly all of the farmers became owner farmers. At the same time, the educational system, which had been organized and utilized to maintain the social class system, was converted into a unified system that made it possible for anyone with financial and academic capabilities to advance to educational institutions of the highest level. The common farmers, whose status was upgraded to that of land-owner, through the farmland reform, naturally came to have an increased desire for greater production. At the same time, however, they were in the position of having to make their living by themselves or with the assistance of the national Government, since they did not have the benefits of the previous system of social protection and subordination. That is, the old structure, under which they had been able to somehow manage things by merely obeying the instructions of the village leaders, had collapsed and each individual farmer now had to study by himself to improve his intellectual standing and ability. It became possible for former tenant farmers to give their children more education, partly because their financial position had improved, and partly because the period of compulsory education was extended from 6 years to 9 years.

Meanwhile, agricultural techniques were advancing at an amazing pace. With new chemicals, machines, and fertilizer being developed one after another, farmers had to study more, and the formula for agricultural management was switched from the previous one of heavy dependence on manpower to one based upon the saving of manpower. As a result of such changes, the aspect of rural education shifted from an emphasis on moral education to an emphasis on the provision of increased opportunity for the acquisition of new techniques. Extension work for joint agricultural management, set up to facilitate the spread of various agricultural techniques, also began to be carried out under the initiative of the national Government.

In the meantime, apart from the internal changes in farm villages and in agriculture itself, changes in the surrounding environment also took place. Along with the progress of high economic growth, the rural labour force began to decrease as young people moved to the urban areas, and farmers began to be faced with the problem of guaranteeing a successor to carry on the work. Moreover, the exceptional development of the trend toward an informed society promoted the disintegration of the previous idea of separating rural villages from urban areas, which had been the guiding principle of rural education. The urbanization of rural villages tended to destroy the differences between urban areas and rural villages in all aspects. It has become almost impossible to draw a distinct line between urban districts and rural villages, either economically or culturally. Amendments of the Civil Code have begun to shake the family system that had formed the foundation of the social structure in rural villages. The problems in rural villages have been becoming similar to those in urban areas.

The principle of rural education that had applied up to World War II has ceased to apply in its original form. As a consequence of radical changes in the pre-war principles, a new call has come to be made for the improvement of the educational standard of rural villages, with major emphasis on rational ways of thinking. At the same time, the extinction of the secluded nature of these villages has led to improvement of both the cultural and economic standards of rural society. These changes, however, have tended to destroy the stability and integrity of the values that had previously governed rural society.

The future problems of rural education lie in three main areas: (1) the development of a source of unity for rural villages, (2) the provision of successors to farm workers through technical agricultural education, and (3) the provision of rural leaders. One certain way of solving some of these problems is to develop the type of farmers who are willing to think things out by themselves and stand on their own feet.

EDUCATION IN THE RURAL ENVIRONMENT IN LAOS

by Khamphao Phonekeo

The rural character of the country

In considering education in Laos, education in the rural environment comes first to mind because the country is essentially rural. As in other countries, education in Laos is a channel for the development of the whole country, particularly the villages (for which it reflects the standard of living, this being in proportion to the local importance given to it).

It may be said that 85% of the population, and perhaps more, lives in villages or hamlets of fewer than 5,000 inhabitants. The few cities which do exist constitute an urban population estimated at less than 300,000 out of a total population estimated to be 2,893,000 (forming a ratio of approximately 11%). This population is very unevenly distributed, and immense regions remain uninhabited. The population density amounts to about 12 inhabitants per sq. kilometre. Today's population is triple the 1921 population which was evaluated at 922,000. At the present time, youths of less than 15 years of age account for 42% of the total population, and 52% of the active population (the group aged between 15 and 54 years).

The Laotian family, whether rural or urban, contains an average of 6 persons. From the ecological point of view, two types of family exist: those of the plains (70% of the population) and those of the mountains (30% of the population).

In relation to Vientiane, the Capital, the importance of the cities is approximately proportional to the number of their

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This article has been translated from the French.

inhabitants : Vientiane - 170,000; Savannakhet - 50,000; Paksé - 30,000; Luangprabang - 25,000; Khammouane - 13,000 (1968 figures). The other "cities" do not really possess urban characteristics. Rather, they are large rural aglomerations performing one or two urban functions; such is the case for Sayaboury, Saravane, Houeisai and others.

Ninety per cent of the Laotian population lives from agriculture, livestock raising, fishing, or forest exploitation. The rural Lao rarely knows hunger: he can always find enough to eat during difficult times, while life in the city seems more forbidding to him.

Laotian cities develop fairly rapidly, however, while the rural regions remain in a state of relatively little development: technical progress filters into these regions only in droplets. The transport and communications network is very thin in the country: fewer than 2,000 kms. of railways are found for the total area of 236,800 sq. kms. These routes, furthermore, are only usable irregularly, either because they need to be rebuilt or because the absence of security does not permit their use. Thus relations between the cities and rural regions remain very limited.

The effects of this compartmentalization make themselves felt particularly in the economic sector. In looking at the settlements which are found along the Mekong, for instance, one has a strong impression that they turn their backs to the inland country, which is to say to the rural areas, and look only toward the foreign lands (with whom they have steady commercial exchange.

At the social and cultural level, however, the gap scarcely exists; the ancient Buddhist tradition remains as solidly rooted in the cities as in the rural regions. And a long step forward was made when the Reform of education was passed in 1962 allowing the Royal Government to take the necessary measures to facilitate access to education for all citizens.

Principles of the Reform of 1962

The present education system stems from the Royal Ordinance No. 248 of 31 July 1962 which may be considered as being the national Education Charter. It brought a spirit of

democracy and a rural orientation to the instruction in nearly all of its aspects.

Since rural education had been neglected for a very long time, the Reform affirmed the desire of the Royal Government to remedy this situation and consequently to develop education at the village level. "Education is at the service of the entire Laotian community", states the Ordinance, adding that education "would not serve to perpetuate privilege; on the contrary, its national role would be to permit the best endowed children, whatever their social origins, to have access through instruction to the positions of responsibility which they are the best suited to fill for the development of the country". On the other hand, "Laotian education will aim toward making young people physically healthy, morally balanced, having the ability to live with their fellowmen, capable of performing their job well, attached to their village, happy in their village ...". It is toward this end that the Rural Centres of Community Education which bear witness to the practical spirit of Reform were created.

The education system

Secondary education is practically non-existant in the rural areas : the high schools and colleges are principally confined to the urban centres of more than 10,000 population, although an extension of the colleges toward the developed rural zones can now be seen. Even though it is growing, however, secondary instruction still reaches only a tiny minority, as there are just 6,000 pupils in secondary schools as against 190,000 in primary.

When we speak of education in the rural environment, therefore, we speak mainly of primary education. This includes two cycles or stages of three years of study each, or six years in all. During the first cycle (elementary cycle) the instruction is given entirely in Lao language, while French is compulsory in the second or complementary cycle. At that stage, 10% of class hours weekly are chosen for instruction in French.

The rural centres of community education (CREC), or community schools : These schools represent the specifically

rural system of instruction. In reality, the rural centres, of which the total number reached 842 in 1969 for the entire country, are nothing more than primary schools offering three years of study. The only difference between these and the official schools is that the teachers of the centres are not Government officials : the Government confines itself to offering them a monthly allocation which equals roughly one-tenth of the salary of a beginning teacher, the remaining nine-tenths being furnished in theory by the villagers, either in kind (rice, fish, etc.) or in money obtained through voluntary contributions of the parents of pupils. The teacher lives therefore off the community to which he belongs. This system is not authorized in the cities nor in important rural agglomerations which already possess a teacher in the civil service. This is due to the apprehension that the teacher of the rural centre will feel deprived in relation to the teacher who carries out the same kind of work but receives considerably higher pay. The teacher of the rural centre is chosen by the villagers from among the best educated and most respected of the community. The primary education inspector has the candidate pass a test, then sends him to undergo an accelerated course of teacher training before definitely hiring him. The majority of these teachers have only a certificate of primary studies, or Maha 4 which is the fourth year of religious instruction in the pagoda.

The elementary schools: This is the type of school which occurs the most frequently in rural regions. There were 3,000 in 1969, of which only 10% were found in urban areas. In fact, elementary schools are disappearing in the large urban agglomerations where there exists a heavy concentration of children of school age. In these agglomerations, combined schools consisting of primary schools which offer two complete cycles (6 years) have been started. About 60% of the combined schools are found in the cities and 40% in the rural areas.

The elementary schools and the rural centres constitute the infrastructure of rural education at the level of the hamlet or village. In the villages where there are few children, the elementary school may very likely have only one classroom for three classes; on the other hand, it may have three classrooms for three teachers in the regions where the number of children is greater.

In most villages, the first-year classes are on double or triple sessions per day, according to the number of pupils, in the most developed rural centres. Pupils who have completed their studies at the elementary school of their village must, if they want to continue in fourth-year classes, enrol in a combined school which may be as much as 10 kilometres from their homes as these establishments are still very rare in the rural areas. Over the past four or five years, however, the establishment of rural combined schools has increased.

Combined and single schools :[1] A primary school which does not yet have the two cycles but is in process of acquiring them is called a "single school". The Ministry of National Education has not made this term official : no ministerial decree has been promulgated to this effect as has been done for primary schools and combined schools. The single schools must be mentioned as such in the statistics, however, if we wish to plan for the establishment of combined schools. In this regard, the internal regulation for primary education stipulates in its Article 7 the following conditions :

1. To transform an elementary school into a single school, it is required that : (a) the total enrolment be at least 120; (b) the nearest combined school be more than five kilometres away; (c) there exist at least three schools in the area, from which the pupils will enrol in Grade IV.

2. In order to transform a single school into a combined school, it is required that : (a) the total enrolment be at least 180 (except in the case of an isolated school); (b) it have at least five classrooms corresponding to the norms cited above (Article 6); (c) it include a class at Grade VI which has functioned for a year with a minimum of 20 pupils; (d) it contain lodgings for the principal of the school.

This regulation, which gives the basic criteria, will thus permit the administration and inspection of the installations. The enrolment in combined schools in the cities may vary from 1,000 to 3,000 pupils per school, while the primary schools, limited as they are in enrolment, may have up to 300 pupils.

1. In the French: *Groupes scolaires et demi-groupes.*

Examination Centres for the end of primary study are organized in the large agglomerations which can be easily reached by the pupils of several combined schools. There are now 149 such examination centres for 220 combined schools in the country. The Ministry of Education is attempting to decentralize as much as possible the examination centres in order to reach the largest possible number of rural pupils. This is in order to permit the rational selection of the most intelligent children in the villages, thereby conforming to the spirit of the Reform.

Problems of education in the rural environment

Like all developing countries, Laos has its problems which are inherent to rural education, stemming from the rural exodus, educational wastage (dropout and repetition), an insufficient number of trained teachers, and lack of instructional equipment and materials. To these problems, which are common to most Asian countries, are added in Laos social, economic and military problems. These difficulties are accentuated even more by the absence of security. A peculiar phenomenon, however, is that the war has not influenced the regular rate of increase in enrolment in primary schools over the last ten years : the annual increase in enrolment has been between 12,000 and 15,000 since 1962.

The rural exodus : Because of the absence of security and diverse difficulties of rural life, the rural people - particularly the young - continue to leave their villages. This migration causes a great change in the education of the children, who must of course accompany their parents. This change has even meant that some village schools have closed their doors because of the progressive reduction in enrolment. Thus the social and economic infrastructure of the country lacks harmony and planning. Liaison between the villages and the cities is difficult and rare.

Educational wastage : Dropout and repetition are problems which effect most Asian countries and particularly those countries which have inherited a French system of education. In Laos, educational wastage amounts to between 70 and 80% between Grade I and Grade VI. In 1963, as an example, there

were 57,980 pupils in Grade I; in 1969, there were 9,733 pupils in Grade VI. The loss is consequently very high.

The number of pupils in the elementary cycle of primary education represents 80% of the total number of pupils; of this number, 30 per cent are in urban centres. Educational wastage is more pronounced in the rural areas; the repetition rate being 33% as compared to just 15% for urban areas. The causes of this are numerous. On the economic plane, the parents in the villages use the labour of their children. On the social plane, the custom in certain rural areas does not authorize the enrolment of girls in school or does not allow them prolonged studies. With regard to public health, there continues to be a high infant-mortality rate in the village, while the rate is decreasing where the inhabitants are nearer to well-equipped hospitals and are familiar with personal and social hygiene. There are also technical problems which accelerate wastage: the enrolment age in rural areas is too high and there are few qualified teachers due both to the rural exodus and to the absence of security in remote areas; because of the insufficiency of teachers, one teacher must take charge of from 60 to 70 pupils per class, and even as many as 90 in certain areas.

Teaching personnel: The professional quality of teachers of primary schools of today is an inheritance of the past; 75% of them have only a certificate of primary studies with one or two years of teacher training, 22% have a diploma of studies of the first cycle of secondary education (D.E.P.C.), or of a comparable level, and 3% have reached a level equal to or higher than the diploma of completion of secondary studies (baccalaureate).

It would therefore appear difficult to expect a satisfactory result from them. Seventy per cent of the primary teachers are teaching in the elementary cycle of primary education. The village schools thus absorb nearly all of the qualified teachers. It should be noted that, owing to the difficult conditions of life in rural areas, the best-trained teachers do not readily accept being sent there. As the colleges and high schools are all found in the cities, the teachers posted to distant regions are concerned about the difficulty that their children may have if they must go to the city in order to enter

secondary school. Even though the primary teachers are highly regarded by the village population, therefore, only a very few of them are willing to teach in rural areas - even if it is just to return to their own village.

This problem can only be resolved if the recruitment of candidates for the teacher training schools (which are also situated in the cities) is made in accordance with the requirements in teachers for the village schools. For the entrance examinations there should be lenience in favour of the candidates who come from the villages and who would be willing to return to their village when they finish their teacher training.

The Reform of 1962 brings numerous solutions to the problems of education in the rural environment. Its practical application, however, remains difficult owing to the political situation of the country. Nevertheless, the progressive growth of school enrolments which has taken place since 1962 is a source of satisfaction. On the long-term plan projected in collaboration with Unesco in 1963,[2] Laos is fairly near the target enrolment for primary education: the plan forecasts for 1970 an enrolment of 203,000 pupils whereas enrolment is now at 190,000. The minimum of 186,000 pupils set in the plan for this year has been surpassed.

The great problem for Laos is secondary enrolment, which barely reaches two-thirds of the figure foreseen for the minimum plan.[3] The Government has made a great effort, however, by establishing colleges and high schools since the year 1963-64 allowing the number of pupils entered in secondary schools to double in six years. But more new colleges and high schools need to be established and distributed as widely as possible in rural areas in order to be able to solve the problems of education there. This expansion is inhibited by the situation with regard to national teacher training which

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2. Unesco. Mission consultative régionale pour la planification de l'éducation en Asie. *Projections à long-terme de l'éducation au Laos*. Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1965. 61 p.

3. Referring only to general education (high schools and colleges).

has existed in Laos (and still in an embryonic stage) only since 1964. The future College of Education, which is expected to be established with assistance from Unesco, can help toward the solution of a number of the existing problems.

Selected Education Statistics for Laos, 1968-1969

	Urban[1]	Rural	Total
Total population	282 000	2 611 000	2 893 000
Primary enrolment	35 000	155 000	190 000
Secondary enrolment	4 465	1 114	5 579
Rural centres (CREC)	0	528	528
Elementary schools	47	1 000	1 047
Single schools	19	147	166
Combined schools	41	168	209
High schools (Baccalaureate)	4	-	4
Colleges (4 years only)	2	10	12

1. Includes only five cities: Vientiane, Savannakhet, Luangprabang, Paksé and Khammouane.

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THE SOCIOLOGY OF RURAL EDUCATION IN LAOS

by Liliane Nhouyvanisvong

The following article, also contributed for publication in this issue, has been greatly condensed. A history of projects undertaken in recent years was sacrificed to space limitations; in summarizing the reasons for incomplete success of one of these, the author mentions that the programme "encouraged the people to ask for aid instead of encouraging them to call upon their initiative and their own action."

In an agricultural country like Laos, the essential goals of any programme of education and rural development consist of establishing, initiating and maintaining a dialogue between the farmer and the Government. In order to strive effectively against traditional tendencies toward an overseer system, it is necessary to prepare, through education, in the widest sense of the word, both the parents and the future field staff, so that they would come to a full recognition that manual labour is not, a priori, a lowly job. All concerned must also have a firm knowledge of the unfavourable and favourable factors for development.

Unfavourable factors

Laos is an inland country, completely cut off from the sea. This location makes the importation and exportation of products difficult and costly. It is also divided into geographic, hence economic and political regions, which implies that a policy for rural education and rural development has to be geared more for the different regions than for the development

of an internal market on a national scale. Moreover, the country is thinly populated. The total population is estimated at under 3 million for a total area of 260,000 square kilometres.

The importance of national minorities should be stressed, since they constituted, by the 1930 census, about 45% of the total population. This figure remains more or less the same to-day, in spite of the incessant troubles in the zones where these minorities live. The role of these minorities in the life of the nation is not to be ignored. Whatever it may be, the low density of population inhibits the establishment of a valid infrastructure.

The population growth of 2.5% per year means, however, that in 30 years' time the total population should be doubled. According to regional surveys, it may be estimated that 50% of the population will be under 20 years of age. It is on this young population that the future of Laos depends. But the potentially economically active (masculine) population, which is about 700,000, is far from being utilized in productive activities: it is estimated that the number of military personnel engaged in the different armies of Laos is 100,000. These soldiers constitute a mass of population which should be the most active, since they are between the ages of 20 and 35.

Certain economic factors also constitute an obstacle to development. It is often said that the lower the standard of living, the smaller the per capita income in a country, and the more difficult its development. Laos, a country with a traditional and autarchic economy, has a very low standard of living. The United Nations has recently estimated the per capita income of Laos at US $75 per year. This large self-supporting element renders economic growth more difficult: an economy of "physiological survival" or of satisfying the basic needs does not lead to development. It is interesting to note that there is a tendency toward monetary growth in those rural areas near the towns. This makes the farmers susceptible to economic calculations and the increased production of goods through specialization.

Finally, certain sociological and political factors are also to be taken into consideration. The conflicts and general insecurity widen even further the gap between the rural people and the Government. This gap is all the more accentuated by

the social differences resulting from the considerable increase of consumer goods in relation to producer goods, which is unhealthy. It is estimated that 45-60% of imports are consumer goods, while during the same period 10-14% of imports are machinery. What is even more troublesome is the increased importation of agricultural products.

Of these unfavourable factors, two appear the most crucial because they hamper all development efforts. The first is the demographic increase in a growing, self-supporting country with an active population which diminishes in percentage. Consequently, to bring about economic development, it will be necessary for fewer people to produce more, even to maintain the present low standard of living. Development necessitates not only maintaining the population at the present standard of living, but increasing consumption, as well as possibilities for investment which are based upon production.

It is contrary, however, to what is called the "effect of demonstration." The people, beginning with the élite, then the townspeople, the officials, the employees and the farmers in villages near big towns, are inclined to base their consumption on that of the privileged classes of industrialized countries. This "demonstration" makes the people spend more and more, and consequently renders an investment effort more difficult; as production increases, these two opposing factors make an austerity effort more difficult - an effort which is indispensable if the economy of the country is to grow.

Favourable factors

Laos is a country with an ancient agrarian civilization where the techniques used are still primitive. As a result, the returns are very small. However, rice farming through irrigation itself marks considerable progress in relation to what is done in some other parts of the world.

The country's past history is worthy of praise. This is a valid criterion permitting the birth of a sense of national consciousness, however undeveloped this may be at the moment. It is also a good motivation for the implementation of a coherent and unified policy for economic and social development.

Laos is a profoundly Buddhist country, where the role of the pagoda upon the rural community is a major one. The Buddhist morality has a positive influence on national character because it considers that "man is responsible for the acts which affect himself not only during a single lifetime, but during those which come about through subsequent transmigrations."

On the technical plane, it seems certain that there is a genuine inventiveness which remains to be exploited and stimulated as demonstrated by such diversified production as the masterpieces of Lao folk-artists, the manufacture of water pumps, or the technique of extracting salt. From agriculture, also, Laos has a considerable economic potential, as suggested, for instance, in observations which have been made concerning the possibilities of growing the fruits and vegetables of Europe in the high plateaux of the north of the country. The Plateau of Bolovens with its rich red soil offers enormous possibilities in market-gardening and other types of industrial cultivation. The plains of the Mekong are suitable for rice-growing by irrigation and other complementary cultivation necessary for the daily sustenance of the villagers and the city dwellers.

There is also a village solidarity which deserves to be underlined. The goodwill in the core of the village is always available to take up community projects; e.g. schools, dispensaries, small dams, bridges, pagodas. The village thus constitutes in itself a basic unit, the traditional cell on which rests the entire Laotian society. It is also a unit for production. It is the reason for which it is essential that any development programme worthy of the name be fully cognizant that there exists in the village a life with its customs and its affinities.

It is interesting to note an ambivalent factor; the rural underemployment. There are many who think that this indicates a lack of enterprise. It is necessary to remember, however, that man in a traditional society is closely tied to the cycle of the seasons (viewed here in the tropical sense of the term - the dry and the wet seasons). This is the case of the Lao farmers. But this underemployment, through training, can be utilized in the future to become a factor of growth.

From these observations, two conclusions might be drawn:

- The effect of stimulation should be substituted for that of demonstration;
- Foreign aid, well co-ordinated, distributed and utilized, can constitute an indispensable element of advancement; this aid, however, must encounter the firm determination to develop of the assisted country.

The question which now presents itself is how to insure economic growth. The answer lies in developing the rural sector where lives the great majority of the population. Whatever the programme envisaged, it is necessary to do this in the spirit of the following characteristics. In the first place, the farms and the villages no longer present a secular harmony: in view of the demographic increase, Laos will have more and more mouths to feed, a reality which demands an increase in production. The harmony in the villages has been ruptured by the unwillingness of the people to accept the old life; they want to live "better." To want to consume much more than is produced usually leads to inflation, while an individual's desire to improve his existence is a stimulant.

In the second place, it would appear unwise to attempt to industrialize too rapidly, because industrialization requires a number of pre-conditions. Capital must be had, for instance; it will require more time for Laos to obtain the considerable capital necessary to build factories. Further, industrialization presumes the availability of raw materials, of skilled and semi-skilled workers to operate the machines, and of channels for trade.

These considerations lead to the conclusion that rural development, particularly within the various regions of the country, is essential. This is reasonable because:

- Laos can foresee, thanks to an agricultural surplus, possibilities for investment;
- future industries can be based upon the transformation of agricultural products;

- the increase in buying power of the farmers can support the increase in production in order to provide the internal markets it demands.

To do this, certain fundamental measures need to be undertaken; for instance :

- a policy of austerity (strict selectivity in imports);
- a strong re-establishment of contact with the villagers and farmers
- a return to respectability of manual work and, at a higher level, a choice of careers through expanding fields of activity for the country (problem of fellowships for study abroad);
- co-ordination and cohesion of action in order to avoid waste both in available local economic resources and in qualified personnel;
- publicity and education in favour of this programme at all levels.

It then becomes necessary to find a new concept of action which will profit empirically from previous trial and error. The basic steps of this new method must be the opening and the maintainance of a constant dialogue between the rural people and the administration, and the selection for training of the most promising rural young people to form a network of supervisors.

Before all else, the following fundamental facts concerning Laos must be borne in mind: a high rate of adult illiteracy (72%);[1] a low enrolment ratio even in primary school (39%);[2] general difficulties in communications, especially during the long rainy season; a thin and widely scattered population; a lack of organization of the market for agricultural products; problems of housing, hygiene and public health. All these material difficulties (common to many countries of the region)

1. Unesco. Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok. *Progress of education in Asia, a statistical review.* Bangkok, 1969. p. 71

2. *ibid.* p. 96

present serious obstacles to any programme of social reform and development.

The success of a programme of development depends a great deal on the methods and means used to reach the objectives foreseen. It is logical to say that education, in its broadest sense, constitutes an effective tool for preparing men, women and children, urban and rural, to accept social change. It was recognized in Laos, as demonstrated by the Reform of education of 1962, that the educational and social aspects are interdependent and that the government's efforts would be toward these objectives : (1) to give the people the opportunity to improve their standard of living; (2) to obtain from them in return the means to raise the social level of the country as a whole, thus benefitting the total population. It has become evident that the government, after the varying success or lack of it of earlier programmes, is now searching for new methods of training and new means to instill in the people a national conscience.

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS
A MALAYSIAN CASE STUDY

by Paul Chang

Disparity in economic development between the urban and rural areas is not a problem peculiar to Malaysia alone. It is a feature common to all countries, both developed and developing. The Malaysian problem takes on an added dimension when a majority of the rural inhabitants comprising no less than sixty per cent of the total population are Malays. As a result, rural poverty in Malaysia is often associated with poverty of one community. It is therefore not surprising that in the development plan of Malaysia, priority is given to the correction of economic imbalance between the different communities and the eradication of rural poverty.

Education before Independence

To achieve these twofold objectives, education has a vital role to play. It is generally accepted that one of the main causes of Malay economic backwardness could be traced back to the lack of educational opportunities.

Education in the rural areas until the achievement of independence in 1957 was restricted to a six-year primary course. The medium of instruction was Malay. No English was taught. There was no provision for secondary education in Malay and therefore no opportunity for any form of education beyond the primary level. Yearly, a few who had been selected for training as teachers were allowed to attend a further three-year residential course at Tanjong Malim or Malacca. The aim of education in Malay was evidenced in the Annual Report of 1893 by the British Resident of Selangor: "Vernacular education is, in my opinion, useful in so far as it makes the Malay regular and clearly in his habits, but where

it exalts boys, as it often does, above the calling of their fathers, who for the most part will remain small agriculturists or fishermen, it does more harm than good." [1]

The inevitable result of such a policy was that the majority of rural Malays remained as farmers and fishermen tied largely to a subsistence economy. Those who drifted to the urban areas generally found jobs as office attendants and chauffeurs. Only a few Malays had the opportunity of receiving an education in English and hence the number of Malays in the profession that required advanced training in English was strikingly small.

Report of the 1956 Education Committee

The year 1955 marks the beginning of a change in the educational development of Malaysia. The Alliance Party comprising representatives from the three main communal groups of Malays, Chinese and Indians was elected into power and immediately it set about to fulfill its election pledge to provide a more equitable system of education to all the people.

Instead of perpetuating the anomalies inherent in a plural school system, a committee was appointed with representatives from the three main ethnic groups and with Dato Abdul Razak (now Tun Razak), the first Minister of Education as Chairman "to examine the present educational policy of the Federation of Malaya and to recommend any alterations or adaptations that are necessary with a view to establishing a national system of education acceptable to the people of the Federation as a whole which will satisfy their needs and promote their cultural, social, economic and political development as a nation having regard to the intention to make Malay the national language of the country whilst preserving and sustaining the growth of the language and culture of other communities living in the country."

The terms of reference were in striking contrast to those of the previous colonial committees. The use of education as an instrument to achieve political unity, social integration and economic development was recognised.

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1. Quotations are from documents listed under *References* at the end of this article.

Among the major reforms recommended by the committee were the reorganization of the school system with special emphasis on the development of technical education, orientation of all schools to a Malaysian outlook by the introduction of common content syllabuses and time-tables, provisions for post-secondary, further and part-time education, reorganization of teacher training and the establishment of an independent Inspectorate.

The significance and implications of the recommendations will be better appreciated when considered in relation to the problems they sought to solve and the objectives aimed at achieving. By providing equal grants to all schools irrespective of the language medium of instruction and similar training facilities to all teachers, the old practice of discrimination against education in the vernacular was put to an end. Reorganization and development of technical education embracing commercial and agricultural education so much neglected in the past was aimed at producing the skilled manpower required for improvement in agriculture and industralization. The introduction of common content syllabuses and the compulsory study of the national language would orientate all children to a Malaysian outlook, inculcate a sense of national consciousness and foster a deeper understanding among the various peoples that constitute the new nation. The door to higher education was opened for all by the extension of English language instruction to all schools, and the provision of equal opportunities for promotion to secondary schools. Finally, the quality of education was to be maintained and developed by the independent Inspectorate.

Impact of 1959 Education Ordinance on rural areas

The implementation of the recommendation of the Education Committee of 1956 embodied in the Education Ordinance of 1959 brought new hopes immediately to the children in rural areas. With increased grants, measures were taken to improve the quality of school building and to extend the facilities for more effective learning and teaching. Better qualified teachers, who brought with them fresh ideas and a new spirit which rapidly spread beyond the school premises to the rural community at large, were posted to rural schools.

No provision was made to give a special rural bias to the school curriculum. This was considered unnecessary and at any rate it would not have been acceptable to the rural parents who resented strongly the old colonial policy of tying them permanently to the land.

Secondary schools in Malay were established for the first time and the school-leaving age was raised to 15 so that every child would be able to have nine years of continuous education if he so wished. To provide wider opportunities for employment, comprehensive education was introduced in 1965 making it a requirement for every pupil to take in addition to the basic courses of languages, mathematics and science one or more of the following pre-vocational subjects: industrial arts, agricultural science, commerce and home economics. Vocational schools were set up in rural areas providing courses to meet the needs of the locality. In urban areas, hostels were erected for rural children who had gained promotion to the upper secondary academic schools. Financial assistance was made available to every rural child found capable of pursuing higher education. Equal opportunity was given to both boys and girls. In order to help to modernize rural areas every encouragement is now given to students on completion of their studies to return to serve in their villages. Such measures, it is hoped, will lead to the narrowing of the gap between development in urban and rural areas.

Agricultural education at the third level

Agricultural education at the third level is provided at the Serdang College of Agriculture and the Faculty of Agriculture, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.

The former was first established in 1931 to provide two courses of instruction: the first was a one-year course in Malay which catered for the training of subordinates for the Department of Agriculture, the other was a two-year course in English, at the end of which, successful candidates might join the Department of Agriculture as Junior Officers or the Rubber Research Institute.

Today the College of Agriculture has developed into a full-fledged autonomous institution with an enrolment of more

than 500 students. The curriculum has been expanded and upgraded to include Social Sciences, Home Economics and Agricultural Education and Extension. The renewed curriculum aims at providing a balanced emphasis on agricultural science and human problems and their relationship to technological development. The traditional emphasis in field work for the development of practical skills and desirable work-habits is continued. In addition, the College pursues with vigour its intention to train students to work effectively with rural people. Several rural communities in the neighbourhood including twelve villages in the Kuala Langat District have been adopted where practical exercises on extension technique is being conducted. An equally vigorous programme on the application of the principles of food production and human nutrition to the problem of the family in rural community has also been developed for the female students who constitute some 15% of the total enrolment.

The Faculty of Agriculture at the University of Malaya is concerned primarily with the production of high-level agriculturists and with research. It works closely with the College of Agriculture and with the Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operatives which also runs a number of training centres aims at improving the skills of the farmers.

Training programmes

Earlier in the paper it was mentioned that there were strikingly few Malays in the profession. To correct this deficiency, a training division (Dewan Latehan) was set up in 1956 under the control of the Rural and Industrial Development Authority (RIDA) to provide the following training programmes.

1. Training in the management of rubber estates
   This course was to provide training facilities in all aspects of rubber production, with the object of giving opportunities to rural Malays to qualify for executive positions in the rubber industry.

2. Training in the operation and maintenance of agricultural tractors
   A Centre was established in Ipoh to provide short courses for young farmers in the techniques of operating light agricultural tractors.

3. Training in weaving
This Centre was established in Rusila, near Kuala Trengganu. The main objectives were directed at raising the earning capacity of the women weavers and generally at expanding their cottage industry.

4. Training in skilled trades
This Centre, also established near Kuala Trengganu, provided training in carpentry and joinery and in the production of articles made of cane.

5. Training in the production of local coir
This was an experimental programme for the production of coir fibre from coconut husks. Simple machines were made for this purpose and distributed to the small holders who cultivated coconuts.

6. Training in home economics
This was a residential woman's centre located in Kuala Lumpur and generally known as Taman Asohan RIDA. Among the subjects taught were: cookery, dress-making, embroidery, home sanitation, first-aid, child care, household economics, gardening, civics and nutrition.

Food and accommodation were provided free to all the students.

7. Training in accountancy in Australia
When the rural and industrial development authority was established in 1950, there were no Malay Chartered Accountants in the country. In 1952, Australia was asked for assistance in providing training in Accountancy to selected Malay students, and four places yearly were obtained from 1955 for this training under the auspices of the Colombo Plan. By 1960 a total number of 25 students had completed their courses in Chartered Accountancy in Australia.

In 1957, four more courses were added to the training programme. They were:

a) A two-year course for the London Chamber of Commerce Higher Examination;

b) A one-year course for the London Chamber of Commerce Intermediate Examination;

c) Eighteen days' training for small businessmen;

d) Two months' training in coir-making.

At the same time, the Dewan Latehan also ran short training courses in elementary book-keeping and commercial practice for Malay youths engaged in small business enterprises in the village or rural areas. The training given was interspersed with discussions, organized visits to commercial firms and film shows. These courses continued until March 1958 after which they were taken over by RIDA's own travelling instructors who went to the rural areas and taught a simple method of keeping accounts to the shopkeepers in their own villages.

The year 1960 witnessed a further development of the Dewan Latehan when it raised the entrance qualifications to the Cambridge School Certificate level to meet the demands of additional advanced courses in Stenography, Secretaryship and Accountancy.

A new chapter in the history of rural development in Malaysia began in 1965. In June of that year, the Economic Congress of the Indigenous Peoples under the Chairmanship of the then Minister of Education, Enche Mohamed Khir Johari, met in Kuala Lumpur in order "to consider ways and means of redressing the imbalance of development between the urban and rural areas of the country and of improving the economic and social position of the indigenous peoples, the majority of which live in the rural areas."

At its plenary session on 7th June, the Congress accepted a number of resolutions that called for the redefinition of the role of RIDA and agreed to the changing of its name to MARA or Majlis Amanah Ra'ayat (Council of Trusts for Indigenous People). Among the redefined functions of MARA were those connected with training which was to be carried out by the Dewan Latehan, reorganized and reconstituted as MARA College. More courses were added to the curriculum so that when the status of the College was further elevated to that of an Institute of Technology in 1967 it was able to offer a total

number of 42 courses organized into eight schools, namely: Accountancy, Administration and Law, Business and Management, Art and Architecture, Engineering, Applied Sciences, Computer Science and Mathematics, and Pre-University Studies.

Between the years 1956 and 1968, the student enrolments had accelerated from 25 to 2 361, representing an increase of approximately 950%.

Functional Literacy and Adult Education

While more sophisticated courses are being provided at the MARA Institute of Technology to fit an increasing number of rural Malays into commercial and industrial life, vigorous measures are taken at the same time to combat illiteracy and to increase productivity in the rural areas. This task is being undertaken chiefly by the Ministry of National and Rural Development supported by other Ministries and agencies.

To bridge the generation gap between the old and the young and to increase the productivity of the rural areas, facilities for functional literacy and adult education are provided to ensure a sustained growth in the incomes of the farmers. The programmes consist mainly of:

A. Basic Literacy

1. For farmers and their wives to gain a reasonable knowledge of the 3Rs. - reading, writing and comprehension of about 1,000 common Malay words, arithmetic up to and including the four rules involving thousands, weights and measures, money, volume and area.

B. Functional Literacy

1. For farmers to include an understanding of technical terminology of farming, correspondence, simple farming economics and accounting, animal husbandry, plantation and orchard management, farm equipment, maintenance and marketing facilities, etc.

2. For wives to cover a knowledge of vocabulary and techniques concerned with nutrition, health, first aid, child care, housecraft, and some cottage industries.

The efforts of the functional literacy campaign are reinforced by the extension services provided by the Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operatives, supply of reading materials produced by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, and use of school facilities belonging to the Ministry of Education.

It can be seen that the success of rural development in Malaysia is due primarily to the collective efforts of several Ministries working together towards achieving well-defined objectives with the knowledge that unless the economic imbalance between the different communities is redressed speedily, overall development will be hampered and social stability jeopardised.

The strategies, besides the provision of infrastructure for economic development, involve a broad school curriculum common to both urban and rural areas with emphasis on the use of a common Malay language to promote national utility, science and mathematics to cope with technological development and a free choice of a range of pre-vocational subjects to ensure that every pupil will have the fullest opportunity to develop his natural interests, aptitudes and abilities.

Specialization begins at the post-secondary school level when rural boys and girls can choose to go to any one of the three universities, the College of Agriculture, the MARA Institute of Technology, or one of the many Teachers' Colleges if they possess the stipulated requirements for admission to the different courses.

It is quite evident that the future of Malaysia with a preponderance of Malays living in the rural areas depends largely on the success of its rural development programme which is the key to the overall development which aims at providing a more equitable share of its wealth to all people.

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RURAL EDUCATION IN NEPAL

by W.R. Clark

The rural terrain and communications

In Nepal, the authority for the provision and administration of education is the Ministry of Education of H.M. Government of Nepal. There is no special division within it responsible for the design or organization of special types of education in rural zones. In regard to formal education there has been, as yet, no demarcation of areas where a rural type as distinct from an urban type of education is thought desirable. A single curriculum is therefore provided for all primary schools in the Kingdom.

Nepal is still very largely rural. In the last, the 1961 census, only 6 town areas were recognized with a total population of 264,000, the rural population exceeding 9 millions at that time. The three Kathmandu Valley towns, the largest urban complex, make up half of the half-million population of the whole Kathmandu Valley, a fertile agricultural region of 200 square miles.

Since 1961, new administrative divisions have been set up and the country divided into 14 Zones containing 75 Districts. Within the districts there are 3,860 village panchayats (local government units) and 16 town panchayats. It is difficult to make population estimates in regard to these owing to the very great change in the administrative boundaries since the census. The Kathmandu town panchayat has perhaps 150,000 people and 3 other townships have some 50,000. The remaining 12, most of which have been given town panchayat status as centres of the new Zones, have generally less than 10,000 inhabitants. Some of the larger village panchayats may approach this number, but often they consist of two or three thousand citizens.

Disparity between life in different rural areas, the hills and the terrai, is greater than differences in life in township and countryside in a single geographical area. Half of the population live in 40,000 square miles of hills, the remainder in 14,000 square miles of the terrai, the flatter, lower-lying area along the Indian border. The small valleys in and near the hills have long been settled and that of Kathmandu has achieved the highest population density in the country, being over 2,000 per square mile. The larger river valleys of the terrai have previously been malarial but now, made almost free from such infection, are being resettled with hill folk and returned emigrants. Improvements in communication have made this resettlement possible. The policy of government during the next National Five-Year Plan (1970-75) is to select for development such centres as now show potential for economic growth, this being determined not only by existing natural resources but by transport and communications facilities. Where hill areas seem capable of some development, albeit less than other locations, efforts will be made to make the areas economically viable.

Difficulties of communication between East and West are very great along the whole 450-mile length of Nepal. In the North and central part of the country, tortuous trails climb up and plunge down many thousands of feet in their way across the hills, fording or crossing by wooden or rope suspension bridges the many river valleys which here run mainly north-south. Indeed, to cross from Kathmandu to either the east or west, it is often quicker to travel south and cross the Indian border and, using the Indian roads and railways which run west-east or roughly parallel with the Nepal southern boundary, re-enter Nepal at an appropriate spot. In this area, some large rivers have swung round to run easterly and, here on the Nepal side, sections of the Asian East-West Highway are now being completed by various foreign governments in collaboration with H.M. Government of Nepal. The highway will eventually become a backbone of communication for Nepal, if this simile may be used of a spine so displaced from its usual central position that it is never more than 30 miles from the southern border of a country which from South to North averages 100 miles in width. A road in the centre, across the hills between the Kathmandu Valley and Pokhara Valley

some 90 miles away, is now being constructed with bi-lateral assistance and will be almost the only east-west road in the centre of the Kingdom.

It is necessary to recount these difficulties of communication in order that the decision of the government of Nepal to give a high priority to communication and transport in their next (as in their last) five-year plan may be appreciated.

An example of the need to phase rural school development correctly in regard to the development of transport and communication is instanced by recent events in the Pokhara Valley already referred to. The small township located there is the headquarters of the Gandaki Zone, an area of nearly 6,000 square miles with about 850 primary schools in 6 districts, the largest number of schools in any zone. There were formerly about half-a-dozen heavy-duty vehicles in Pokhara, an ancient jeep being available to the Education Zonal Office. The cost of fuel in Pokhara was however three times its cost in Kathmandu, being brought up 100 miles from the Indian border by porters carrying two 4-gallon tins on their backs. This made school inspections by vehicle prohibitive. In December last, a new road from the south was completed with Indian Government aid, lorries began to arrive in Pokhara with cheap supplies, and new vehicles came into the area. It is now possible for the Zonal Education Officer to cover much of the immediate area by Land Rover, saving more time for the still necessary foot-journeys to more remote hill villages. New schools in the area can now receive equipment and be given better supervisory support.

The management and ownership of schools

One impediment to the planned development of all schools is the fact that H.M. Government itself runs very few of them. A large proportion have been erected by private individuals, societies, or communities and a few, but increasing in number, by panchayats empowered to levy an education tax for this purpose. Permission to impose a community tax has been granted in five of the 75 districts, comprising 257 village panchayats. This development, keenly watched the government, has had varying success: the whole future development of rural schools is thought to lie in the role of panchayats

as local education authorities. The following figures are from the 1967/68 Statistical report of the Ministry of Education:

Total number of primary school children (1968)	442,257
Number in Government schools fully supported	8,998
Number in Panchayat schools operated with education tax and grant-in-aid	21,580

The remainder of the pupils were in schools, many of which received some government assistance but were not controlled by government. The total government contribution to primary education amounts to some 40% of costs of operating schools.

It is convenient to make the point here that, although the government trains teachers, after training they are not "posted" to particular rural schools but seek posts in private or panchayat schools in competition with lower-salaried untrained men. A market for trained teachers has thus yet to be created either by the "carrot" of grants-in-aid or the "stick" of suitable government regulations administered through District Education Officers. Rural areas appear to be compelled to continue largely with partly qualified untrained staff.

Curriculum bias

The Curriculum Division of the Department of Education, in collaboration with the staff of the College of Education, is responsible for school curricula. There have been several revisions of the primary curriculum in the last 15 years. One is at present taking place with major sections being entirely rewritten. There is no indication that there will yet be alternative sections designed to provide either a rural or urban bias nor even to provide education more suited to children in the terrai or the hills. And yet the environmental conditions, so different in the two areas, determine not only the preschool and day-to-day experiences of the child, in which instruction should be grounded, but also largely decide their community needs and their own probable economic and social future, which should be determinants of educational outcomes.

It is thought in the Ministry that, ultimately, such alternative syllabuses must come. They will start probably with a special school agriculture syllabus for at least the two rural areas, with possibly Handwork as an option to replace school

agriculture in urban areas. As Science is seen to be more related to biology, nutrition, health and agriculture instead of being concerned with many urban physical science concepts, variant curricula in Science too will be required. Some interest has already been expressed in curricula where all subjects have this strong environmental approach.

A danger in drafting such rural and urban, or terrai and hill schemes, is that the urban alternative may be, on grounds of prestige, preferred in any circumstances, even if unsuited to the pupils. A rural syllabus may often be interpreted as one designed to keep rural people in their place. A syllabus suited particularly for the hill people is less likely to be misunderstood, as the government's policy to bring people down from some hill areas and resettle them is well known. It may be, however, that those already in rural areas of the terrai may see an urban-based syllabus as a progressive one and resent its not being available to them.

School buildings

At the District Education Officers Training Course held in Kathmandu from 15 November 1969 - 7 January 1970, the District Education Officers gave their view that the most outstanding problem in Nepal was the inadequate school buildings. School buildings and their equipment are poor and school standards of hygiene and sanitation are low outside the towns, and indeed in many situations within them.

A new design, a modern wooden school for 270 pupils for the terrai, was made at the request of H.M. Government by the Unesco-sponsored Asian Regional Institute of School Building Research (ARISBR), Colombo. Large forests of sal timber run across the low hills of the terrai and cut timber is available free to village panchayats. The structure is designed also to be earthquake-proof, cool and well-illuminated within and to afford security to the school materials which UNICEF is now making available to primary schools. The International Schools Association of Geneva has offered Rs. 50,000 to the Government and ARISBR to erect the first prototype building in the Chitwan district settlement area. It is hoped that schools of this type will proliferate in the rural terrai. In the hill regions, the difficulties of lack of suitable local materials such

as timber, and the long distance which imported materials have to travel, even if panchayats could afford them, makes good school construction extremely difficult. ARISBR architects are to consider the problem of effective utilisation of local materials here.

School stores and equipment

Many of the township panchayats lie near the Indian border with roads connecting with railheads and the oad system on the Indian side. Other towns lie on traditional trade routes, although not all these are motorable. Town schools may therefore finally get supplies intended for them but, frequently, materials supplied by government or by UNICEF for rural schools remain for many months awaiting onward transport by porterage, at a propitious season and by local initiative, to a village school - which may be only a few miles away or may require many days' travel.

Although the capital of the Kingdom, Kathmandu is not a good centre for distribution. It is expected that at the several entry townships along the Indian border, by the erection of unloading facilities at customs posts and by appropriate clearance authorization, quantities of imported school equipment supplied by UNICEF, as well as World Health Foodstuffs for future school meals programmes, may in future be admitted duty-free at points most convenient for distribution to various rural communities.

Teaching staff

The general teaching staff problem may be appreciated by observing that more than 75% of teachers have had no formal teacher training. The attitude of many of the 400 trained teachers, on the other hand, is prejudicial to rural education as they prefer to serve in urban and the more populous rural areas near the Indian border. The main teaching in the country areas therefore seems largely to be in the hands of some 12,000 untrained teachers relying for their teaching techniques on the memory of their experiences as pupils. There is a considerable turnover among them, as untrained teachers often accept appointments until something better turns up.

A scheme which may give a much-needed impetus of teaching in the hills is the joint Gurkha Reintegration Scheme of the governments of Nepal and Great Britain. In addition to health and agricultural training, teacher training is being given to Gurkhas returned from British Army Service, at a special teacher training centre at Dharan. Most of the men, who are enthusiastically coming forward for this education training, have served as teachers in the army; the course is therefore largely one of reorientation toward the needs of Nepal primary schools. Most of the ex-soldiers are hill folk and their new training, on a background of army discipline and teaching experience, should enable them to raise standards not only of teaching but of school structure and organization in the hill regions.

A three-year in-service training course is being organized on a pilot scale in two rural districts. It requires untrained teachers to meet in small groups at central locations near their schools and work for 2 days per month on programmes to be supplied by the Ministry of Education. Materials for one year's work have already been prepared. The extension of these programmes into all districts in the Kingdom is thought to provide the best means of dealing with the backlog of 12,000 untrained teachers and to effect some communication between them and the Ministry. It is hoped that this method will avoid the large travel and subsistence costs which cause most in-service training to bog down.

School supervision and support

The details given of communication difficulties themselves explain why supervision is scanty. District Education personnel are only now being selected and trained in numbers which may provide two officers to a district. The areas are large even in the terrai, and here UNICEF has provided motorcycles for officers. But vast areas must be tackled on foot and this is arduous and time-consuming as well as extremely expensive, with recently increased porterage and subsistence costs. This constitutes a serious tax on the support of rural schools and too frequently one which District Education Offices cannot meet either from their financial allocations or limited personnel.

Training courses for these new men were held in 1968 and 1969 for some months. In these courses, officials from the Ministry stressed the need for them to be concerned with rural school registration, and for the setting up of a system of regular monthly reports from all schools. They told the new appointees that they should spend as much time as possible out of the urban headquarters. District Education Officers are still in a learning situation with regard to their duties but an embryo administrative infrastructure has been set up which will be of first importance to rural schools. A particular duty of the District Education Officer is to work with the Panchayat education committees which are now being empowered to set up rural schools.

School hours and attendance

Travel in the mountains is not only difficult for teachers and inspectors coming from afar, it is a local problem for the school-going child. If his school is just two miles away it may still involve wearying climbs and descents and these often in extreme cold or driving rain.

School daily attendance times and school holiday periods are fixed for the whole country, there being two alternative times for the long holiday. This is mid-December to February for the hills and valleys, when it is extremely cold, and May and June for the terrai when it is extremely hot. Urban and rural schools both follow this regional pattern. It is felt that this too may be based on criteria which are largely urban, for the rainy season is not well prepared-for in rural areas where flooded rivers in the south and heavy rain on the hills are serious impediments. When the district administration is more fully established it is possible that suggestions for holidays and daily duration of instruction will be proposed which better suit the district situation.

One-teacher schools

In the statistical summary at the end of the article, the average size of a school may be seen to be 65 pupils. Urban schools and those rural ones in terrai areas are much bigger than this and many hill schools correspondingly smaller. Many of the hill schools are one-teacher schools. Of the 6,880

schools in the whole Kingdom, over one-third are of this type and almost as many have only two teachers for 4 or more grades.

That these schools should be staffed by ill-qualified untrained teachers is most unfortunate. With only 25% of all teachers having been trained, however, it is an almost inescapable situation. Nevertheless it is now being recognized as desirable that the Ministry of Education should require that (a) managers or proprietors of one-teacher schools preferentially employ trained teachers (b) untrained teachers now serving in such schools be selected through district quotas to enter training centres, (c) these teachers return to their occupation after training, (d) training centres amend their courses to provide for teachers from one-teacher schools. These are measures of compulsion and direction with regard to school proprietors and managers on the one hand and to teachers on the other, for which present education regulations do not adequately provide. Further, since the local district education administration is only now being established, it will be some time after suitable legislation is introduced before it can be made effective in many areas.

Lessons by radio

One attack on some of the problems of the remote rural school and the untrained teacher is planned by the application of broadcasting to schools using the new transmitter of Radio Nepal. H.M. Government has included in its next Education Plan a pilot project in education by radio. On the recommendation of Unesco it has obtained UNICEF backing and also has requested an expert on radio school education to be assigned from Britain under the Colombo Plan. The School Broadcast Unit is planned to be established at the Education Materials Centre, developed some years ago by government with the help of USAID. Equipment will be supplied by UNICEF. The various phases of this project will continue beyond the present Five-Year Plan.

Second-level education

Access to second level education is, of course, greatly restricted in rural locations. Whilst there is a fair distribution of secondary schools over the Zones, none of these

schools can effectively cater for pupils from distant primary schools within the Zone. The Ministry of Education has considered the establishment of secondary boarding schools in each Zone, but this will require financial assistance, and the counterpart contribution in money and personnel has put this beyond the present Education Plan ending in 1975.

Adult education and literacy

During the previous five years, the Adult Education Division of the Ministry of Education has conducted classes in accordance with a plan which was aimed at producing 100,000 new literates. 633 Classes in 1965 were to be increased yearly to over 1,300 in the present year. Much of the work is done in evening classes conducted by primary school teachers in local schools but there are 37 rural and urban permanent adult centres operating. Assistance given to the scheme by the Home and Panchayat Ministry and by women's organizations has been significant. Proposals for a more intensive scheme to bring work-oriented literacy to Nepal was made after a study by a Unesco team in 1965. This was seen as a possible United Nations Special Fund project, but it involved too great a government contribution. Further missions have successively whittled the project down to be more commensurate with the counterpart contribution that the government could afford. A recent proposal was for a "mini" UN Development project to be started in the Chitwan District, a productive settlement area which already has a panchayat training school. Currently, however, the government is examining an offer of bilateral assistance which may permit more and wider-spread centres, possibly 4 or 5, to be included in this pilot scheme.

* * *

In summary, it must be observed that Nepal, its vast problems of communication and transport entering into all aspects of education as in all other national development activities, has not been long on the road of modern evolution. The country was opened to development in 1951, and there has been little time since to identify national ends and plan efficient means to them, or even to begin to exploit the natural resources

which must provide economically for national development. The townships along roads and by airstrips might be in the van of such progress but it is ultimately on the wise development of the agriculture lands, the forests, the rivers, and perhaps the mineral resources of the mountains, that the prosperity of the Kingdom will depend. This suggests thatwhen the more pervasive problems respond to present endeavours, the devising of appropriate education for rural areas must become a matter of special concern.

* * *

Summary of Education Statistics for Nepal, 1968-69

Primary schools	
Total number	6,880
Pupil enrolment	448,754
Percentage of primary school age population	32
Number of primary school teachers	17,563
Percentage of trained teachers	24.5
Secondary schools	
Total number	959
Pupil enrolment	94,731
Percentage of girls enrolled	16.9
Number of teachers	4,060
Percentage of trained teachers	20.6
Teacher training	
Primary teacher training centres (plus 1 "Gurkha reintegration" P.T.T.C.)	5
Secondary training, College of Education	1
Adult education	
Adult education centres	37
Administrative divisions	
Number of Zones	14
Number of Districts	75
Number of Village Panchayats	3,860
Number of Town Panchayats	16

Statistics are taken from following publications of H.M. Government of Nepal: *Zone and District Map*, 1969; *Educational Statistics Reports* 1967/8, 1968/9; *Preliminary Report of National Census*, 1961.

RURAL EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

By Aurelio O. Elevazo

Introduction

Estimates show that about 80 per cent of the population of the Philippines lives in the rural areas: Philippines education is therefore primarily rural education. Moreover, there is really no clear-cut distinction between rural and urban education, the basic curricula at all levels being principally the same. Activities vary only according to the availability of community resources and the ingenuity of the teacher to enrich his work.

As is found everywhere, the distribution of population (estimated at 38,000,000) is rather uneven, with concentrations along sea coasts, river valleys, and fertile plains, while farther away towards the mountains and forests, population is relatively sparse. Although the basic unit of society is the family, social activity in the rural areas is organized in the barrio, a community composed of several families living in clusters. Several barrios constitute a town; several towns, a province. Cities have been established in various parts of the country, but most of them retain the rural aspect; some big towns are more urban in appearance than certain small cities. At present, there are 80 provinces, 30 cities, 1,409 towns, and 31,432 barrios.

As part of the national strategy to improve the rural areas, the Barrio Charter was enacted by the Philippine Congress in the early 1960s. This law granted the barrio people the power of self-government. Thus, the lethargy and somnolence that characterized the average rural community in earlier decades began to be replaced by an awakening of the people

to the challenges of having to decide on their own community affairs without restraint, although with some prodding, from the outside. One study noted that the barrio people "willingly assumed responsibility for their decisions, and looked forward to better and more development projects ..." [1]

At present, there is a surge of effort, both by the government and by the people themselves, through "self-help" activities, to continue strengthening the rural communities by providing more of the basic necessities of life, building more roads, bridges, and schoolhouses, and giving more education to more people. This is stimulated by the realization that a democratic society must have for its base an enlightened and socially active mass of people. Paradoxically, however, one of the effects of expanded education and greater exposure to modernization is a rising level of social aspirations which is not matched by governmental and institutional capacity to provide the means for meeting widespread demands. Pockets of unrest due to dissatisfaction over social ills and inequities inherited from the long past have given rise to demonstrations, marches, and dialogues marked by occasional violence, the embers of which are fanned by a relatively small group of agitators. This situation is a challenge, not only to the national and community administrators, but also to educators.

The changing conditions of rural life have been brought about, though slowly, by technology. For instance, the transistor radio has reached remote places in the hinterlands, and it is not unusual to see a boy listening to radio music broadcast from a provincial radio station while pasturing his family carabao. Weekly magazines in the main vernaculars are of wide circulation and are read not only for the serialized novels of local interest but also for the news, commentaries, and various how-to-do it tips for practical living. On evenings, people congregate in their favourite hangouts, usually the small tienda (a store that sells a variety of goods) after a long day's work on the farm, at sea, or in the glades, to exchange pleasantries which often include impromptu comments on the latest "transistor news" or on

1. Philippines, University of the Community Development Research Council. *An evaluation and a demonstration of the Barrio Charter of the Philippines*, by Wells M. Allred. Quezon City, 1962. 122p. (Regular studies, 13)

issues affecting the community. At a distance may be heard the pounding of rice, or the strums of a guitar that accompanies the singing of a young man serenading his sweetheart. Small children engage in running or jumping games until their elders shout their names to remind them it's time to go to bed. "Bed" in many homes is a "papag", a bamboo or wooden bed, or a buri mat spread on the floor where several people, usually the whole family, sleep together. The more affluent, however, have cushioned beds of the latest styles. In the towns and barrios where electricity has become available, a few families manage to acquire standard household appliances. Moviehouses have also been built in many towns.

Population mobility has been increased by better transportation facilities. Two decades ago, people in the barrio had to walk or ride for hours on carabao-driven carts to go to town to sell their products and to do their marketing for the week. Today, one needs only to have a small amount of money for a bus or "jeepney" ride to town or nearby cities.

Figures available for about 1965 indicate that the average annual income of the Filipino was then about 1,775 pesos, equivalent at that time to US $887.50. Family income has been on the upward trend, and the standard of living has risen although not commensurately with income because prices of commodities have increased faster than income. Estimates also show an increasing number of job opportunities, but there continues to be an undesirable picture of unemployment, underemployment, and misemployment. This is partly due to the mismatch between supply and demand of manpower.

The average Filipino family is seven -- a couple with five children. For reasons which sociologists consider interesting, households in the rural areas are bigger than those in cities.

The educational effort

The Government of the Philippines is presently conducting a thoroughgoing survey of the existing educational system with a view of making education more responsive and relevant to the needs and conditions of awakened communities. Although Philippines education bears the characteristics of a relatively

advanced and modern school system, there are clamors for educational reform, and questions are being raised regarding its philosophy and goals as well as its effectiveness in meeting the needs of national and community development.

Here, as elsewhere, economic planners and social development leaders are increasingly convinced of the significant role of education in shaping the national destiny. This is reflected not only by the fact that education continues to hold the top priority in the national budget but also in the active involvement of educators in national planning. Reports from regional development authorities indicate recognition of the need to integrate the educational effort in the striving for social and economic progress in rural areas. More schools are being built to meet the needs of a fast-increasing school population. More and better teachers are being called into service and teacher education institutions are restructuring their curricula in line with a recently fielded Department Order requiring drastic revisions of the objectives and content of teacher education.

The community school. Almost all activities having to do with rural development are based or related to the community school. Essentially, the community school movement is designed to make every public school the center of community life. School activities, curricular and co-curricular, are geared to community needs and conditions with the expectation that they would be enriched thereby as well as provide impetus for community improvement.

Thus, a class in elementary science would identify the plants and animals in the locality, study their characteristics, and understand how they affect human life. One such class, for example, experimented on water conservation in soil by collecting dried leaves and grass and placing them around the base of growing fruit trees after cultivating the soil. They compared the growth of these plants with that of similar ones of the same kind which were not treated the same way. Two basic conclusions were derived from the activity, namely, (1) that dried leaves and grass are useful in plant growth if collected and used as in the experiment, and (2) that dried leaves and grass could be converted into plant food and, ultimately, food for human beings. The pupils were asked to

apply their knowledge at home. This resulted in cleaner yards, use of garbage, better home gardens, and more vegetable and fruit products for home consumption and for the market. Children who raised the best garden plants were given prizes and those who earned extra money were encouraged to open savings accounts.

Undoubtedly, simple school experiments such as these are of significant value not only in meeting community needs and in improving life but also in developing attitudes which will have a lifetime of usefulness. On a national scale, data available in 1967-68 show noteworthy achievements in rice culture and selective food production. Thirty-seven school divisions were reported as having a total of 4,926 home economics gardens, each with an area of not less than 25 square metres.[2]

Literacy education. The rural schools, public and private, also serve as base for literacy education and community development. In 1967-68, there were 4,482 literacy classes and 3,242 continuing education classes in which 46,803 adults enrolled. Community assemblies were held in 3,765 schools with a total participation of more than 300,000 adults. These assemblies dealt with such topics as food production, health and sanitation, family and home life, juvenile delinquency, and community beautification.[3]

The Barrio High Schools. To meet the educational needs of the growing number of rural out-of-school youth, an innovation organized by Dr. Pedro T. Orata and now well known as the *barrio* high schools was introduced in 1964-65.[4] The growth of this movement is tremendous. Starting in 1964 with four barrio high schools in one province with an enrolment of 352, there are now 848 schools with an enrolment of 88,500 all over the country.[5]

2. Philippines. Department of Education. Bureau of Public Schools. *Annual report 1967-68.* Manila, 1969.

3. *Ibid.*

4. For a detailed discussion of *barrio* high schools, please refer to pp. 28-30.

5. Philippines. Department of Education. *A report on achievements, projects proposed, and problems.* Manila, 1969. p. 28

The Community College. The latest innovation in the way of extending educational opportunities to people in the rural areas is the community college (at the third level of education). The rationale of the community college is much the same as that of the barrio high school. It is a self-supporting institution which starts with one year of college offerings at a time and increases its course offerings every year thereafter. It is intended for those who do not have enough money to go to a university. Practical courses are offered to enable the students, mostly adults, to acquire basic skills which they need in their daily activities in the home and in establishing some kind of a home industry which, in turn, becomes the source of money for tuition and other school expenses. Although the number of community colleges is still small, interest is being generated in various parts of the country to organize more.

Vocational Education. One distinct aspect of the school system is vocational education, which has three major emphases; namely, (1) trade-technical and industrial education, (2) agricultural education, and (3) fishery education. In addition, special programmes include teacher education, apprenticeship, co-operative trade-training, agricultural extension, evening opportunity courses, special courses in accelerated manpower training for out-of-school youth and unemployed adults, and other projects designed to enrich the regular programmes.

As set by the Philippine Legislature in 1927, the "controlling aim of vocational education shall be to fit pupils for useful employment and to prepare them to be useful citizens as well as to meet the needs of persons ... who are preparing to enter upon the work of the farm or farm home, or who are preparing for a trade or industrial pursuit, and/or who have actually entered upon the work of the farm or farm home or a trade or industrial pursuit.[6] In pursuance of this aim, greater emphasis is being given to projects calculated to "help increase the number of trained workers needed in critical

6. Philippines. Board of National Education. *General education policies, report 1958.* Manila, Bookman, 1960. p. 80

occupations as well as to those activities that would bring about greater productivity of the people, increase their income, and augment their food supply."[7]

As of 1969, there were 222 public vocational schools distributed as follows:

Trade schools	92
Agricultural schools	85
Fishery schools	42
Craftsmen schools	3
Total	222

These schools are dispersed in all provinces except Bukidnon in Mindanao where there is a state university with agricultural education courses. Ideally, the schools are expected to provide education at the second and third levels, and the type and level of curricular programme each school is authorized to offer depends on the needs of the locality where the school is located.

Since the Philippine economy has a predominantly agricultural base, due emphasis is given to agricultural education. This programme is primarily at the second and third levels with 85 institutions under the Bureau of Vocational Education and four institutions with charters. It is designed to provide not only a reasonable measure of academic preparation but also those activities that lead to practical gainful employment which should enable the graduate to contribute to the welfare and progress of society. It provides "training in manipulative skills in scientific farming together with a good grasp of technical knowledge which are basic requirements for employment."[8] The programme recognizes the role of rural women in agricultural pursuits and, therefore, provision is made for the women to become proficient in varied lines of work related to the farm and farm home. The 89 agricultural schools all over the country emphasize the development of knowledge

7. Philippines. Department of Education. Bureau of Vocational Education. *Toward a better organization of the Bureau of Vocational Education;* a position paper. Manila, n.d. p. 3. mimeo

8. Philippines. Department of Education. Bureau of Vocational Education. *The agricultural education program, 1969-70.* Manila, 1970. p.1

and skills in agricultural occupations such as the production of basic farm crops, poultry and swine raising, dairying, vegetable gardening, fruit growing, soil conservation and reconstitution, use of fertilizers, and the use of modern agricultural implements and machines. Efforts are exerted to correlate classroom instruction with actual farm work. [9]

The agricultural schools offer six types of curricula, as follows:

1. Four-year secondary agricultural curriculum. This provides basic knowledge in general education and in vocational agriculture (agriculture, farm mechanics, and agricultural homemaking). It also provides for the development of varied skills and abilities needed in farming and homemaking.

2. One-year post-secondary course in farm mechanics. This provides further training in the planning, selection, construction, operation or use, care, maintenance, and repair of farm machinery, tools, and equipment. It provides opportunities to further develop manipulative skills and abilities related to the efficient use of farm machinery and tools.

3. Four-year technical agriculture curriculum. This course leads to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Agriculture (BSA). It provides scientific and practical knowledge and skills in animal and crop production with the view of preparing students for farm work, farm supervision and management.

4. Four-year agriculture teacher education curriculum. This course leads to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Agricultural Education (BSAEd). It is primarily designed to prepare prospective teachers to teach not only agricultural subjects but also related subjects, especially science and mathematics in the secondary schools.

5. Four-year agricultural homemaking teacher education curriculum. This course leads to the degree of Bachelor

9. Guiang, Emilia M. *The growth and development of public vocational education in the Philippines and its role in economic development.* /Doctoral dissertation/ Manila, Philippine Women's University, 1966. p. 61-71

of Science in Homemaking Education (BSHE). It provides students with practical knowledge and skills in food technology, home crafts, and clothing and textiles.

6. Two-year agricultural technician curriculum. This course gives emphasis to specialized agricultural activities intended to meet technical manpower needs of industries related to agriculture.

Research in agriculture and agricultural education is promoted and conducted by the chartered institutions, particularly the College of Agriculture of the University of the Philippines, and a few private institutions.

One of the vocational courses which has attracted national interest is ceramics. This is offered at the secondary and collegiate levels. The secondary curriculum includes fundamentals in ceramics in the first two years and some degree of specialization in the last two years. The student is exposed to all phases of the industry. The post-secondary offerings are of two types -- the three-year technical education course and the four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Industrial Education (BSIE). The ceramics industry in the Philippines has bright prospects for development. Glazed tiles alone are in great demand. So are plates, cups, and vases. The raw materials for the production of various types of ceramic products are in abundance in the country. Hence, vocational education in ceramics needs to be given support and encouragement.

The Bureau of Public Schools also has a programme of vocational education. Work education is a part of the curriculum at the first level. At the second level, vocational subjects are offered, particularly home economics for girls in the comprehensive as well as 2-2 Plan high schools. Several 2-2 Plan high schools offer specialized vocational courses.

Despite the growing awareness of the importance of vocational education in a developing economy and the increasing interest of lawmakers and certain educational leaders in this phase of Philippine education, there continues to be a serious mismatch between the graduates and manpower needs. Moreover, more than half of the vocational secondary school

graduates pursue college education, not necessarily vocational. There is also the situation that graduates of the four-year vocational high school are normally about 16 -- rather immature for employment in positions requiring the skills they are supposed to have acquired, and young people are not supposed to go to work until they are 21 anyway.

The Role of Private Schools. Private schools actively participate in rural education and national development activities. In 1967-68, the Bureau of Private Schools enlisted the co-operation of private schools in the national food production campaign. A number of the schools responded by setting up experimental rice farms where scientific methods of farming were applied, miracle rice was tried out, and vegetable gardens cultivated. Coincidentally, there was evidence of national self-sufficiency in basic food supplies, particularly rice, in the same year.

The private schools also take part in the national beautification and cleanliness campaign, adult and community education, national sports and physical fitness programme, and tax education. Some of them offer adult education and literacy programmes free of charge as a public service.

The School Broadcasts Programme. To supplement and enrich classroom instruction, a nationwide school broadcasts programme was established a number of years ago as a joint project of the Bureau of Public Schools and the Philippine Broadcasting Service. Twenty-two programmes are aired weekly in Pilipino, English, social studies, music, and adult and community education. Presently, there are nearly 48,000 listening classes all over the country, a big stride from the 400 listening classes in the Luzon area at the time the project was initiated in 1959. For its role in propagating Pilipino, the national language, the programme was given a citation in 1968 by the Institute of National Language. The programmes also have materials for educating the general public on various programmes of the government as well as on everyday concerns such as food production, land reform, conservation of fish and forest resources, tax consciousness, citizenship, and community action.

The Philippines Applied Nutrition Programme. Designed to help improve the health and economic status of the people, the Philippine Applied Nutrition Programme (PANP) is supported by a nationwide project in nutrition education. The PANP is a socio-economic and educational venture of the Bureau of Public Schools in co-operation with three United Nations Agencies -- UNICEF, WHO, and FAO. Co-operating agencies include the Department of Agriculture and Natural Resources, the Food and Nutrition Research Center, the Bureau of Health, and the Presidential Arm on Community Development. The project has helped in educating and developing a healthier and more reliant population. It has also encouraged the production of cereals and vegetables of high nourishment value and has promoted wider cultivation of home and school gardens and demonstration farms. As of 1967-68, the feeding aspect of the programme involves 212 schools with more than 100,000 beneficiaries. In terms of training, over 2,300 persons have been given preparation as field personnel for extension work. Environmental sanitation, another phase of the project, has been improved with the construction of more water-sealed toilets in the rural areas.

Non-Formal Education for Rural Youth and Adults

There are agencies other than the Department of Education which have educational and community development projects designed to supplement the work of the schools; a number of them are government-supported. Programmes and activities are designed to reach the unschooled and the dropouts.

Estimates indicate that there are more than five million out-of-school young people between 7 and 24 years of age. Many of them are unschooled. Needless to say, the unschooled are denied basic opportunities for personal and social development. Necessarily, their contribution to community life and national development is minimal, sometimes negative. As for the dropouts, they constitute one big sore lump of educational wastage. Like the unschooled, they have little chance to secure for themselves and their families the better things of life. In a highly competitive society, education serves as a special passport into better living and into the society of the affluent. The unschooled and the dropouts are mostly in the

rural communities. Many of them tend to drift aimlessly through life and are easy prey to its vicissitudes. The possibility is not remote that, to many of them, life degenerates and loses meaning. Moreover, this population segment is potential manpower and could be a tremendous resource in the country's labour force if properly developed and utilized.

Estimates between 1963 and 1968 indicate that the accumulated shortage of semi-skilled workers and machine and/or equipment operators was nearly 160,000, and that of skilled technicians, 41,000. Experts of the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimate the annual demand for all types of engineering and construction workers at 28,000, of which only 7,000 are produced by the vocational schools and apprenticeship training. Hence, the annual shortfall of this type of workers is 21,000 or 75 per cent.[10]

Programme of the Manpower and Youth Development Council. It is in consideration of situations such as the foregoing that Executive Order No. 53 was promulgated on December 8, 1966 to establish the Manpower Development Council. The following are some of the activities of the council:

1. Crash vocational training programme for out-of-school youth and unemployed adults;

2. The accelerated Manpower Training programme - a massive nationwide effort to provide for the development of vocational skills that would qualify workers for low-skilled operative work;

3. Seminars on vocational testing and guidance;

4. UNDP-ILO vocational training assistance programme to enable vocational administrators, supervisors, and trainers to undergo training at Turin, Italy;

5. Continued studies, research on, and analysis of training programmes in government entities.[11]

10. De la Cruz, Tomas. *Comprehensive report on the manpower development program (1968) and manpower plans and programs (1969)*. Manila, Manpower and Youth Development Council, 1966. 44 p. (mimeo)

11. *ibid.* p. 18-39.

In July 1968, the accelerated manpower development programme alone had a total of 10, 851 out-of-school youth and unemployed adults enrolled in 61 training centres all over the country.[12]

The Bureau of Family Welfare. The programme of this government agency deals mainly with the social and economic development of out-of-school youths who live in their homes. The programme stresses the self-help concept and utilizes the family and all the agencies and institutions in the community "to train youth leaders, engage youth and their energies in self-help projects and work-training programmes, and prepare young people for responsible adulthood ..."[13] Particular emphasis is on the development of personality and the strengthening of youth's respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Bureau has organized 25 community and youth centres which develop and sponsor educational and cultural programmes such as field trips, music and art presentations; pre-vocational and skill training for income-producing projects; and informal classes in co-operation with various agencies.

The VIP Programme of the PACD. VIP stands for Volunteers for the Improvement of the Philippines. The VIP programme was launched by the Presidential Arm for Community Development (PACD), a government agency, in 1967. The initial aspect of the programme involves out-of-school youth within the age-range of 18-25 who have finished two years of university and are single, preferably. They must be physically and morally fit to perform their job as aides to regular PACD workers. The volunteer youth are given a token allowance plus travel expenses while on duty for twelve months. They are encouraged to go back to school after their period of service

12. Philippines. Department of Education. Bureau of Vocational Education. *Annual Report, 1968-69.* Manila, 1969.

13. United Nations. Secretary General. *Study of the question of education of youth all over the world for the development of its personality and the strengthening of its respect for the rights of man and fundamental freedoms; report.* New York, U.N. Economic and Social Council, 1970.

and are given a scholarship allowance for each month of service. Since 1967, 465 volunteers have participated in the programme.

The Apprenticeship Programme. Apprenticeship provides on-the-job training designed to develop craftsmen in various trades and occupations. This programme was initiated in 1957 when the National Apprentice Act was passed; its main purpose is to build up the nation's reserve of skilled manpower. Under the programme, an apprentice may be accepted if he: (1) is at least 16 years old, (2) has completed high school, and (3) shows fitness for employment. Apprenticeship training is done on-the-job, in a shop or factory, for at least 2,000 hours in the various work processes of a specific trade. This is supplemented by classroom instruction on subjects related to the trade.

The programme is administered by the National Apprenticeship Council which has advisory and quasi-judicial functions in addition to the responsibility of establishing policy. The council's office of apprenticeship is under a regular staff in the Department of Labour. Assistance is extended by other government agencies, including the Office of Manpower Services, the Bureau of Vocational Education, and the Department of Health. As of 1969, the programme involved 7,680 apprentices in 391 establishments all over the Philippines.

Out-of-School Youth Programme in Skills Training, Department of National Defence. The Department of National Defence ordinarily handles military matters. In recent years, however, the Department initiated a nationwide programme of civic action to assist the national government in solving problems in the rural areas and in helping enhance national development. The DND programme for out-of-school youth is divided into two: (1) the skills-training programme of the armed forces, and (2) the educational programme for youth and adults in educational institutions. In general, the programme is designed to provide special training to develop habits and practices of good citizenship aside from training in specific skills. Training is conducted in the barrios in AFP Civic Action Centres and in local technical training centres. Among the courses offered for boys are electronics, machine

shop, carpentry, automotive mechanics, and conventional aircraft mechanics. For girls, there are as many courses, including dressmaking and bagmaking.

In addition to the skills training programme, the Department of National Defence started in 1966 the Rural Service Volunteer Programme which promotes and encourages active involvement of college students in the development of the rural areas through rural service workshops. Volunteer students utilize the long vacation in May and June to go to the provinces to initiate projects with the barrio people on a self-help basis. Projects include agricultural extension, forestry, health and sanitation, and cultural and recreational activities.

The Role of Private Organizations. Civic and professional organizations are actively involved in the national effort to meet the development needs of out-of-school children and youth. One of the more active civic organizations is the Philippine Youth Welfare Co-ordinating Council (PYWCC). Organized in 1958, the Council now involves more than 50 social and civic organizations and various government agencies in a co-ordinated programme designed to promote the moral, intellectual, and physical well-being of children and youth. The council has organized local councils in the Greater Manila Area and in several places in Luzon and the Visayas. It has set up and continues to maintain a youth-referral and job-placement centre in Manila.

Other PYWCC activities include (1) surveys on juvenile delinquency as well as social services for youth, restoration of character education in the elementary and secondary school curricula, (2) establishment of an inter-agency youth centre with a recreational programme for out-of-school youth, (3) organization of co-ordinated free legal services for young law offenders, and (4) conducting seminars, conferences, and institutes dealing with youth welfare.

Another organization with a noteworthy programme for youth is the 4-H Club of the Philippines. In 1967-68, there were 3,424 4-H clubs with 91,965 members of which 31,070 were out of school. The work of these clubs involves more than 9,000 volunteer adult leaders. It is estimated that the value of the 4-H production in 1968-69 was almost 3 million pesos.

The projects are carried on largely in the homes, in the farms, and in the rural community. Some of the specific accomplishments of these clubs are (1) awards of scholarships to deserving workers, (2) 4-H leadership training for college students and adult volunteers, and (3) assistance in the food production campaign.

Role of Other Civic Groups and Agencies. There are many other civic groups and agencies involved in youth work. These include the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement, the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts of the Philippines, YMCA, YWCA, Panamin, Lions Club, Rotary Club, and many others, the list of which is too long to itemize. It is encouraging to note the active involvement of so many of the more fortunate members of society in the education of the less privileged, especially those in the rural areas.

Concluding observations

Social awakening and concern in the welfare of the people, including those in the rural communities, constitute a potent force which is undoubtedly changing the social order. Already, the activism of youth and adults which started in Manila and the urban centres, is spreading fast all over the country. People are no longer satisfied with existing social conditions and they see in education the many possibilities for advancement. Increase in enlightenment among the people has also increased awareness of the various inequalities and imbalances in society. The widening gap between the rich and the poor, the inequities which result from antiquated institutions and procedures, the arrogance and abuses committed by the powerful and affluent elite - these and many other social problems and situations have stirred up the thoughts and feelings of youth and adults, especially the under-privileged. Rural education in the Philippines is challenged as it has never been challenged before. The decade of the seventies is likely to see a thorough overhaul of the system to make it increasingly responsive to a changing social order. The expectations are high and the demands are strong. It remains to be seen if present leadership will actually provide the resources and the facilities for meeting the demands and for fulfilling the expectations.

THE 4-H EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN TAIWAN, REPUBLIC OF CHINA

by Yulin Hsueh

A bright younger generation has for more than a decade been remodeling the life pattern in Taiwan's countryside, formerly dominated by centuries-old notions of a dour, modest peasantry. These boys and girls are enthusiastically serving their communities with their best, and are organized to learn by working and to work while learning.

They are 4-H members, now totaling 82,405 on the island. They are from 13 to 24 years of age, either in or out of school. The 4-H symbols of head, heart, hands and health have come to mean a strengthened agricultural community wherever the clubs have taken hold.

The rural youth programme of the world dates far back before Lord Baden-Bowell of England organized the first troop of Boy Scouts early in this century in order to develop self-reliance, courage and other virtues among the youths. It originated in the United States of America, but its beginning can hardly be traced to any single act. "Corn clubs" in various States began to work wherever a public-minded man or woman formed a group to give rural boys and girls respect for themselves and their way of life. This idea grew into a single movement, was broadcast abroad, and today some 90 countries in the world have 4-H clubs.

The 4-H seed was sown in Taiwan in the early years when rural reconstruction work began on the island after World War II. The clubs have been growing steadily since the first one came into existence some 18 years ago. A crude stone once ignored because of its dull appearance is

now sparkling after 18 years of polishing and furbishing. This is a typical Chinese language metaphor being used by Taiwan's rural education workers to summarize what the 4-H programme has done for farm youth. Like a Boy Scout, a 4-H member is ambitious and resourceful but with more moderation. Thus their dedication: "To show my own best achievement, to beat my own best record and to win without boasting and to lose without frowning."

In China's 4-H history, A.J. Brundage, a U.S. rural youth expert, contributed much to the successful youth movement in China. At the suggestion of Professor Anderson, the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction (JCRR) invited Brundage to come to Taiwan in 1952. With Chinese co-workers, he surveyed agricultural education school-by-school. They found farm students then lacking in both enthusiasm and perception, and concluded that farm youth should have more life education, more out-of-school activities and should be made aware of their opportunities as well as their family responsibilities.

In June 1962, the Taiwan Provincial Department of Education called a meeting of the principals of seven vocational agricultural schools to study the problem. Dr. Chiang Monlin, former JCRR chairman, proclaimed the 4-H programme as one of JCRR's pivotal works. Mr. C.T. Liao, then principal of the Chiayi Senior Agricultural School, was invited by the JCRR to be the first 4-H supervisor of the Republic of China.

The first 4-H club was established at the Chiayi school on October 14, 1952. A junior agricultural school in the same county followed suit that same day. Within the month, five other vocational schools had set up 4-H clubs. The first township 4-H club was established in Talin a month later.

Other significant events during the early period included the convening of the first 4-H annual congress in Taipei in 1954. By the third year, attention was focused on 582 rice club members, the best of whom more than doubled compared with the adult farmers' average yield, reaching a yield of 7,956 kilograms per hectare.

In 1961, the inauguration of the National 4-H Club Association with President Chiang Kai-shek and then Vice President Chen Cheng as honorary chairman and vice chairman was another milestone. The Association began in 1968 to select the year's 10 outstanding 4-H local leaders and members to be awarded in the annual 4-H congress.

Speaking to the delegates to the 1969 4-H Congress, Dr. T.H. Shen, Chairman of the JCRR and concurrently chairman of the National 4-H Association, once attributed the rural youth's good work to the many-sided 4-H education which teaches them social and civic services and the values of patriotism and democracy in addition to farm skills, homemaking and ways of better living. Several hundred thousand young people have undergone this education, observed Dr. Shen, and many members of China's farm teams successfully working in the African countries are former 4-H members. "The youth is influential and persuasive. As a 4-H member is more accessible to modern farming technology and new concepts, the 4-H movement also has served older people," he said.

Dr. Shen, also chairman of the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction (JCRR), tells a story of how the young 4-H'ers have exerted their influence over the old. Years ago, Hung Chao-jen of Pingtung County tried to coax his father into planting paddy rice with improved methods he had learned from his club. Satisfied with the ways passed from generation to generation, the father at first flatly declined, even jeering at his son's idea as conceit. The boy persisted. Finally the father let him try on a scrap of land, only 0.05 of a hectare. In a rice production contest sponsored by the Taiwan Provincial Department of Agriculture and Forestry, the junior Hung reaped a record harvest on this tiny plot; the father now trusts most farm judgments to his 4-H son.

Today, people sometimes may notice rice plants on a small piece of land by the roadside growing vigorously. This is usually a 4-H rice project, which challenges the vast paddy land around it for technical improvement.

Rice growing is only one of many 4-H projects in Taiwan. Others are hog, poultry and rabbit raising as well as sweet potato and other vegetable production. A 4-H club is composed of from five to 20 members with an adult to serve as voluntary local leader. They select their own staffs, hold regular meetings and study and learn better project methods. All members keep records of their projects. The rural youth has now become a driving force in the nation's economy.

The 4-H members' early contributions were many. The significant ones included encouragement of the use of power tillers, the start of mushroom production in Taichung, which accounted for half of Taiwan's production in the early stages, highly successful pest control in Talin of Chiayi County and many civic enterprises, such as road repairs after the disastrous floods of 1959 and 1960.

With geographic and climatic disadvantages, Taiwan has to overcome many difficulties in order to further increase agricultural production. The success of a 4-H member has been measured by the degree and amount of difficulties he has overcome. Therefore, delegates to the 1969 4-H Congress were exhorted to stress in their extension work the integrated use of techniques through organization and cooperation.

A Changhua 4-H local leader, Nien Ming-lung, who was a "grassroots ambassador" to Korea three years ago, tells of a successful 4-H venture. Nien had begun a cooperative farming project with several 4-H members in his Ting-mien Village in 1967 before going to Korea. With a loan of NT $5,000 from the provincial government, the group rented a piece of land of 0.2 hectare to grow rice and vegetables. They have since operated a chemical store - a cooperative - in Nien's house to provide low-priced pesticides. The 4-H local leader has also provided another room of his own for setting up a library to serve as a 4-H centre for study as well as for meetings and discussions. He had learned techniques in Korea under the rural youth exchange programme. "We have raised two pigs, weighing about 160 catties, and grown 40 ping of mushrooms," he says, "and our profit

has reached NT $46,000 now." Nien and his friends had encountered objections at the beginning but have overcome many difficulties; their diligence is being rewarded.

Juvenile delinquency plagues most urban areas but has so far been rare in the villages of Taiwan. This is another 4-H contribution. Young rural people are inclined to go to the extreme, according to Dr. Shen, some isolating themselves from society while others run wild, ultimately to become hooligans. The 4-H program can help to keep the rural society intact if it can be further developed because the way of 4-H training is practical. Members aged 12 to 16 take heed to the responsibilities of citizenship and those who are older stress production while making plans for their approaching marriages and the families they will have of their own.

Since the 4-H movement is international, goodwill missions have been sent abroad from Taiwan. Since 1957, a total of 60 "grassroots ambassadors" have gone to the United States, the Philippines, Korea, Japan, Republic of Viet-Nam and Thailand under the International Farm Youth Exchange Programme. From these countries have come 58 delegates. Living and working with host families for six months, these goodwill emissaries have helped to spread international understanding.

One local leader says that 4-H members will need to make even greater efforts because they are the rural leaders of the future. In any project meetings, in any social activities and in annual 4-H Congresses and campings, it is inspiring to attend and hear the members repeat in unison the 4-H oath: "For myself, my home, my club, my community, my country and other free countries, I pledge: my head to clearer thinking, my heart to greater loyalty, my hands to better living and my health to greater service."

RURAL TEACHER TRAINING IN THAILAND

by Thamrong Buasri

In most or all developing countries in Southeast Asia, the majority of the population lives in rural areas. They are the backbone of the country but the weakest, being mainly uneducated and passive. Thus they are bound to be in the midst of the vicious circle of poverty due to ignorance and ignorance due to poverty. Thailand, with 80% of her 34 million people living in the rural areas, is no exception. There is a big gap between the urban and rural population in all aspects of living: economic, social, political, etc. While those who live in rural communities are deprived of good education, appropriate health services and needed security measures, their urban fellow countrymen enjoy much better opportunities and privileges. The vicious circle can never be destroyed unless strenuous and exhaustive effort is put forth in the development of rural communities. This article will concentrate upon one of the various projects adopted by the Thai Government in dealing with this problem: the training of teachers for rural communities.

The rural teacher training project known as Thailand-Unesco Rural Teacher Education Project (TURTEP) was started in 1956, almost fifteen years ago. TURTEP is a project which aims at providing suitably trained teachers for the rural areas, who will be competent to carry out the double role of educator and community leader. The training provided combines the techniques of fundamental education and the method of teaching children; it should enable the student teachers to relate their teaching of school subjects with the concerns and needs of the school children at different ages. Furthermore, they should acquire the techniques of guiding adults and out-of-school youth in the improvement of their community and of their living standard. In this way, the schools under their supervision will serve as educational as well as community centres.

The Teachers College at Ubol (at that time a Teacher Training School) was chosen as a pilot centre. In order to facilitate the operation of the project, committees were set up at the national and local levels, and studies about the local conditions and other factors were made, to be utilized as base-line data. Following the studies, a planning workshop was held to clarify the aims and objectives and to suggest the formulation of the programme of the project. The actual work on the development of the project, in the sense of implementing its objectives, might be said to have started on November 1, 1956. The following activities were carried out between this date and the end of the school-year in March 1957: (a) selection of additional pilot schools and practicing village schools, (b) conducting village surveys, (c) providing in-service training to teachers of practicing schools and other activities such as improvement of the library, improvement of the demonstration school and improvement of the teacher training curriculum.

The work during 1957 and 1958 comprised of two major tasks; namely, (1) establishing the student-teaching programme or "village work" in the laboratory areas for the first group of students who were in the second year, (2) providing the training to the new group of first-year students in the initial pilot school at Ubol.

The work during 1958-59 and 1959-60 might be considered as the first expansion of the project. Two main tasks were carried out: (1) extension of the TURTEP programme developed in the Ubol Teachers College to some of the other teacher-training institutions and (2) continuation of the programme at Ubol. In addition, some new developments were made in the village work; namely, a new policy for housing of the student teachers, new village work/laboratory areas, additional college supervisors and additional activities, including the organization of 4-H clubs and agricultural programmes. In the meantime, scholarships were awarded to four staff members to go abroad for graduate work in 1958 and 1959.

Early in 1959, the Department of Education of Unesco sent two members of the Secretariat for an evaluation visit, and as a result a memorandum was drafted and recommendations made to the Ministry of Education of Thailand. To implement the recommendations, the following measures were

taken: (1) new assignments of Unesco experts to improve the teaching in the village schools, to improve field activities in the villages and to revise the college curriculum; (2) improvement of instructional materials and libraries; (3) improvement of the demonstration school; (4) improvement of the premises and instructional programme of the village schools and development of community leadership.

In 1961, the TURTEP programme was extended to all the teacher training institutions of the country. This was largely made possible by UNICEF which became interested in assisting the developing countries to work out educational projects which had direct bearing upon the children's welfare. Thus in July 1961, a new agreement was made between the Government of Thailand, and UNICEF and Unesco. The major objective was to expand and improve TURTEP activities whereby UNICEF would provide necessary equipment, supplies and materials, including transport for use in supervision of the practical field-work training. In addition, UNICEF would also provide expenses for in-service training of the instructors and supervisors of the teacher training college and the co-operating teachers of the village schools in the respective laboratory areas. As a result of this new agreement, the TURTEP programme was expanded to twenty seven training institutions throughout the country. At the present time, the project is still functioning actively with Unesco and UNICEF assistance and could be regarded as one important example of international assistance which bears considerable effect upon education and the various communities in the country.

The results achieved by the Rural Teacher Education Project may be classified into two categories (1) those attained by the project as an entity, and (2) those achieved by the programme which was developed by the project and subsequently expanded to other teacher training institutions. The achievements may be summarized as follows:

As an entity, the project has been able to develop the Ubol Teachers College as a pilot centre for the training of rural school teachers. It has also succeeded in extending the activities to all other teacher training institutions.

Achievements of the programme developed by the project up to 1967 were found to be quite extensive. Altogether, the training colleges have been able to produce about 25,000 rural school teachers. There are at present 179 rural co-operating schools and 512 rural co-operating villages working with the teacher training institutions. The enrolment of the rural co-operating schools is 43,215, and 1,387 rural co-operating teachers participated in the programme. About 4,650 student teachers work in the schools and villages, with 100 supervisors supervising the programme. The total population of the co-operating villages is about 312,000.

An appraisal of the project made by a Unesco expert confirmed that the project has succeeded in realizing its objectives specifically in extending its programme to all teacher training institutions. With regard to the effectiveness of the training programme, the in-service refresher training courses for the instructors of the academic subjects are quite effective whereas those provided to instructors of professional fields are insufficient. On the part of the co-operating schools, some aspects may be considered successful but some are not. The least developed aspect is the curriculum : the tendency to adhere too much to the course of study and the textbooks prepared by the central office is hard to overcome. Nevertheless, for the out-of-school aspect, several village schools have successful projects such as a community home-making centre project, a village library project and the 4-H club.

The rural teacher training project idea in Thailand should be applicable to other developing countries in Asia. It could easily be incorporated with a community development project by which education is taken as an integral part.

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EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS IN THE REPUBLIC OF VIET-NAM

by Trần Văn Tấn

Introduction

Over three-fourths of the population of the Republic of Viet-Nam are living in rural areas. According to 1968 statistics, the total population of the country is 16,259,334, with 4,172,384 people living in urban centres and 12,086,950 in rural areas. Except for cities of over 100,000 the towns have a very small area and population. The life of the urban population along the coastal regions is not very different from that of the rural population.

As in all South-East Asian countries, the Vietnamese population lives on agriculture. Revenues from agricultural products constitute about 33% of the annual national income and more than 90% of the value of the country's exports. The two principal agricultural products are rice and rubber.

Rural areas are the country's main supply sources for manpower and food; hence bettering the life in rural areas is a necessary condition for raising the level of development. Education, which can increase the general and technical knowledge of the population, then becomes the basis of social improvement in rural areas. The government, striving in recent years to develop rural education, has given the task particularly to the Ministries of Education and Rural Reconstruction.

The difficulties met by developing countries in the expansion of education in rural areas are the shortage of schoolrooms and teachers and, principally, a school organization suited to the farmer's life. The Republic of Viet-Nam is facing these difficulties but in a more critical degree because the rural areas have been the battlefield of a destructive war lasting more than twenty years. Besides having to construct new schools to meet the ever-increasing educational needs, the

government has to repair or rebuild the old schools which have been damaged or destroyed. By night, the teachers have to take part in the defence of their village, apart from their daily teaching task. They are working in a war-permeated atmosphere with rudimentary means, and at risk to their lives in some areas.

The primary objective of rural education is to teach the basic disciplines in order to prepare the children to take part effectively in the development of the community after their graduation from elementary (primary) or secondary school. Consequently, elementary and secondary education are the essential branches of education in rural areas.

Elementary (primary) education

The shortage of school-rooms is a problem of first importance in elementary education, in urban as well as in rural areas. In order to offer education to all the children in the community, the same classroom is usually used for different classes on the same day. Consequently, the schooling hours of the children vary according to circumstances. About 50 per cent of all classrooms are reserved for two different classes, with four hours of instruction daily for each class. Approximately 17 per cent of the classrooms are used for three different classes of no more than three hours of schooling daily per class, another 8 per cent of classrooms are used for four different classes of just two hours daily per class, and only 25 per cent of the classrooms are limited to one class with five hours of instruction daily. [1]

From the above considerations we see that the shortage of school-rooms is in part responsible for the inadequate education given to the children and the low standard of elementary education in rural areas (five-years of schooling). The shortage of teachers is also very critical. The Normal schools do not train enough teachers to satisfy the needs : only about 1,500 are trained per year instead of the 3,000 needed. The period of training is two years after the Baccalaureate (1st part) diploma. A great number of teachers have abandoned their teaching

1. Viet-Nam, Rep. of. Ministry of Education. *Present situation of education in Viet-Nam.* /Saigon/ 1969.

career because of a salary too low to keep their family alive. In many cases, also, they do not want to serve in remote and insecure areas.

In order to overcome the difficulties mentioned above, the Vietnamese government has adopted special measures in the building of schools and the recruitment of teachers.

The construction of school-rooms in each hamlet - the smallest administrative unit - is in direct ratio to the population. Each hamlet is granted a maximum of five school-rooms corresponding to the five grades in elementary education (from the first to the fifth grade). The school-rooms are built according to model blue-prints and with materials of good quality. The budget for the construction and equipment of those school-rooms is supported by the Central Council of Rural Reconstruction or by the joint effort of the population and the local authority. Building materials are supplied by the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID). Over the past seven years, well over 12,000 school-rooms have been built in the rural areas of the Republic of Viet-Nam. In addition, the Ministry of Rural Reconstruction has also provided financial assistance for the repair of schools damaged by the war (about 10% of all schools have been destroyed or damaged).

As for the recruitment and training of teachers, the government took temporary measures to meet the requirements in teachers in rural areas (one teacher for each class):

Recruitment: Provincial and city authorities in charge of rural reconstruction recruit teachers on the basis of local service in elementary education. The conditions for recruitment have been stipulated as follows:

- Male candidates must be at least 21 years of age; female candidates, at least 20 years of age;
- They must have at least the Diploma of Secondary Education (1st Cycle);
- Priority is given to inhabitants of the locality.

In case there are insufficient candidates with the required diploma, candidates with an Elementary Education diploma and a certificate stating that they have completed four years of Secondary Education may be accepted. Priority is

given to inhabitants of the locality, veterans, war-widows, war-orphans and war-victims. In the special case of communities of ethnic minorities (mountain-tribes, Chams, Khmers etc.) candidates are only required to have the Elementary Education diploma. Successful candidates become "hamlet" teachers.

Training: The local office of Elementary education is entrusted with the training of hamlet teachers according to a special programme stipulated by the Ministry of Education: two months of training in theories of pedagogy and community education and one month of teaching practice at an elementary school. The budget for the training of hamlet teachers is supported by the Central Council of Rural Reconstruction.

Since 1964, nearly 16,000 hamlet teachers have been recruited, with over 4,000 being recruited in 1969. The efficiency of these teachers is of course lower than that of teachers graduated from Normal schools. Local services of Elementary education have endeavoured to supplement their training with seminars in pedagogy held every month at elementary schools of county towns.

One of the endeavours of the government is to improve elementary schools so as to help education to take part effectively in the development of the country. During the 1954-55 school year, experiments were made in the establishment of 9 Community Elementary schools in the provinces of Thừa-Thiên, Khánh-Hòa, Quảng-Ngãi, Quảng-Nam, Bình-Dinh, Bình-Duong, Bình-Thuận, Vĩnh-Bình and Quảng-Trị. Since the 1958-59 school year, the formula of community elementary schools has been approved by the Ministry of Education and gradually applied to elementary schools all over the country. In 1968-69, there were 1,356 community elementary schools, consisting of 17,574 school-rooms with 17,750 teachers and 370,062 school children. The total number of regular elementary schools is 5,346; consequently, more than 25 per cent of elementary schools have been turned into community elementary schools.

In order to provide community elementary schools with trained teachers, the Long-An Normal School was established in 1956 with the help of Unesco. Since 1966, all Normal Schools have become schools for the training of

community school teachers. Today those Normal Schools have graduated 3,473 teachers among which there are 1,862 women-teachers. The years 1967 and 1968 alone accounted for 2,681 of the total; prior to these years, the schools had been graduating only about 100 teachers per year.

Secondary education

Along with elementary schools, high (secondary) schools have also been developing in rural areas. In the old days, high schools were established only in cities and towns. Nowadays a great number of districts and villages with a large population also have high schools. In 1970, the Ministry of Education set up a number of "expanded" elementary schools to provide school children with several years of secondary education after their completion of the elementary education programme.

With the increase in quantity, the Ministry of Education has also improved the quality of the curriculum on the Secondary education level. In 1965, two Demonstration High Schools attached to the Faculties of Education of Saigon and Huê were established with the view of applying the "comprehensive" system to our secondary education. The government has approved projects for comprehensive high schools and the gradual change of regular high schools into comprehensive high schools. With the establishment of comprehensive high schools, Vietnamese rural areas will be endowed with a secondary education better suited to the social conditions and the local environment. This education aims at widening the knowledge of people in the rural areas and training the youth to take part effectively in the development of the country.

Special attention should be paid to the teaching of agriculture, animal husbandry and forestry in any project of rural education, for these disciplines help train cadres necessary for the development of rural areas. The objective of agricultural education in the Republic of Viet-Nam has been stipulated as follows:

a) Popularization of agricultural techniques in the rural population in general;

b) Training of school children, who have to leave school due to family circumstances, in their job of cultivation and animal husbandry;

c) Co-ordination of agricultural education with the teaching of industrial arts in view of economic development;

d) Co-ordination of agricultural education with general education in the dissemination of scientific and technical knowledge necessary to the improvement of the life of the citizens.

Agricultural education really started to develop in 1963 with the establishment of 3 High schools of Agriculture at Bảo-Lôc (central highlands), Căn-Tho (southern region) and Huế (central coast). Today there are ten high schools of agriculture. The Ministry of Education is planning to open three more schools per year, so that every province will have at least one high school of agriculture in the near future. These schools are preparing to train children for the Technical Baccalaureate, 2nd Part (Section of Agriculture).

In addition, to train technicians in agriculture, animal husbandry and forestry, the Ministry of Education has organized at the Bảo-Lôc High School of Agriculture specialized professional classes of 12 months for holders of the diploma of Secondary Education (lst Cycle) or of the Technical Baccalaureate 2nd Part (Section of Agriculture).

In recent years, in order to offer on-the-spot vocational training to school children in rural areas, the Ministry of Education has allowed the establishment of grades VI and VII in agricultural education (i.e. the first two years of secondary education) at certain community elementary schools. Classes of further education and vocational training are also organized for adult farmers.

In order to obtain teachers for high schools of agriculture, the Ministry of Education has established, since 1966, special classes to train lst-cycle high school teachers in agriculture. The training will last 12 months, and candidates will be selected among holders of the Technical Baccalaureate (Section of Agriculture) who have already received a 12-month specialized training.

Like other branches, agricultural education is facing many difficulties caused by the shortage of school-rooms, teachers and equipment - and because of the organization required, agricultural education is less developed than other branches of education in the country. The following statistics, nevertheless, will show the rapid expansion of agricultural education in the Republic of Viet-Nam in recent years :

	1965	1970
No. of high schools of agriculture (2nd-cycle) :	3	5
" " " " " " (1st-cycle) :	0	5
No. of teachers :	20	398
No. of pupils :	1,205	4,349

Conclusion

Education in rural areas in the Republic of Viet-Nam is still below standard despite the ever-increasing effort of the government and local population, mainly because of the following conditions :

1. The shortage of school buildings is magnified by damages caused by the war;
2. The shortage of cadres in rural areas is amplified because responsible young people have to enlist in the Army or settle themselves in urban centres where there is more security;
3. The rural population lives in constant danger which prevents them from devoting all their time and spirit to education;
4. The government has to devote most of the nation's resources to national defence.

The government as well as the people believe that the educational programme now implemented in rural areas conforms to the conditions of a developing agricultural nation, and that this programme will help the rural areas of the country to develop fully when peace is restored.

PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM FOR RURAL ENVIRONMENT AND TEACHER EDUCATION

by M. El-Shibiny

Rural education in the seventies

A great challenge in rural primary education is the improvement of the quality of the curriculum, techniques of instruction and training of teachers to be provided for the rural child. In many countries, the rural child has been and is still suffering from the education pressed upon him from the urban areas without due regard to his environmental conditions, his basic social and economic needs, his motivations and his interests. As a result, primary education in the rural areas has become stagnant and non-functional.

It is of utmost importance to view education in the rural areas as a dynamic tool for economic and social development. The concept of primary education as only a means for making rural children literate is not adequate. The quality of rural education should also be judged in the context of its contribution to the economy of the villages and their social betterment.

Agriculture: the backbone of the Asian economies

The major issue in the Asian development strategy is agriculture, the basic source of livelihood of the population. In many Asian countries, agriculture is the largest single source of wealth and it will remain for many years to come as the backbone of their economy. Between 70 and 80 per cent of the population in Asia depend on land for their living: 80 per cent in Indonesia, 74 per cent in Pakistan, 70 per cent in India, the Philippines and Malaysia. Rural communities not only provide the bulk of the nations' food but also the necessary raw materials for textile, jute, sugar and other industries. In many Asian countries the agricultural communities contribute approximately 40 per cent to the Gross National Product.

The strategy for educational development must take account of the basic fact that the rural sector is still, and will be for decades to come, the most essential source of wealth and livelihood for more than four-fifths of the population in Asia. If education is mainly an economic and social investment, then what is the dynamic role which it should perform in the rural sector?

Curriculum for the rural environment

Any given creative curriculum is a product of three major factors: (1) the concepts upon which the curriculum is based, (2) the abilities, skills and interests of pupils to be promoted and motivated, and (3) the economic, social and cultural conditions prevailing in the community which positively or negatively affect the realization of desired ends laid down in the objectives of education.

Bearing these three factors in mind it becomes conspicuous that a creative curriculum is no more than an instrument through which specific aims of education are realized. The aims of education for pupils in urban and rural areas are essentially similar and there can be no two separate systems of education for urban and rural areas. But the approach to realizing the aims has to be adapted to varying conditions and environment.

In order to build up a rural curriculum of a dynamic nature it is essential to identify the basic concepts that should underlie it.

1. The first concept is self-realization. A child in a rural community has a self which could not develop in a vacuum but rather in a concrete interaction with his environment. The constant growth of the self depends upon the scope of the intellectual, social and emotional activities in which it participates. Hence, the rural child could only achieve a desirable degree of self-realization if the school programme comprised a variety of activities leading to the development of his personality. Ability to express himself in reading and writing, skill in solving problems of counting and calculating, developing effective attitudes toward observing the natural changes in his environment, understanding basic facts concerning

the social and economic conditions of his village, and intelligent participation in community life are basic activities which make an important contribution toward children's self-realization in their rural communities.

2. The second concept is the economic awareness of the rural environment. In the nature of the village economic structure, a rural child from his early age must work in order to assist his family on the farm and at home. After school and during vacations, the rural child helps his parents in various activities connected with plantation harvesting, irrigation and taking care of the family animals. Promoting the sense of economic awareness involves a variety of activities which should enable children to develop an appreciation of earning one's living, an understanding of methods of farming and raising animals, the knowledge of how farmers contribute to the economic progress of the country, and a comprehension of the purposes of the organizations serving the rural communities such as the agricultural co-operatives, the farmers' unions, and the credit banks. The rural child should be helped to develop an economic awareness of his rural community through basic knowledge as well as direct experience as a producer and consumer.

3. The third concept is social and cultural cognizance of the rural community life. The psychological frustration observed nowadays among rural youth is mainly a resultant of the loss of social identity. It is the sense of belonging which should be promoted in the rural child, the cognizance of social values and understanding of cultural heritages prevailing in the rural communities. In the primary school curriculum, provision must be made for helping the child to develop an understanding of the customs, habits, norms and ways of life which exist in his community.

4. The fourth concept is civic responsibility toward the rural community. Being a member of a social group the rural child develops certain responsibilities toward himself, his family, his community and his country at large. In any given rural society the child is considered and treated as an active member. He takes an interest in the current affairs of his village as they have direct and indirect effect on the social or financial situation of his family.

Education for civic responsibilities requires providing the rural child with opportunities to participate intelligently and actively in the social activities which take place in his community. The curriculum is an instrument for providing a variety of on-the-spot civic experiences for the child to promote his sense of leadership.

Aims of the curriculum in rural environment

The four major concepts explained above provide a basis for defining specific educational objectives of the curriculum and the learning experiences that should go with them. Taking these into consideration, it would be possible to formulate the following fundamental curricular objectives.

a) to provide appropriate experiences necessary for the rural child to acquire adequate mastery of the basic tools of learning; in language, calculation, natural and social sciences;

b) to promote in the rural child an integral personality by meeting his intellectual, emotional, social, aesthetic and physical needs;

c) to inculcate in the rural child a scientific attitude toward his community and the motivation toward its betterment;

d) to develop in the rural child a sense of belonging to his community and of civic responsibilities, and a respect for its traditions and cultural values;

e) to provide the rural child with theoretical knowledge and practical experiences in activities connected with the rural way of life;

f) to promote in the rural child an awareness of the new technology influencing his society and an appreciation of the new methods and modern techniques in farming and animal husbandry.

Planning and implementing the curriculum

In planning for primary school curriculum suited to rural environment it becomes necessary to consider certain

factors of great significance. The first is the preparation of the rural public opinion to accept and co-operate in transforming their schools to centres for community development. This would require a change of concept and of attitude toward the function of the school from a mere conventional institution for teaching the basic academic skills and for issuing primary education certificates to a dynamic centre for serving the rural people and their societies. The second factor is to secure the support and services rendered by government agencies in villages: the agricultural extension agents, the social workers, the health officers and the like. The third factor is to provide the teaching and supervisory personnel with the necessary training and orientation. Appropriate methods of teaching and supervision are essential to adjust the curriculum to the environmental conditions and to stimulate the children to acquire the basic abilities for improving their communities.

The fourth factor is the provision of books and instructional materials especially prepared for the rural child. Such reading materials which deal with the economic, social and cultural life of rural communities motivate the child for a better understanding of his environment and give him the incentive for its improvement. The fifth factor is the financial and equipment facilities necessary for providing practical experiences and skills for children in farming, livestock and poultry raising, and handicrafts making. A piece of land for farming, premises for livestock and poultry raising, space for dairy products and food conservation, and tools for planting and handicrafts are necessary for imparting a curriculum geared to functional rural education.

The end-product of the curriculum should be the preparation of a highly motivated child who contributes to the betterment of the economic and social conditions of his rural community.

Teachers and their preparation

One of the major factors contributing to the ineffectiveness of much primary education is the lack of competent and efficient teachers who are appropriately prepared for taking-up their challenging duties in villages. The problem lies in the academic, social and professional requirements

which the teacher should possess during his preparation in a teacher education institute.

The search for an appropriate teacher education programme for rural communities should be a major policy concern. Most prevailing teacher education programmes are concerned primarily with content. A series of subject courses of study are systematically organized and controlled in a typical traditional pattern. The teacher education programme is "neatly cut up into separate pieces like a pie."[1] In this way the institute is divided into departments or sections, each responsible for teaching its own bit of the overall programme. Each staff member offers instruction according to his specific assignment with little correlation or interrelation between the various courses.

The alternative to this is to shift the emphasis in teacher education from content to the learner. This concept calls for directing the curriculum toward the pre-service teacher as a learner and prospective teacher. Academic knowledge, professional experiences and practical activities are not provided to the student teacher in segregated instruction but rather all knowledge and experiences are organized in an integral and interrelated programme to provide the student teacher with the necessary motivations and skills to develop in him (a) an integrated personality, (b) professional competency, and (c) a sense of leadership.

It has to be very clear that we require for rural areas a different type of teacher, a teacher who has been prepared in such a way as to be able to help the rural child to take an active part in his community socially, culturally and economically. This teacher should transform his school from a mere academic and traditional institution to a functional centre for community improvement.

The curriculum for preparing teachers for rural schools should naturally take into consideration (a) the psychological structure of the rural children and inhabitants, their motivations and interests; (b) the rural environmental conditions

1. Combs W. Arthur. *The professional education of teachers.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965. p. 113

economically, socially and culturally; (c) the need for gearing the school instruction to the rural community life; and (d) the techniques the teacher should adopt for rendering services in community development.

The curriculum for preparing rural teachers would thus generally comprise theoretical and practical courses dealing with (a) general education which mainly aims at providing broad understanding of the culture and community life; (b) academic education for the purpose of developing competencies and skills in subject areas; (c) professional education for providing theoretical knowledge and practical experiences necessary for promoting efficiency in teaching; (d) rural community education which provides basic understanding of the economic and social structures of the agricultural areas; and (e) rural community services which call for training student teachers in methods and techniques of serving the villages through intelligent participation in local development projects.

Professional education and student teaching

In order to help the prospective teacher to develop a rich insight and profound understanding of the nature, scope and the fundamental theories and practices in the teaching profession it is necessary for the curriculum to include courses in (a) the philosophical foundations in education for the purpose of exploring the various philosophical theories and concepts as affecting educational practices and policy-making, (b) the psychological foundations of education with the view to develop an understanding of basic psychological principles in the educational processes and an ability to use these principles in teaching and learning situations, and (c) the social foundations of education which mainly aim at exploring the impact of social and economic factors on education and vice versa.[2]

It is to be borne in mind that the knowledge and experiences presented to the student teachers in these foundation

2. Regional Meeting of Teacher Educators in Asia, convened by Unesco with the co-operation of the Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City, 23 September - 3 October 1969. *Final report*. Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. p. 39-47

courses should not only have a bearing on the development of their professional personalities but also be related meaningfully to the rural environment and the rural child.

Student teaching is often considered the corner-stone of any teacher education programme. The importance of student teaching lies in the fact that the prospective teacher is testing in action the experiences and knowledge which he accomplished during his preparation. His personality, his skills, his abilities and his academic and professional experiences are examined in real classroom situations.

Four major stages to student teaching are suggested. The first is general observation of children's behaviour, teachers at work, instructional materials and books used, co-curricular activities, and school system and administration. Such observation is to be considered an introductory phase of his teaching practice. The second stage is a period of intensive orientation in selected schools with the contents of curriculum, planning of lessons, techniques of teaching, methods of class management, various textbooks and teaching aids, examination procedures and school-community activities. The third stage is a period of gradual introduction to practice teaching in classes. Student teachers in this period become responsible for class teaching and share in the various programme activities of the laboratory school as on-campus training. The fourth stage is the distribution of student teachers to the co-operating schools situated off-campus in order to assume their full duties in teaching and participation in school activities for a longer period.

Two main factors must be emphasized in student-teaching. One is that, during all the four stages of student teaching, discussion, conferences and tutorial guidance are essential. Student teachers with the advice of their instructors should exchange experiences, share ideas, assess and evaluate their observations and teachings. The other factor is that emphasis should be placed upon assisting the student teachers to gear their instruction to the rural community and participate functionally in the school community social programmes.

Community studies and services

This topic in the teacher education programme is singled

out for special mention because it has a direct bearing on the concept of a school as a community centre. Our main concern in producing a competent rural teacher is how to develop in him awareness of the rural situation and the sense of responsibility to take an active part in rural activities through the community centre.

The preparation of teachers for the rural environment should have its focus on the following areas : (a) development of an understanding of the various conditions of rural communities : economic, social and cultural; (b) identifying major problems hindering the progress of these communities; (c) studying these problems in depth and finding out their causes and the implications for the improvement of those communities; (d) exploring appropriate methods for pragmatically solving these problems, and (e) participating in existing reform projects in some villages in order to acquire skills and abilities in serving the rural communities.

Research and new methods and techniques in teacher education

The Asian societies are in the process of continuous economic, social and cultural change. The speed of change as a resultant of the innovations in science and technology together with the use of mass media devices has been tremendous in the last few decades. Rural teacher education institutions will become stagnant and inactive if they are not aware of these new trends. Such institutions should be dynamic centres in preparing teachers for changing rural societies.

Science and technology have introduced new approaches in the techniques of farming and increasing production. They have also introduced new methods and techniques in teaching and learning. All these innovations are to be taken into consideration in organizing the curriculum and imparting it in the teacher education programmes.

The Meeting on Curriculum Development in Teacher Education in Asia has rightly stated three essential factors.[3] The first is that the traditional methods in curriculum organization and teaching cannot provide solutions to the vast problems

3. *ibid.* p. 8

of teacher preparation. The second factor is the pressing need for actively encouraging and facilitating a spirit of experimentation aud research in trying out and evolving new techniques and better methods in teacher education in the Asian region. The third factor is that teacher education should spearhead innovation and dynamic growth of education.

In order for rural teacher education to meet the increasing need for development, a considerable attention should be accorded to establishment of a research unit or section in each institution for examining the new techniques and evolving others which could be applicable to improve the existing system of teacher preparation. Such methods and techniques in teaching, in community studies and services are to be directed primarily towards promoting an attitude for enquiry, for self study, for exploring ways and means to serve more functionally children and adults in rural communities.

Educators, economists, agriculturists and social workers should make collective efforts in order to find out the most appropriate means through which education can contribute to the rural transformation. No educational reform can be achieved without the full co-operation of the teacher education institutions which are responsible for producing competent teachers. These institutions in every Asian nation should take the initiative in preparing efficient teachers who are capable of contributing to the constant development of the rural communities.

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NOTES ON ASIAN DOCUMENTS ON EDUCATION

PUBLICATIONS ASIENNES SUR L'EDUCATION

The following brief annotated list of documents on education has been compiled by a selection from entries in recent quarterly Accession Lists of the Unesco Regional Office Library (available to readers).

Cette brève bibliographie annotée de documents sur l'éducation regroupe des titres choisis dans les plus récentes listes trimestrielles d'acquisitions de la bibliothèque du Bureau régional de l'Unesco, où l'on peut les consulter.

Central Education Research Institute, Seoul. *A content analysis of the elementary school textbooks and a related study for improvement of textbook administration.* Seoul, Ministry of Science and Technology, 1969. 138 p.

A study which was supported by the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST) and USAID Trust Fund to find ways to publish better textbooks and to overcome the difficulties which hinder the writing of textbooks. For each of the following aspects of textbooks which were analyzed: contents, compilation, and administration - problems were identified and corresponding recommendations were made.

Cet ouvrage est le résultat d'une étude financée par le Ministère de la science et de la technologie et par l'USAID, et visant à déterminer les moyens de publier de meilleurs manuels scolaires et de vaincre les difficultés auxquelles se heurtent les rédacteurs de tels ouvrages, les auteurs du rapport identifient les problèmes - et formulent les recommandations correspondantes - concernant les trois domaines sur lesquels a porté leur analyse: contenu des manuels, rédaction et composition, et aspects administratifs de l'édition.

Ceylon. Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs. *Education in Ceylon, a centenary volume.* Colombo, 1969. 3 v.

A 3-volume comprehensive study on education in Ceylon published "to mark the completion of a century of organized educational effort which commenced in 1869 with the establishment of the Department of Public Instruction by the British Government." Part I traces education from the 6th century to the time when the school system was under the Portuguese and the Dutch. Part II surveys education from the British period to the twentieth century. Part III covers the present structure of education, the content of education, the economic aspects of education, and the auxiliary services. The traditional systems of education - Buddhist, Hindu, and Moslem are also reviewed. An exhaustive bibliography of 46 pages appears in the appendix.

Cet ouvrage en trois tomes, étude très complète de l'éducation à Ceylan, a été publié "pour célébrer le centenaire de l'enseignement organisé en tant que tel, puisque c'est en effet en 1869 que le Département de l'instruction publique a été institué par le gouvernement britannique." Le premier tome retrace l'historique de l'éducation à Ceylan, du VI siècle jusqu'à l'époque où elle relevait des Portugais et des Hollandais.

Le deuxième tome est consacré à la période britannique, jusqu'au xx^{e} siècle. Le troisième est une étude descriptive de l'enseignement actuel, de sa structure, de son contenu, de ses aspects économiques et des services auxiliaires. Sont également exposés les systèmes traditionnels (bouddhiste, hindou et musulman) d'éducation. En appendice, une bibliographie exhaustive de 46 pages.

The College of Education, Prasarnmit. *Masters of Education thesis abstract series, no. 2, B.E. 2510-2512 (1967-1969).* Bangkok, B.E. 2512 (1969). 94 p.

The second issue of the series listing 34 studies, each accompanied by a 2-3 page abstract. Copies are available on exchange to institutions engaged in educational research by writing to the Librarian of the College.

Collection consacrée aux thèses de maîtrise en pédagogie présentées au Prasarnmit College of Education, de Bangkok; ce deuxième numéro présente 34 études dont chacune est résumée en 2 ou 3 pages. Les institutions de recherches sur l'éducation peuvent s'en procurer des exemplaires, par voie d'échange, en s'adressant au bibliothécaire du College.

India. Education Commission. *Report of the Education Commission 1964-1966: Supplementary Volume II.* New Delhi, Ministry of Education and Youth Services, 1970. xvi, 372 p.

A compilation of all vital supporting statistical data used for the report of the Education Commission. The contents is as follows: Part I - Statistics of educational development in India for the first three Five Year Plans (1951-52 to 1965-66), Part II - Statistics of comparative education in selected countries, Part III - Educational statistics of 29 selected districts in 9 States, Part IV - Statistics of educational expenditure, Part V - Development of education in different States and districts of the country.

Recueil de toutes les statistiques utilisées par la Commission indienne de l'éducation pour établir son grand Rapport. L'ouvrage est ainsi composé: I^{e} partie: Statistiques relatives au développement de l'éducation en Inde durant la période correspondant aux trois premiers Plans quinquennaux (1951-52 à 1965-66); II^{e} partie: Statistiques d'éducation comparée relatives à quelques pays; III^{e} partie: Statistiques de l'enseignement dans 29 districts particuliers de 9 Etats de l'Union indienne; IV^{e} partie: Statistiques sur les dépenses d'éducation; V^{e} partie: développement de l'éducation dans différents Etats et districts du pays.

India. National Council of Educational Research and Training /National Institute of Education: Department of Psychological Foundations/ *All-India survey of achievement in mathematics, summary report.* New Delhi, 1969. 32 p.

A survey carried out by the National Institute of Education under a contract with the U.S. Office of Education, and conducted at the primary, middle and high-school levels of education in all the States of India, except Bihar and Madras. Ten tables of statistical data are included.

Aux termes d'un contrat conclu avec l'Office of Education des Etats-Unis, l'Institut national (indien) de l'éducation a pu mener à bien une enquête sur les résultats en mathématiques d'élèves d'écoles primaires et secondaires (des deux cycles) de tous les Etats de l'Inde - sauf Bihar et Madras. Ce rapport comprend dix tableaux statistiques.

India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. National Institute of Education. Department of Textbooks. *Preparation and evaluation of textbooks in social studies: some principles and procedures.* Experimental ed. New Delhi, 1970. 100 p.

The principles and procedures for preparing and evaluating textbooks are in the form of guidelines and, although the scope is limited to primary school textbooks, many of the guidelines may be applicable to social studies textbooks on the secondary level.

Les principes et méthodes à suivre pour rédiger et évaluer les manuels d'études sociales sont présentés sous forme de directives et, bien que cet ouvrage ne vise que le premier degré, bon nombre de ces directives pourraient s'appliquer aux manuels d'études sociales destinés aux écoles secondaires.

Japan Audio-Visual Education Association. *Audio-visual aids and technology in Japan, 1970.* Tokyo, 1970. 58 p. illus.

The latest annual report on "how audio-visual teaching materials and new techniques are used for educational purposes in Japan." Included in this issue are two case studies on the use of teaching machines in schools.

Le plus récent rapport annuel publié au Japon sur l'emploi, à des fins éducatives, des auxiliaires audio-visuels et des nouvelles techniques. Figurent dans cette livraison deux monographies sur l'utilisation des machines à enseigner.

Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Revised course of study for elementary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, 1969. 226 p. (MEJ 6744)

A course of study prepared for the revised curriculum which will be implemented in 1971. Included in the course are the guiding principles and objectives for curriculum organization.

Nouveau plan d'études élaboré dans l'optique des programmes scolaires révisés (premier degré) qui entreront en application en 1971. Les principes directeurs de cette révision, et les objectifs visés, sont indiqués dans cet ouvrage.

Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Revised course of study for lower secondary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, Japanese National Commission for Unesco, 1969. 246 p. (MEJ 6756)

A revision of the 1958 course of study which was officially made public in April 1969 and which will take effect in 1972. The basic principles and general provisions which guided the revision appear in an introductory section to the course of study.

Version révisée du plan d'études de 1958, qui a été officiellement rendue publique en avril 1969 et entrera en application en 1972. L'introduction de cet ouvrage indique les principes fondamentaux et les dispositions générales qui ont guidé cette révision.

Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Standard facilities and equipment for agricultural upper secondary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, 1969. 78 p. tables. (MEJ 6745)

In keeping with the introductory statement "that improvement of facilities and equipment is one of the essential factors for the promotion of industrial education," this booklet contains standards for facilities and equipment for Agricultural Courses which were revised in 1965 and which are now in force.

"L'amélioration des installations et de l'équipement scolaires est l'un des facteurs essentiels du progrès de l'éducation," est-il dit dans l'introduction de cet ouvrage, qui indique les normes officielles actuellement en vigueur (révision de 1965) qui concernant les installations et l'équipement des établissements d'enseignement agricole.

Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Standard facilities and equipment for industrial upper secondary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, 1970. 217 p. (MEJ 6762)

A translation of the appendix to the Enforcement Order of the Industrial Promotion Law established in 1952 and revised in 1965. Standard facilities and equipment are prescribed for the following industrial courses: mechanics, ship building, electricity, electronics, civil engineering, chemical engineering, ceramics, textile dyeing, metallurgy, metal work, wood art, metal art, design.

Traduction de l'appendice de l' Ordonnance d'application de la Loi d'encouragement à l'industrie votée en 1952 et révisée en 1965. Ce texte prescrit les installations et les équipements réglementaires pour les enseignements techniques ci-après: mécanique, construction navale, électricité, électronique, génie civil, génie chimique, céramique, teinture des textiles, métallurgie, travail des métaux, travail artistique du bois et du métal, dessin technique.

Jayasuriya, J.E. *Education in Ceylon before and after independence, 1939-1968.* Colombo, Associated Educational Publishers, 1969. 218 p.

"Section I ... describes the educational scene at 1939. Section II deals with important facets of the long and arduous struggle against privileged and vested interests in education. Section III deals with other aspects of education or issues in education ... Section IV attempts an assessment of achievement and failure in the field of education during the period under review." The appendices contain a listing of Commissions and Committees on Education and their reports, Educational legislation, and a glossary of terms.

"La première partie de cet ouvrage ... expose la situation de l'enseignement à Ceylan en 1939. La deuxième décrit les épisodes les plus importants de la longue et pénible lutte contre les privilèges et les intérêts de classe en matière d'éducation. Divers autres aspects de l'enseignement et problèmes d'éducation sont étudiés dans la troisième partie. Dans la quatrième, l'auteur tente d'établir le bilan des succès et des échecs qui ont marqué la période considérée." En appendice figurent le répertoire des commissions et comités ayant compétence en matière d'éducation (avec mention de leurs rapports), la liste des lois intéressant l'enseignement, et un glossaire.

Panjab, University of. Department of Research. Institute of Education and Research, Lahore. *Research projects and publications in education: a bibliography, 1960-69.* Lahore, 1970. 106 p.

A bibliography of students' research for the masters degree, faculty dissertations and published literature of the Institute. The last section is an index to the Institute's *Bulletin of Education and Research (21 issues).*

Cette bibliographie énumère les thèses de doctorat rédigées par des étudiants, les recherches publiées par les professeurs de l'Institut de pédagogie et les publications mêmes de ce dernier. La dernière section est l'index du *Bulletin of Education and Research,* périodique de l'Institut (21 numéros parus).

Papua and New Guinea, Territory of. Department of Education. *Three-phase primary science, teachers handbook.* Port Moresby, 1969. 3 v. (Papua New Guinea Primary Science Project)

Course material prepared for three Phases or for Standards 1-6 of the primary school, each phase lasting for 2 years or for 2 Standards. Phase I is a series of activities after which discussions and questions are

encouraged, Phase II is a series of experiments for pupils to observe and report on, and Phase III is a series of more formal experiments. There is a teacher's card for every lesson giving the topic to be taught, a photograph illustrating how pupils are expected to use materials, list of materials needed for the lesson, and a list of activities for the children to do. All lessons demonstrate how inexpensive equipment and simple activities can be used by a resourceful teacher.

Ce livre du maître en trois tomes a été établi pour les six années du cycle primaire, qui forment trois étapes de deux années (ou classes) chacune. Le premier volume est consacré à une série d'activités devant inspirer des questions et des discussions; le deuxième traite d'une série d'expériences que les élèves doivent observer et décrire; le troisième présente des expériences plus classiques. Pour chaque leçon, le maître trouve dans cet ouvrage une fiche commentant le sujet à traiter, une photographie montrant comment les élèves doivent utiliser le matériel, la liste du matériel nécessaire, et un certain nombre d'activités à suggérer aux élèves. Toutes les leçons montrent comment un maître doué d'ingéniosité peut utiliser un équipement peu coûteux et des activités simples.

Ramji, Marni Tata. *The concept of personality in the educational thought of Mahatma Gandhi.* New Delhi, National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1969. 348 p.

"The aim of this book is to formulate a coherent and total concept of personality in Gandhiji's educational thought and to establish the relationship between his concept of personality and the educational activities suggested by him. With this end in view, the author has selected and examined 4,300 statements of Gandhiji pertaining to personality and education and identified 6,170 idea-units" classified under 18 topics on personality.

L'objet de cet ouvrage est de formuler une conception cohérente et globale de la personnalité d'après les idées de Gandhi sur l'éducation, et de préciser la relation entre cette notion et les activités de caractère éducatif suggérées par lui. A cet effet, l'auteur a relevé et analysé, dans les paroles et les écrits de Gandhi, 4.300 passages relatifs à la personnalité et à l'éducation, et a identifié 6.170 "idées unitaires," classées sous 18 traits de personnalité pris comme rubriques.

Regional Meeting of Teacher Educators in Asia, Quezon City, 23 September - 3 October 1969. *Curriculum development in teacher education in Asia, report of the Meeting convened by Unesco with the cooperation of the Asian Institute for Teacher Educators.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1969. 85 p.

Réunion regionale de professeurs d'enseignement normal en Asie, Quezon City, 23 septembre - 3 octobre 1969. *Elaboration de plans d'études pour les écoles normales d'Asie; rapport de la Réunion convoquée par l'Unesco, avec le concours de l'Institut asien pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal.* Bangkok, Bureau regional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1970. 98 p.

The report of a meeting of teacher educators from 16 Asian countries which studied curriculum development in the context of aims and objectives of teacher education, issues and problems, and innovations and new trends in teacher education. The report also includes suggested course content for professional courses developed by the participants of the Meeting.

Des professeurs d'école normale de 16 pays d'Asie se sont réunis, sous l'égide de l'Unesco, afin d'étudier la mise au point de programmes d'enseignement normal en fonction des objectifs de cet enseignement, les problèmes que pose la formation des maîtres, et les innovations et tendances nouvelles en ce domaine. Dans ce rapport, ils proposent de façon très détaillée le contenu à donner aux cours de caractère professionnel dispensés dans les écoles normales.

Regional Seminar on New developments in the Theory and Methods of Teaching and Learning English, Singapore, 9-14 June 1969. *Report /of the Seminar/ convened by the SEAMEO Regional English Language Centre with the co-operation of the Ministry of Education, Malaysia and the Ministry of Education, Singapore.* Singapore, SEAMEO Regional English Language Centre 1969. 112 p. (RELC/IPO/S4)

The report of a meeting which brought together some of the leading experts in the field of language teaching, both within and outside South-east Asia, to review and consider significant developments and new concepts in language teaching evolving within the last two decades. The report includes summaries of papers and reports on question/discussion periods.

Ce colloque a rassemblé certains des principaux spécialistes de l'enseignement des langues vivantes tant en Asie du Sud Est qu'à l'extérieur de cette région. Ils ont passé en revue et analysé les initiatives importantes et les notions nouvelles qui ont, dans cette discipline, marqué les deux décennies écoulées. Dans cet ouvrage sont résumés les débats ainsi que les communications présentées.

Seminar of Experts on University Teaching for Educational Planning, New Delhi, 5-12 August 1969. *Final report.* New Delhi, Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, 1969. 3 v.

The report of a seminar organized by the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration which was attended by participants from 10 Asian countries to consider level, sequences and duration of the course in Educational Planning in the universities, the organization of such courses in different faculties, the content of such courses, special methods and techniques employable in such courses, and the scope of mutual cooperation and international assistance needed. Part I is a report of the deliberations and the recommendations of the participants, Part II is a review of the existing position of the curricula of educational planning in some countries, and Part III is a selected annotated bibliography on educational planning.

L'Institut asien de planification et d'administration de l'éducation a organisé en 1969 un séminaire auquel ont participé des représentants venus de dix pays d'Asie. Les sujets suivants ont été examinés: niveau, structure et durée d'un cours de planification de l'éducation au niveau universitaire; organisation de cours de ce genre dans différentes facultés; contenu de ces cours; méthodes et techniques spéciales à y employer; ampleur de la coopération et de l'assistance internationale requises. Le premier volume rend compte des délibérations et des recommandations émises; le deuxième trace un panorama de l'enseignement consacré à la planification de l'éducation dans quelques pays; le troisième est une bibliographie choisie et annotée d'ouvrages sur la planification de l'éducation.

Thailand. University Development Commission. English Language Center. *Test results of the first intensive course /Bangkok, 1969/* 11 p. (English Language Center Technical Report no. 1)

A report of the measure of progress made by students attending an intensive course at the English Language Center. The report goes into the details of the administering of standardized tests and interpretation of the results. The report "should prove to be not only of specific interest to educational authorities in Thailand, but also of general interest to specialists in the teaching and testing of English as a foreign language."

Ce rapport est consacré à la mesure des progrès accomplis par les élèves d'un cours intensif donné à l' "English Language Center." Il expose de façon détaillée comment des tests normalisés ont été administrés, et leurs résultats interprétés. Ce rapport "devrait intéresser non seulement

les autorités de l'enseignement de Thailande, mais aussi, de façon plus générale, les spécialistes de l'enseignement de l'anglais en tant que langue étrangère.

Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok/Bureau regional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, Bangkok. *Directory of educational research institutions in the Asian region/Répertoire des institutions de recherches sur l'éducation en Asie.* 2e éd. Bangkok, 1970. iv, 402 p.

A directory covering 170 institutions with information on the following: Address, Designation of institution head, Year of foundation, Administrative status, Principal sources of funds, Size of staff, Aims and functions, Teaching programmes, Journals/periodicals of the institution, List of selected publications of the institution and selected research projects. Summaries of 129 studies are published, and a subject index to the research projects is provided.

Ce Répertoire, qui énumère 170 institutions, fournit pour chacune les précisions suivantes: nom et adresse de l'institution, titre officiel de son chef, année de fondation, statut administratif, principales sources de revenus, effectif du personnel, buts et fonctions, activités d'enseignement (le cas échéant), périodiques édités par l'institution et principales autres publications, principales recherches effectuées ou en cours. Le Répertoire contient le resumé de 129 études, ainsi qu'un index des sujets de recherches.

NEW PUBLICATIONS AND INFORMATION MATERIAL AVAILABLE

PUBLICATIONS ET DOCUMENTS D'INFORMATION NOUVEAUX

Titles given in this List are supplied free on request, subject to availability in stock, to ministries, institutions, and individuals.

Les documents et publications dont la liste suit sont à la disposition des ministères, institutions et particuliers, sous réserve de disponibilité au moment de la demande.

A. Publications

Bibliographical documents / Documents bibliographiques:

Unesco. Regional Office for Education in Asia. *Accession list.* Nos. 27-28, January-March, April-June 1970. Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 49 p.

_____. _____. *Documents on adult education and literacy.* 1970.

_____. _____. *Documents on agricultural education.* 1970.

_____. _____. *Documents on rural education.* 1970.

_____. _____. *Documents on teacher training.* 1970.

_____. _____. *Documents on the United Nations and international understanding.* 1970.

_____. _____. *Documents on women's education and women in public life.* 1970.

Directories / Répertoires:

Unesco. Regional Office for Education in Asia / Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie. *Directory of educational research institutions in the Asian region / Répertoire des institutions de recherches sur l'éducation en Asie.* 2d. ed. Bangkok, 1970. iv, 402 p.

_____. _____. *A directory of libraries in Bangkok.* Bangkok, 1970. 64 p.

Reports of Conferences and Meetings / Rapports des conférences, réunions et séminaires régionaux:

Adult Education and Literacy

Stage d'études régional pour spécialistes et fonctionnaires chargés de réaliser des textes de lecture et d'entretien pour ex-illettrés en Asie, Bangkok, 25 novembre - 13 décembre 1968. *Alphabétisation fonctionnelle orientée vers le travail: textes de lecture et d'entretien, rapport final.* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 95 p.

Visite d'étude et colloque /Ispahan et Dezful, 27 octobre - 9 novembre 1969 sur le/ Projet pilote d'alphabétisation fonctionnelle des adultes en Iran. *Rapport final /du colloque, organisé par le Bureau régional de l'Unesco avec le concours du Gouvernement de l'Iran/* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 66 p.

Science and Technology

Conference on the Application of Science and Technology to the Development of Asia, New Delhi, August 1968. *Science and technology in Asian development.* Paris, Unesco, 1970. 216 p.

Conférence sur l'application de la science et de la technique au développement de l'Asie, New Delhi, août 1968. *Science et technique au service du développement en Asie,* Paris, Unesco, 1970. 235 p.

B. Reproduction series / Série de réimpressions

Educational Planning Documents / Documents sur la planification de l'éducation

No. A. 1 Chesswas, John D. *The basic data needed for educational planning.* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 11 p.

No. A. 2 Blaug, Mark. *Conflicting approaches to educational planning.* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 7 p.

No. A. 3 The OECD Secretariat, Paris and the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics. *The use of individualised data and cohort analysis as analytic tools.* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 11 p.

No. A. 4 Schultz, Theodore W. *The economic value of education - education as investment in people: returns on the investment.* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 9 p.

No. A. 5 Balogh, T. and Streeten, P.P. *Do investment models apply to developing nations?* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 12 p.

C. Information material / documentation

IEY Documentation:

International Education Year Bulletin

No. 6, January 1970
No. 7, February 1970
No. 8, March 1970
No. 9, April 1970
No. 10, May 1970

1970 International Education Year - Message from Mr. René Maheu, Director-General of Unesco.

The race between education and catastrophe

Photo Display Sets and Wallcharts

IEY Poster
International cultural co-operation: friendship among peoples

Unesco and its programme

Protection of mankind's cultural heritage: sites and monuments
Water and man: a world view

D. Publications of Asian Regional Institutes / Publications des Instituts régionaux pour l'Asie

Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City / Institut Asien pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal, Quezon City.

Regional Meeting of Teacher Educators in Asia, Quezon City, 23 September - 3 October 1969. *Curriculum development in teacher education in Asia; final report of the ... meeting ... convened by Unesco with the co-operation of the Asian Institute for Teacher Educators.* Bangkok, Unesco, 1969. 85 p.

Réunion régionale de professeurs d'enseignement normal en Asie, Quezon City, 23 septembre - 3 octobre 1969. *Elaboration de plans d'études pour les écoles normales d'Asie, rapport final de la réunion ... convoquée par l'Unesco avec le concours de l'Institut asien pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal.* Bangkok, Unesco, 1970. 98 p.

Unesco/NIER Regional programme for educational research in Asia / Programme régional de recherches pédagogiques en Asie, patronné par l'Unesco et l'Institut national japonais de recherches pédagogiques.

Second Educational Research Workshop on Mathematics Teaching of First Level Education in Asia, Tokyo, 18 October - 7 November 1969. *Final report.* Tokyo, National Institute for Educational Research, 1970. 84 p.

E. Publications from Member States / Publications provenant des Etats membres

Japan Audio-Visual Information Center for International Service. *Audio-visual aids and technology in Japan 1970.* Tokyo, 1970. 58 p. (AVE in Japan, no. 8).

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Vol. II, No. 1, September 1967
Widening horizons of education in the Asian Region

Vol. II, No. 2, March 1968
Educational research in the Asian Region

Vol. III, No. 1, September 1968
Organization of educational planning in the Asian Region
General review and chapters on each of 19 Asian Countries. Organigrams and plans, and financing in some instances.

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Expansion – social and economic development – major subject areas – evaluation and examinations – tables and articles for Asian countries.

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