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ABSTRACT

The ways in which six developing countries in Asia are dealing with the problem of children dropping out of elementary school are discussed in these essays. One of the persistent problems that has deterred universalization of primary education is the early dropping out of children from schools. Case studies describing the magnitude and causes of dropout and actions being undertaken to prevent dropout are provided for the countries of China, India, Peninsular Malaysia, the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. There is much variation concerning the dropout problem both between and within Asian countries. In general it can be said, however, that countries with high dropout rates also have high repetition rates, inadequate school provision, low female enrollment, and disparities of dropout between urban and rural children. Because high repetition and high dropout rates usually occur in the early school grades, careful attention must be paid to grade 1 and preschool education. Community and nonformal educational resources must be used and incentives must be provided, especially to females. (RM)

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Towards universalization of
primary education in Asia and the Pacific

# The Drop-out Problem in Primary Education

## SOME CASE STUDIES

China
India
Peninsular Malaysia
Socialist Republic of Viet Nam
Sri Lanka
Thailand

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA
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## PREFACE

The countries in the region in which universal primary education is yet to be achieved have in recent years announced policies for achieving full enrolment of all children of the primary age group.

One of the persistent problems which has held back universalization of primary education is the early dropping-out of children from the schools. This represents enormous wastage of resources and contributes directly to the numbers of illiterates.

The present publication brings together the experiences of six countries of the region in dealing with the problem of dropping-out.

Grateful acknowledgement is made to the contributions of the authors of these studies and to Mrs. Ellen Sattar for the regional overview presented as an introduction.

## CONTENTS

# DROP-OUT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION: A REGIONAL OVERVIEW

*by Ellen Sattar**

## Introduction

This introductory section draws mainly on the country reports, of six countries supplemented by data from others. Japan, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Australia, New Zealand have not been included in this survey. The analysis concentrates, as much as possible, on those countries where drop-out is highest. Availability of data in the region is a problem, as has been noted in the recent Unesco world survey on drop-out.[1] As drop-out constitutes a major source of wastage at the primary level, lack of data, and therefore more pertinent analysis, is an obstacle in seeking efforts to solve the problem.

Wastage, (drop-out and repetition), is a problem in many of the school systems in the Region. It's intensity varies from country to country, but where it is most prevalent, it is usually associated also with non-enrolment, and a lower percentage of girls than boys in the school system. It is closely associated also with socio-economic conditions. Where poverty is greatest, wastage will be highest.

The ideal situation towards which all countries are striving is 100 per cent enrolment of both boys and girls, and 100 per cent retention at least up to the end of the primary school stage of education, usually a minimum of five years. This is the presupposition upon which is based the drive for universal primary education (UPE). Within that context, drop-out is perhaps the most critical from of wastage; that having enrolled a child in school, the school fails to retain the child.

Countries striving to attain UPE have to eliminate wastage and in particular drop-out. UPE is not possible in an educational system

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* Mrs Ellen Sattar is the author of "Universal Primary Education in Bangladesh".

1 Unesco, *Wastage in Primary and General Secondary Education: A Statistical Study of Trends and Patterns in Repetition and Drop-out.* Paris, Unesco. 1980.

where drop-out exists. By its presence, it proclaims that UPE has not been attained.

There were 390 million primary school-aged children in the region at the beginning of the 1980s. Of these, some 60 million (15.4 per cent) were out of school. The average annual percentage of repeaters was approximately 10 per cent of the total enrolment, 327 million. The total number of drop-outs per year from primary education is estimated to be 31.6 million.[2 3]

Drop-out represents a staggering loss. Although it is found at both primary and secondary levels, it is more crucial at the primary level. An early school drop-out soon lapses to illiteracy. Re-entry to the formal school system is closed off in most cases. A secondary school drop-out has at least acquired literacy and some other educational skills and knowledge. He or she may more easily resume schooling, or take up training outside the system. The primary school drop-out will remain locked into the closed world of the illiterate and thus have further restriction placed upon a background of poverty and ignorance.

Drop-out has been recognised as a particular problem by Unesco for the last two decades. Member States have been aware that it was an obstacle to the achievement of the targets set out by the Karachi Plan in 1960. Reports published by Unesco since then, have emphasised the continuing nature of the problem. They have delineated its causes, and have offered many suggestions to overcome it.[4] In addition, individual Member States initiated actions aimed at becoming aware of the problem of wastage. Several commissions, for example in India and in Malaysia, were set up to examine the dimensions of the wastage problem. The resultant reports set out clearly the reasons for wastage and make suggestions to curb both repetition and drop-out.

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2 These figures exclude Australia, Japan, New Zealand, and the USSR.

3 Source Unesco Office of Statistics Unesco Paris.

4 For example, to quote only three:

Unesco Bulletin, Vol.I No.2. *The Problem of Educational Wastage* Bangkok, 1967
M.A. Brimer and L. Pauli, *Wastage in Education: A World Problem.* Paris Geneva, IBE: Unesco, 1971.

Unesco. *Wastage in Primary and General Secondary Education: A statistical Study of Trends and Paterns in Repetition and Drop-out.* Paris, Unesco 1980.

It is instructive at this time, as so many countries set goals for UPE and for basic education for all, to look at the extent of the drop-out problem in the region in the 1980s, at what progress has been made over the last two decades to overcome it, and at what further avenues need exploring in order to lessen or eliminate drop-out and thereby improve the efficiency of the existing school systems.

## The nature of the problem

A drop-out can be defined as a child who enrols in school but fails to complete the relevant level of the educational cycle. At the primary level this means that the drop-out fails to reach the final grade, usually grade V or VI.

A repeater is a child who has to repeat the same grade, due to examination failure, low attendance record, or for any other reason.

A repeater may or may not become a drop-out, but there is a high probability that he or she will. The drop-out may or may not re-enter the school at a later date, but there is more probability that he or she will remain lost to the educational system. Both represent wastage. Whereas the repeater may stay on and eventually repeat the primary cycle, the drop-out is very frequently lost to the system and may also fail to retain even the vestiges of academic skills gained earlier. Evidence from several countries shows that early drop-out results in a lapse to illiteracy. For example, a recent study in the Philippines found that literacy was not retained if there was drop-out before grade III.[5]

## The extent of repetition

The extent of repetition in the region varies considerably. Several countries have rates from 0 to 2 per cent such as Malaysia, the Republic of Korea and the Philippines.[6] Countries with repetition rates of 7 to 10 per cent include Indonesia, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Viet Nam (See Table 1). Bangladesh and Bhutan have repetition rates of 21 per cent.[7]

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5 Mona Dumiao Valisno, *The Accreditation and Equivalency Programme of the Philippines: It's Status and Possibilities.* Manila, 1983. (mimeo.).

6 Unesco. *Statistical Yearbook, 1982* III 160-163

7 Unesco. *Wastage in Primary and General Secondary Education. op. cit.* p. 21.

**Table 1. Primary level repetition in selected countries**

| *Countries* | *Total Repetition Rate* |
|---|---|
| Afghanistan | 29 |
| Burma | 21 |
| India | 21 |
| Indonesia | 8 |
| Singapore | 7 |
| Sri Lanka | 10 |
| Thailand | 10 |
| Viet Nam | 7 |

*Source:* Unesco. *Statistical Yearbook 1982*, III 160-163

Data is not readily available, and comparative data over one or two decades is lacking, for many countries, thus making the estimation of trends difficult. For the Asia and Pacific Region as a whole[8], it has been estimated that there has been a steady decline in the level of repetition between 1965 and 1978.[9] Although the percentage of repeaters may have declined slightly, absolute numbers probably have increased, in particular in the more populous countries with high fertility levels.

Differences between repetition rates for boys and girls are shown in Table 2 below.

**Table 2. Repeaters by sex in selected countries (latest year available)**

| *Country* | *Boys* | *Girls* |
|---|---|---|
| Afghanistan | 31.8 | 19.8 |
| Bangladesh | 20.4 | 21.0 |
| Burma | 20.1 | 20.8 |
| India | 20.5 | 21.4 |
| Iran | 10.5 | 6.5 |
| Singapore | 15.3 | 9.6 |
| Thailand | 11.0 | 9.3 |

*Source:* Unesco. *Wastage in Primary and General Secondary Education op. cit.* p. 34

8 This includes Japan, the USSR, and the Pacific nations.

9 Unesco. *Wastage in Primary and General Secondary Education. op. cit.* p. 28

For most countries, the differences between extents of repetition by sex are slight, except for Afghanistan where more boys than girls repeat the grades. This is probably due to the fact that few girls enrol in school. This may have some effect on the rate for Iran too, but this pattern is different in Bangladesh, Burma and India where fewer girls also enrol, and repetion rates for girls and boys are almost similar. Singapore and Thailand show higher repetition rates for boys and this pattern is the same as that found in the West European countries.

Variation of repetition by grade is found also, and details for a few countries may be seen in Table 3.

**Table 3. Percentage of primary grade repeaters in selected countries**

| *Country* | *Year* | *Grades* | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *I* | *II* | *III* | *IV* | *V* | *VI* |
| Afghanistan | 1978 | 36 | 27 | 27 | 32 | 26 | 24 |
| Burma | 1970 | 25 | 17 | 21 | 18 | 21 | |
| India | 1970 | 26 | 20 | 18 | 17 | 16 | |
| Indonesia | 1980 | 17 | 9 | 7 | 5 | 4 | |
| Singapore | 1980 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 11 | 18 |
| Sri Lanka | 1980 | 6 | 12 | 14 | 12 | 10 | 8 |
| Thailand | 1977 | 18 | 11 | 11 | 4 | 9 | 4 |
| Viet Nam | 1978 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | |

*Source:* Unesco. *Statistical Yearbook 1982*, III 160-163

The majority of countries for which data is available show higher levels of repetition in grade I, gradually decreasing to grade 5 or 6. Two countries show rises in repetition in the higher grades, Sri Lanka and, to a marked degree, Singapore. The Singapore figures are due to policy changes such as those made about repetition. Automatic promotion was abolished in 1977.

The need to reduce wastage further, by reducing repetition, is recognised in most countries. As the Viet Nam country report states: "as far as repetition is concerned, the number of repeaters in primary and secondary schools through the land, represents a major obstacle to universalization".[10] This is because repeaters clog the grades

[10] See Viet Nam report, this volume

making classes far larger than they need be. The child who repeats the grade is over-age for that grade and this, added to his feelings of failure, will encourage drop-out. As many children enter school when they are older than 5 or 6 years, repeating a grade compounds the age differentials. The high levels of repeaters in the early grades makes individualized instruction difficult and children will receive little help with their problems. The materials and textbooks for grade I are written for children who are 5 or 6 years old and these will have little appeal to a 9 or 10 year old child.

Just as there are wide variations in the level of repeaters between countries in the region, there are wide variations also within countries. Under-developed regions will have higher rates of grade repetition as, for instance, in the mountainous regions of Viet Nam.[11] There will be differences too between rural and urban regions, with the former usually having the higher repetition rates as shown in Table 4 below. In India, rural repetition rates are high and the need to reduce wastage in the primary cycle by reducing repetition is widely recognized.[12]

**Table 4. Level of repetition in rural and urban schools in selected countries**

| *Country* | *Percentage of enrolment constituted by repeaters* | | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Rural* | *Urban* | |
| Afghanistan | 31.1 | 27.5 | 30.0 |
| Bangladesh | 20.9 | 15.6 | 20.6 |
| Indonesia | 16.0 | 15.0 | 15.8 |
| Iran | 11.5 | 10.5 | 10.9 |

*Source:* Unesco. *Wastage in Primary and General Secondary Education op. cit.* p.45.

Repetition is closly tied to drop-out. Many repeaters eventually drop-out of school. One study in Thailand found that two-thirds of drop-outs had been repeaters.[13] Data from Bangladesh shows drop-outs to be several years over-age for their grade[14] and this greater age

11 *ibid.*

12 See India report this volume

13 See Thailand report in this volume

14 Foundation for Research in Educational Planning and Development. *The Situation of Children in Bangladesh*, 1981 p. 86.

must be not only due to late entry but also to repetition. The Bangladesh study found, for example, that the average age of a grade I drop-out was almost 11 years. A grade II drop-out averaged 12 years and a grade III drop-out was on average 12½ years old. The estimated mean difference between current age of drop-outs and of enrolled children was over three years in grade I. This decreased slightly in the higher grades.

### Percentage distribution between grades

An indirect indicator of repetition is the percentage distribution in each grade. In an ideal (five year) primary school system, it would be around 20 per cent in each grade, if all age chorts were enrolling at the same time and moving smoothly through the grades. (For a six year system the percentage would be about 17 per cent). A system with 30 to 40 per cent enrolment in grade I and IX or 10 per cent enrolment in grade V is a system with a high drop out rate and a high repetition rate. Table 5 shows percentage distribution rates, over the last decade, in some countries of the region. There is considerable variation. In Bangladesh the situation has worsened since 1970, as grade I has a higher percentage of enrolment and grade V a lower percentage than at the beginning of the 1970s. In Burma the situation remains practically unchanged, while countries such as India, Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Thailand show improvement of distribution between grades. It may be surmised that repetition in these countries has been reduced, and that students are moving through the grades more smoothly than previously.

### The extent of drop-out

As with repeaters, data on drop-out is not readily available and a comparison with drop-out rates in the early 1960s is possible for only a few countries. Table 6 gives wastage rates for the 1959 primary school cohort and represents both drop-out and repetition. A comparision with Table 7, showing the cohort survival figures calculated by Unesco for the late 1970s, although not strictly comparable, illustrates the tremendous improvements in many countries over the past two decades. As the base years in Table 7 for calculating the cohort survival rates vary, comparisons between them would be inconclusive.

Many other factors have to be taken into account, such as the percentage of the age-group actually enrolled in school. For example,

**Sri Lanka enrols 90 per cent of its primary school age group, Bangladesh about 70 per cent. Several of the most populous countries do not enrol all their primary age children in schools, and these countries are the ones that have the highest drop-out rates.**

**Table 5. Percentage distribution rates at primary level**
***(Selected countries between 1970-1981)***

| Country | Year | Grades I | II | III | IV | V | VI |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Per cent | | | | | |
| Bangladesh | 1970 | 28 | 22 | 16 | 13 | 11 | |
| | 1981 | 41 | 21 | 16 | 12 | 9 | |
| Burma | 1970 | 37 | 22 | 17 | 14 | 10 | |
| | 1977 | 37 | 21 | 17 | 14 | 11 | |
| China | 1980 | 25 | 21 | 20 | 18 | 16 | |
| India | 1970 | 36 | 22 | 17 | 14 | 11 | |
| | 1978 | 31 | 23 | 19 | 15 | 12 | |
| Indonesia | 1975 | 27 | [illegible] | 17 | 14 | 11 | 9 |
| | 1980 | 23 | 2[illegible] | 18 | 14 | 12 | 10 |
| Nepal | 1975 | 57 | 24 | 19 | | | |
| | 1980 | 55 | 26 | 20 | | | |
| Pakistan | 1970 | 32 | 22 | 18 | 15 | 12 | |
| | 1979 | 32 | 22 | 17 | 16 | 13 | |
| Philippines | 1970 | 23 | 19 | 17 | 15 | 14 | 12 |
| | 1980 | 21 | 1[illegible] | 17 | 18 | 14 | 12 |
| Sri Lanka | 1970 | 25 | [illegible] | 21 | 18 | [illegible] | |
| | 1980 | 17 | 1[illegible] | 17 | 19 | 16 | 14 |
| Thailand | 1970 | 27 | 21 | 20 | 17 | 7 | 5* |
| | 1980 | 20 | 18 | 19 | 17 | 15 | 12 |
| Viet Nam | 1979 | 27 | 21 | 19 | 17 | 16 | |

* 4% in Grade VII

*Source:* Unesco. *Statistical Yearbook 1982.* III 137-141.

**Table 6. Wastage of 1959 primary school cohort**

| *Wastage Ratios (%)* | *Countries* |
|---|---|
| 15-25 | Korea, Malaysia |
| 26-35 | Singapore, Ceylon, Iran |
| 36-55 | Thailand, Philippines, Afghanistan |
| 56-80 | Viet Nam, India, Cambodia, Pakistan |
| over 80 | Burma, Laos |

*Source:* Unesco. *Bulletin 1967 op. cit.* p. 8

**Table 7. Primary cohort survival, late 1970s**

| *Country* | *Cohort Year* | *Number of Grades* | *% survival to last grade* | *% Drop-out* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Afghanistan | 1976 | 6 | 65 | 35 |
| Bangladesh | 1974 | 5 | 19 | 81 |
| Bhutan | 1977 | 6 | 11 | 89 |
| Burma | 1972 | 5 | .. | 68 |
| India | 1969 | 5 | 41 | 59 |
| Indonesia | 1977 | 6 | 78 | 22 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1977 | 6 | 96 | 4 |
| Malaysia | 1978 | 6 | 95 | 5 |
| Philippines | 1975 | 6 | 69 | 31 |
| Singapore | 1977 | 6 | 91 | 9 |
| Sri Lanka | 1977 | 5 | 95 | 5 |

*Source:* Unesco. *Wastage at Primary and General Secondary Level. op. cit.* Chart 4.1 adapted; drop-out calculated.

Rapid expansion of the primary school system may be partly responsible for this. The 1967 Unesco survey found that when countries expanded their education systems and enrolment increased up to 70 per cent of an age cohort, then there was a tendency for wastage ratios to increase. This was because "they are drawing on an increasing number of children from the vulnerable sections". This observation is probably correct today for many countries. When enrolment is low, most students will come from middle and upper class families who will be motivated to keep their children in school, and the drop-out rate will be low. Higher enrolment figures include

children from lower social strata, disadvantaged groups, and girls. These children are socially or economically disadvantaged and the motivation of their families will be lower than that of the more economically well off groups. This will lead to a higher drop-out rate and helps to account for the drop-out rate seen in many countries of the region, even when enrolment is around 70 per cent or more of the age group. Unless other factors are present to counteract the drop-out tendency, it will remain high.

Enrolment ratios between sexes, shown in Table 8, may be compared with the cohort survival figures of Table 7. Low ratios of girls in school usually mean high drop-out rates. However, here too, improvement over the last two decades is noticeable. For example, in Bangladesh the ratio improved from 72:28 for boys:girls in 1960 to 63:37 in 1980.[15] In Nepal the ratio of 84:16 in 1973 had improved to 72:28 by 1980.[16] In both these cases, sustained improvement in sex ratios at the primary level can be observed. At the same time, girls' drop-out rates are slightly higher than those for boys in much of the region. For example, in Tamil Nadu State in India, an average of 10 year drop-out rates at the primary level found that whereas boys averaged 38 per cent drop-out over the 10 year span, the figure for girls was 48 per cent.[17] Probably this pattern may be found in those countries with lower girls enrolment.

In Table 9 are presented drop-out figures from some countries, and their target year for achieving UPE. By 1982 Malaysia had eliminated drop-out at the primary level. Viet-Nam had achieved a remarkably low figure considering that in the late 1950s the wastage ratio had been estimated over 65 per cent (see Table 6 above). The rate for the Philippines was affected by the length of the primary school cycle, six years but several rural schools had classes only up to grade IV. If these schools were upgraded to six-year schools the drop-out would probably improve considerably. Thailand has a similar problem related to the length of the primary cycle. Parents used to the pre-1966, 4-year cycle, prefer to send their children to school for only four years though the primary cycle is now six years.

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15 E. Sattar. *Universal Primary Education in Bangladesh.* Dhaka. 1982. p. 32

16 *Education Day Souvenir. National Education Committee.* Kathmandu, 1983. p.19

17 K. Venkata Subramania. *Wastage in Primary Education.* Department of Education, University of York. 1977.p. 19-20.

**Table 8. Sex ratios at primary level in selected countries**

| *Country* | *Year* | *Boys: Girls Enrolment Ratios %* |
|---|---|---|
| *(1)* | *(2)* | *(3)* |
| Afghanistan | 1979 | 84:16 |
| Bangladesh | 1981 | 63:37 |
| Burma | 1977 | 52:48 |
| China | 1980 | 55:45 |
| India | 1976 | 62:38 |
| Indonesia | 1980 | 54:46 |
| Nepal | 1980 | 72:28 |
| Pakistan | 1979 | 73:27 |
| Sri Lanka | 1980 | 52:48 |
| Thailand | 1977 | 52:48 |
| Viet Nam | 1979 | 52:48 |

*Source:* Cols. 1 & 2 Unesco *Statistical Yearbook 1982, op. cit.* III 108-111. Col. 3 girls percentage *ibid;* boys calculated.

**Table 9. Primary level drop-out in selected counties**

| *Country* | *Grades* | *Year* | *Drop-out Rate per cent* | *Target Year for UPE Enrolment* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Bangladesh | I–V | 1981 | 70.0 | 90 per cent by 1987 |
| India | I–V | 1978 | 63.0 | 100 per cent by 1990 |
| Malaysia | I–V | 1982 | 0.0 | achieved |
| Nepal | I–IV | 1970 | 69.2 | 75 per cent by 1985 |
| Philippines | I–VI | 1980 | 34.0 | 100 per cent by 1998 |
| Thailand | IV–V | 1977 | 42.0 | 100 per cent by 1986 |
| Viet Nam | I–V | 1978 | 7.7 North )<br>9.8 South ) | 100 per cent by 1990 |

*Source:* Col.5 APEID/Unesco. *Universalizing Primary Education.* Bangkok, 1983. p.9

Bangladesh: E. Sattar, *op. cit.*, p. 41

India, Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam: See reports in this Volume.

Nepal: Mitgendra Lall Singh, *Educational Wastage in Nepal.* Kathmandu, Office of National Education Committee, 1973. p. 28 (mimeo).

Philippines: Mona Dumiao Vallano, *op. cit*

Data on actual grade-wise drop-out is difficult to find. Table 10 presents data for three countries. No clear cut pattern emerges, but grade III had the highest drop-out in India, grade V in Sri Lanka, grades I and IV in Viet Nam. Probably grades with the highest repetition rates would also have the highest drop-out rates in many countries, but data is lacking.

**Table 10. Drop-out by grade in three countries**

| *Country* | *Cohort Year* | *Grades* | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *I* | *II* | *III* | *IV* | *V* |
| India | 1971-2 | 12.7 | 15.9 | 17.0 | 14.7 | N.A |
| Sri Lanka | 1978 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 4.9 |
| Viet Nam | 1975 | 5.3 | 2.7 | 2.3 | 4.9 | 2.9 |

*Source:* See reports this volume

In Bangladesh, 60 per cent of drop-out occurs before grade 3.[18] This proportion may be similar in other countries of the region with similar socio-economic characteristics, and is, ironically, a contribution of the education system to the pool of illiterates in these countries.

Differences in drop-out rate between grades, sexes, and countries are further complicated by differences in rural and urban locations. Just as literacy is less in rural than urban areas, so drop-out is highest in rural locations. This may be illustrated from the Republic of Korea where, in 1967, rural drop-out rates were 2.7 per cent, while those in the urban areas were only 0.8[19]. Evidence from other countries also emphasises that[20] rural schools usually have higher drop-out rates.

## Some factors responsible for drop-out

Reasons for drop-out may be classified into those "internal" and those "external" to the educational system. Neither group

18 E. Sattar, *op. cit.*, p. 41

19 Ran-Soo Kim. *Universalisation of Primary Education in Korea.* APEID/UNESCO. Bangkok, 1983.

20 See reports in this volume.

should be treated in isolation. An educational system reflects the values and priorities of the society it serves. It can rarely be more advanced than the general cultural matrix which supports it. Interaction between internal and external factors is continual and this interrelationship should be borne in mind when the various factors are discussed in the following sections:

i) **Internal factors affecting drop-out.** The primary school itself, its facilities, and pedagogical methods, all affect the child's learning experience and exert an influence upon retention or drop-out. In some countries, the facilities available are inadequate for the number of students who attend the schools. There are not enough schools, and within existing schools there are not enough benches, desks, or chalkboards to mention only the most basic equipment. This is particularly true of many schools in the poorer nations of the region.

In some countries, there appear to be enough schools, for example in India over 90 per cent of her habitations have either their own primary school or primary section, or have one located within one kilometre.[21] The problem is that around one third are only one teacher schools, and few have actually one teacher for each primary grade, as Table 11 illustrates.

**Table 11. Teachers per school in India in 1987**

| *Schools* | *Percentage** |
|---|---|
| One-teacher | 35 |
| Two-teacher | 27 |
| Three-teacher | 15 |
| Four-teacher | 8 |
| Five-teacher | 5 |
| Six or more | 9 |

* does not total 100 due to rounding

*Source:* India report this volume

As some states had only four primary grades, the actual provision of one teacher per grade is slightly better than it appears. One teacher schools may be very good, particularly in situations where

21 See India report in this volume.

there are few children and a wide variety of learning materials are available, and the teachers have been adequately trained for the purpose. The school situation then resembles an ungraded classroom, and the teacher becomes a resource person to all his or her pupils. Unfortunately, the best conditions for one teacher schools are rarely available and the need to change them has been recognized in India and in other countries also. The upgrading of many of the single teacher schools to accommodate all the primary school students seems a necessary condition in helping to prevent drop-out. If there is not even seating room for the children there is little incentive for the child to attend. Provision of sufficient basic facilities would be a major factor in preventing drop-out.

Provision of basic physical facilities is not enough. In addition, a sufficient number of trained teachers must also be provided. Member countries acknowledge that number and quality of the teaching force has an effect upon retention or drop-out of students. Strenuous efforts have been made to overcome shortages, to provide in-service training, and to improve pre-service training. All the country reports in this volume stress the need for quality trained teachers to improve educational standards and to retain students in the schools. In Viet-Nam, for example, teachers are required to take in-service training in an effort to improve teacher quality. Table 12 shows most of the primary level teachers were untrained in 1979 to 1980, thus the emphasis on in-service training is very practical.

**Table 12. Number of Teachers and Percentage Trained in Viet Nam** *(1979 to 1980)*

| *Level* | *Number* | *Percentage Trained* |
|---|---|---|
| Primary | 217,473 | 13.7 |
| Secondary | 125,672 | 32.0 |
| Senior High | 30,492 | 73.0 |

*Source:* Viet Nam report in this volume

Apart from inadequate facilities and poorly trained teachers, organizational practices within the school also have an impact on drop-out or retention. Many countries do not automatically promote a child. In these countries, annual examinations are a well established feature and the child who fails the examination is not promoted, but

has to repeat the grade. This practice of repetition is dubious both pedagogically and psychologically. Studies from many countries show that "failure" is powerful inhibitor of a child's educational attainment. In one study from Thailand, two-thirds of drop-outs had been repeaters[22]. Similar findings may be quoted from other countries. Although the practice of automatic progression through the grades is not free from problems, it poses far less than those which result from repetition and it appears to be a major factor in the elimination of drop-out. It is significant that the educational systems of Malaysia and the Republic of Korea have automatic promotion and virtually no drop-out at the primary level of education.

The above three measures: provision of sufficient schools and learning/teaching materials and equipment, of enough teachers who are adequately trained, and abolition of repetition, are of major importance in increasing the holding power of the school and in preventing drop-out. Other measures used by many countries include primary education free of fees payment, provision of free textbooks and uniforms, and use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction. In addition, it is recognised that pre-schooling for the socially deprived child may be a necessity in the drive to prevent drop-out. The school situation and environment may be so alien to the young child that the child does not wish to stay in it. Entering school brings conformity to external rules and conditions of behaviour which may be so wholly new that the child is unable to adjust. A pre-school class or kindergarten would help to prepare the child for the formal school experience in grade I and help in the adjustment to the discipline and needs of a school routine. It would also provide a "headstart" for the disadvantaged groups by improving in particular, the child's language and other cognitive skills before entering the first grade.

Exactly how far these measures affect retention or drop-out is unclear, as several countries which do provide some or all of these measures still experience high drop-out. There is a range of factors external to the educational system which also work on the child and these external factors must be considered now.

ii) **External factors affecting drop-out.** The external factors are those within the child's socio-cultural milieu. Of these, the economic

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22 See Thailand report in this volume

and social condition of the family is the single most crucial variable affecting drop-out. All the country reports in this volume bear out this fact, that drop-out is greatest, of children from poor and deprived sections of society[23]. Although many apparent external causes may be cited, such as parental illiteracy, malnutrition, parents' land holding, rural or urban residence and so on, all spring from the one main cause, the parental socio-economic condition. Many such parents have little understanding of the need to enrol and ensure attendance of their children, and such children become the first drop-outs. Moreover, in a situation of extreme poverty where the family struggles at the margin of survival, education has no immediate significance. The contribution of the child's labour to the family welfare is the only reality.

The family's ethnic or social status also influences drop-out. Minority groups of low status have higher drop-out rates, as for example the Scheduled groups in India, the Muslim minorities of Sri Lanka, and the ethnic minorities of Viet Nam[24]. Even in countries of the region where the medium of instruction in primary education is in the mother tongue, for linguistic minorities, the need to master a second language at a higher level may be a factor leading to drop-out.

The child's age and sex also affect drop-out. In societies where less attention is given to women and girls, fewer girls enrol in school and more girls than boys drop out of school as has been shown above. If UPE were for boys only, it would be a fairly easy achievement for countries of South Asia. In many of those countries, enrolment of girls lags behing that of boys. For instance, in Bangladesh, two million less girls are enrolled at the primary level than boys[25]. Lower percentages of girls' enrolment may be cited from Nepal, Pakistan, India, and Afghanistan.

Many children of the region enter school late. In grade I, children may be 7, 8, 9, or even 10 years of age. In any grade, about 20 per cent of the children will have ages higher or lower than the supposed

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23 Studies from Nepal, Philippines and Bangladesh also come to the same conclusion, that the main cause of drop-out is parental poverty.

24 See reports in the volume

25 E. Sattar, *op. cit.*, p.35

norm for the grade. This is not in itself particularly important, especially in an ungraded school where each child progresses at his or her own rate. It may be a factor in drop-out in many Asian schools because girls may be withdrawn from school at menarche and boys when they are strong enough to help in the male agricultural tasks. A 12 year old who drops out of grade III may not have acquired sufficient competencies to stay literate. Had he entered school at six years old he might have been able to complete the primary school cycle before he had to leave school. The importance of enrolling the child at the correct age in order to begin the primary school cycle, is little understood in most rural areas of Asia.

Another major factor affecting both enrolment and drop-out is geographical location. Mountainous areas experience higher drop-out rates, as do deltaic regions. Provision of primary school and of teachers in these regions can be very difficult and travelling to school poses a problem for many school attenders.

Health and general nutrition of the individual child may affect drop-out also. If a child is in poor health, school attendance may be affected, leading to repetition or eventually drop-out. Even if a child attends regularly, the child may not be able to give sufficient attention to the classroom situation because of physical or mental fatigue due to hunger or undernourishment. Children from poor homes do not receive the nourishment they require and malnutrition and stunting of development, leading to fatigue and poor concentration, probably help to determine eventual drop-out of many poor children.

All the above factors, internal and external, act upon the child, upon enrolment and upon eventual completion of the primary cycle or dropping out from it. Countries have evolved ways of dealing with the provision of primary education taking into account, as far as possible, all the variables of a given situation. The following reports upon some of the measures Member States have taken to reduce drop-out and upon several of the methods being tried out.

### Action to prevent drop-out

Most measures taken to prevent drop-out are indirect and part of a wider scheme to enhance attainment of UPE. Practically no data exists to indicate which measures work best to eliminate drop-out. All have been initiated with the intention of enhancing the holding

power of the school or of persuading parents to send and keep their child in school. Five categories of measures may be distinguished (i) organizational; (ii) pedagogical; (iii) incentives; (iv) community participation; and (v) non-formal approaches. These categories are not exclusive. They act together and interact upon the child, the school and society.

There is also the possibility of legal action. Compulsory attendance laws for the primary level of education are in force in several countries of the region. Implementation of the law is not a necessary pre-requisite for attaining UPE. Malaysia, for instance, has attained UPE, but has no compulsory law. India, which has compulsory attendance laws in 16 States, has not been able to enforce them[26]. The utility of such a compulsory law probably lies in the timing of its passage into law and the judiciousness of its enforcement, which can be assessed only by each individual country.

i) **Organizational measures.** Automatic progression between grades, or continuous progression across the primary cycle, is probably the single most important organizational action which may be taken to prevent drop-out. Repetition makes classes far larger than they need be, discourages children who fail to be promoted, exacerbates problems of late entrants, and ensures that most drop-outs quickly lapse to illiteracy. Those Asian countries which have attained UPE already have instituted automatic progression, as in the Republic of Korea, Malaysia and Japan. Pedagogical measures to help children with learning difficulties to enable them to be promoted with the rest of the class, are an essential concomitant to automatic progression.

In the Philippines, special placement tests have been worked out to enable school drop-outs to gain accreditation and return to the formal school system and this is a practical way to encourage drop-outs to complete their education[27]. Easy re-entry of drop-outs to the education system implies an open system at all levels. Placement tests for accreditation would be useful at the primary level in many countries.

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26 See Indian report in this volume.

27 Mona Dumiso Valisno, *op. cit.*,

Re-organization of the grades within the primary school may also discourage drop-out, as shown by the Indian experience with the ungraded school in several areas. Evaluations have "indicated encouraging signs in terms of reduction in drop-out rate, wastage and stagnation"[28]. In this system, the children work through learning materials at their own pace. The quicker students can receive enrichment activities and the students with particular learning problems may be given the individualized instruction they need. A variation of this re-organization is being tried out in Thailand with alternate year entrance, and thus two age-cohorts working together for two years in a combined 1 + 2, 3 + 4, and 5 + 6 grade[29]. This has the added advantage of lessening the number of teachers required in the school although the classes may become rather large.

ii) **Pedagogicial measures.** It has long been recognized that a highly qualified and trained teacher is the preferred teacher at all educational levels. All Member States in the region have been paying much attention to in-service training to upgrade qualifications, and to pre-service training to ensure a more effective teaching force. Sex of the teacher may be as important as training. Table 13 shows the female percentage of the teaching force in several countries. At the primary level, female teachers are preferred in most countries, both for their gentle approach to very young children and for the model they present to girls. Several countries with far fewer female than male teachers, do experience high drop-out, although no clear connection between the two has been established. Nor do trained teachers by themselves guarantee either enrolment or retention. Levels of trained teachers may be high, but drop-out may be high also. For instance, in Andhra Pradesh State of India, 97 per cent of the teachers are trained, but the State is classified as one of the educationally backward states[30]. Bangladesh has 70 per cent of its teaching force trained, but its drop-out rate is equally high[31]. The important factors are probably the educational level of the teacher, the quality of pedagogical training imparted, and the working conditions in which the teacher must teach.

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28 See Indian report in this volume.

29 See Thailand report in this volume in details.

30 See India report in this volume.

31 E. Sattar, *op. cit.*

A pedagogical measure of significance is the establishment of pre-primary schools, in particular to give deprived rural and urban children a headstart to the formal educational process. As a Malaysian report states, "much of the verbal and intellectual development of the child upon which success depends, occurs during the pre-school years. Poor and illiterate parents, and isolated rural environments, create an educational disadvantage prior to school entry[32]." Enrichment activities in these schools, particularly in the area of language arts such as listening and speaking, will aid the children when they make the transition to the formal primary grades. Such a school may be attached to the primary school itself, so that a five-year primary cycle becomes in fact six, by virtue of the pre-school class. It may be a separate institution, or it may be organized in a non-formal manner and consist of several small pre-schools clustered around the primary school. Whether government, private, formal or non-formal, these schools can provide a valuable experience for the children. Viet Nam and China have a wide network of these pre-primary schools,[33] and they are expanding, though mainly in urban centres, in all countries of the region.

Teachers themselves have long recognised the value of such pre-school classes. In many areas of South Asia where grade I enrolment is very high, there is a hidden pre-school class. Whenever possible, head masters of large primary schools have designated one teacher for the pre-school class, knowing full well that the younger children were generally unable to make the transition from home environment to grade I successfully. The first few months of school are probably crucial to the child's perceptions.

Those first months set the pattern. They establish either a desire to continue, or an aversion to the school. As the Indian report in this volume states, children come for the first time "and are faced with a new environment. If they are introduced to a school situation earlier, it will encourage them to come to the primary school. For this purpose, efforts should be made to open pre-primary schools, particularly in rural areas, and support such schools which are already in existence."[34]

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32 See Malaysian report in this volume.

33 See Viet Nam report in this volume.

34 See India report in this volume.

**Table 13. Percentage of female teachers at primary level in selected countries**

| *Country* | *Year* | *Percentage* |
|---|---|---|
| Afghanistan | 1979 | 19 |
| Bangladesh | 1981 | 8 |
| Burma | 1977 | 48 |
| China | 1980 | 37 |
| India | 1978 | 27 |
| Indonesia | 1978 | 37 |
| Republic of Korea | 1981 | 39 |
| Malaysia | 1981 | 46 |
| Nepal | 1980 | 10 |
| Pakistan | 1979 | 33 |
| Philippines | 1980 | 80 |
| Sri Lanka | 1978 | 60 |
| Thailand | 1977 | 46 |
| Viet Nam | 1979 | 64 |

*Source:* Unesco. *Statistical Yearbook 1982. op. cit.* p.III 108-111

Annual examinations have long been used as a means of promotion in Asian schools. Abolishing the annual examination at the primary level will remove much stress and strain from the system, both for the child and for the teacher. With a system of automatic promotion, the annual examination is superfluous. It is preferable to institute a system of continuous criterion-referenced evaluation, so that learning problems and difficulties are detected early and the child is helped to overcome these, rather than ignoring problems and failing the child at the examination. The primary level of education should require mastery of skills, not competitive attainment in an annual examination. Improvement of teaching methods and materials is a factor which also may have some bearing on drop-out. In the Philippines, use of individualized learning modules in such experimental projects as Project Impact, has had an appreciable success on enrolment and retention of children.

iii) **Incentives.** As a means to encourage enrolment of children at the primary level and to attain UPE, varying incentives have been used in almost all countries of the region over the past two decades. These have taken the form of free education, provision of textbooks,

provision of mid-day meals, clothes and scholarships.[35] Bangladesh abolished fees at the primary level in the early 1970s, and in the 1980s, has introduced free textbooks and some uniforms to poor girl students as incentives to enrolment. More wealthy countries, such as Malaysia, provide free medical and dental care.

There is little data available which show actual decline in drop-out as a direct consequence of the introduction of any of these measures. All, however, were introduced to benefit the poorest and most deprived sections of society, and it is assumed that they have had an impact upon the increased enrolment and retention rates over the past two decades. It is noteworthy that the Indian State of Kerala provides over 90 per cent of primary school children with textbooks, uniforms, and meals. The drop-out rate in Kerala is only 6 per cent while in all other Indian States it is in excess of 50 per cent.[36] On the other hand evidence from Tamil Nadu, a neighbouring State, showed that the midday meal alone may not be a sufficient incentive. One study found that 64 per cent of drop-outs had been receiving a midday meal.[37] While there may be other factors accounting for Kerala's success or for the lack of success in Tamil Nadu, the widespread provision of incentives is assumed to have been significant, but to what extent is unknown.

Free or subsidised transportation facilities may be necessary to enable children to attend school in sparsely populated areas, or in regions of difficult terrain. Where the primary level terminates at grade IV in rural schools, transportation for the students to more distant schools for grades V and VI may be necessary. Thailand has initiated a project to provide students with bicycles for just this purpose.[38]

iv) **Community participation.** Involving the community in primary level education may be a means of enhancing enrolment and preventing drop-out. When parents are active in the educational process, it is more likely that their children will stay in school. Community participation may range from the establishment of a parent-teacher

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35 See reports in this volume

36 See India report in this volume

37 See K. Venkata Subramania *op. cit.* p.58

38 See Thailand report in this volume.

association and school open days, to actually building a school. In China and in Viet Nam, many communities donated a building or provided land and labour to build schools.[39] In the Meher UPE project in Bangladesh[40], and in the Pamong project in Indonesia[41], any village structure may be utilized for a school. In the former project, also, the community built over one dozen schools.

In some cases, the community needs educating about the importance of education, especially of girls. This may be done by the mass media, by political parties, by district administration, folk media, and by the teachers themselves Involving the community in primary education may enable governments to share the costs with the community. This may be particularly important in highly populous countries where provision of basic facilities might be prohibitively expensive if the usual formal model is followed.

v) **Non-formal measures.** Many new models are being investigated at the primary level in the region, usually involving a non-formal component, either on a supplementary or a complementary basis. In the formal model, non-formal programmes using community resources are applied at one or two grades of the primary level and the children are than sent on to the formal school. The non-formal component supplements the formal school. This has been successfully done on a small scale in the models in Bangladesh and Indonesia cited above. In India, many programmes use such non-formal components especially to reach the deprived and disadvantaged groups. The DACEP and CAPE projects discussed in the India report are examples of this. In Pakistan mosque schools are used to supplement the formal system in areas where schools are scarce. This has been considered a viable model and during 1978-1983,[42] 8200 mosque schools were in existence, taking in grades I-III, and thus reducing overcrowding in the existing primary schools for grades IV and V.[43]

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39 See China and Viet Nam papers in this report.

40 E. Sattar, *op. cit.* Chapter 9

41 The Pamong Primary School System in APEID, *Universalizing Education: Linking Formal and Non-Formal Programmes*, Bangkok, UNESCO, 1979, p. 17-20.

42 Sixth Four Year Plan, 1983/84-1987/88, Planning Commission, Government of Pakistan, (Part IV).

43 Government of Pakistan, Finance Division. *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1982-83*, p. 181.

Other countries have used non-formal programmes to impart primary education. The Republic of Korea, China and Burma have used primary level evening schools. Such aspects of primary education usually held outside the formal system, use non-professionals as teachers, although teachers may be used also, as in the CAPE project, either for direct teaching, or as supervisors. The CAPE project has as one of its objectives "to develop a non-formal system of education as an alternative to formal schooling". In this project the aim is to give accreditation to the children so that they may either enter the formal school system or continue on another training track using their accreditation for entrance.

Complementary programmes may utilize school premises or school teachers, but do so in a manner which is quite separate to the formal system. They aim to give the child a primary school education but in a manner which suits his life circumstances. In Madhya Pradesh State in India, the primary school course has been condensed into two years, consisting of 18 graded units. The child can attend the course at the non-formal education centre and do his job at the same time[44].

The UCEP scheme in Bangladesh is similar, with a school "day" consisting of two hour shifts, six days a week. These models have simplified and condensed the primary school course and have provided a flexible structure into which the child can fit his time. They are suitable for the older drop-out of 9-11 years or for the older child who never enrolled. The older age level enables the child to pass rapidly through the primary learning sequence and quickly attain the necessary skills. The shortened school day enables him to give time to the process of earning his living at the same time.

These and other new ideas are bound to increase over the next decade, particularly in the highly populated countries in the region. Non-formal education at the primary level will become a viable and practical supplement to the formal system. Such a system may place stress in one of several ways. As a supplement to the formal system, the non-formal approach would enhance the efficiency of the formal system and thereby help to reduce drop-out. As a complementary system, the non-formal system, usually in a shortened learning cycle, would be concerned with minimum learning

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[44] See India reports in this volume

competencies rather than the complete primary curriculum. In this way the non-formal system would be helping to attain basic education for all.

**Conclusions.** The Asian region presents a scene of wide diversity between countries, and even within countries, with respect to repetition and drop-out during the primary education cycle. Repetition and drop-out are main indices of wastage. While drop-out prevails in a country, it cannot reach UPE. There is so much variation between countries and within countries, that general observations are extremely difficult to make. Added to this is the dearth of comprehensive data on drop-outs. What is available comes usually from samples or case studies and little up-to-date data is available. The country reports presented in this volume serve to point up the data gaps for the rest of the region.

In general, countries with high drop-out rates have high repetition rates, inadequate school provision, low female enrolment, and disparities of drop-out between urban and rural children. The issue of girls' enrolment and retention is particularly crucial for UPE. The low enrolment of girls depresses the total enrolment rate. Girls' drop-out rates, usually slightly higher for girls, especially in South and West Asia, further depletes the number of girls attending school, with adverse consequences for female literacy rates, and for the recruitment of female teachers.

High repetition and high drop-out rates are usually in the early grades of school. Patterns different from this are due to exceptional circumstances. It is clear that the war on drop-out will be lost or won in the lower grades, particularly grade I. This fact calls for careful attention to the grade I school environment, the physical setting, teachers, and learning/teaching materials. This underlines the need for extensive pre-school classes especially for the rural poor and the deprived and disadvantaged groups of children of all localities.

Utilising both community resources and non-formal educatio , consolidation of the present school system and improvement of its efficiency is possible, with consequent reduction in drop-out rates. There is need for continuous investigation in this area, to explore newer pathways to solve the problem. Utilization of community resources is hardly tapped except in very few countries in the region, but the potential is great.

There is no one single or simple answer to the problem of drop-out. There are many desirable measures which may be taken to enhance the holding power of the school, but their effectiveness and importance will vary according to numerous socio-cultural factors. Both the 1967[45] and the 1980[46] Unesco surveys found little correlation between wastage and selected socio-economic indicators. The rather more complex 1980 analysis concluded that while drop-out was more closely related to overall economic, educa tional and demographic factors, repetition seemed more related to factors within the educational system.[47]

When the primary cycle is over long or too short it can be changed. For instance Thailand shortened its primary cycle from seven to six years in 1979[48]. In India, some states count the first five years as the primary cycle and some count only the first four, leading not only to some overall statistical confusion about what constitutes the primary level, but probably also contributing to the drop-out rate at grade IV[49]. In the Philippines also, rural schools that end the primary level at grade IV probably account for part of the drop-out rate observed there[50]. Lengthening the primary cycle by one year may be helpful to upgrade the quality of literacy reten-tion and of primary education in general. Upgrading of incomplete schools must be done also. One or two-teacher schools are mostly inadequate for the attainment of UPE and elimination of drop-out.

In some cases, shortening the school day may be useful in preventing drop-out. In the large urban slums, a school day of only two to three hours is far more attractive to working children than one of five or six hours. In some pilot projects, a two-hour school day enables street children to gain an education, while at the same time not neglecting to earn their own livelihood[51].

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45 Unesco Bulletin Vol. 1. No.2. *op. cit.*

46 Unesco Wastage at *Primary and General Secondary Education, op. cit.*

47 *Ibid.* p. 134-135.

48 See Thailand report in this volume.

49 See Indian report in this volume.

50 Mona Dumiso Valisno. *op. cit.*, p. 43

51 For example, Underprivileged Children's Educational Project (UCEP) in Bangladesh. E. Sattar. *op. cit.*, p.105-107.

Shortening the school cycle from five to two years for older students may be a way of imparting primary education to them and preventing drop-out. For the late entrant to the primary school, a shortened primary cycle would be more attractive than being placed in the beginning grade with very much younger children.

From very limited data presented here, there appears to be a strong link between repetition and drop-out with repetition predisposing children towards eventual drop-out. As it would be easier to improve internal conditions inducive of wastage than external ones, it seems that one way to prevent drop-out would be to tackle first the problem of repetition. Measures taken to abolish repetition and to improve the holding power and attractiveness of the school might be an indirect way of helping to reduce drop-out also. For children of the poor and disadvantaged groups, the onus should surely be on the school to help them stay in the system and complete the primary cycle.

There are no clear cut answers. However, in the region as a whole, much progress has been made between 1960 and 1980 with respect to increased enrolment ratios, increased retention, decreased drop-out rates and decreased rates of repetition. During this time, several countries have increased enrolment to 95 per cent or more of the primary school age-group, and retention to the end of the primary cycle of 100 per cent. These countries include Malaysia, Singapore, and the Republic of Korea.

Another group of countries enrol 90 to 100 per cent of their students but experience drop-out during the primary level. These countries are the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, Thailand, Burma and Viet Nam.

The third group which comprises Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bhutan, and Bangladesh, enrol less than 90 per cent of their age-group and they experience high drop-out rates usually in excess of 50 per cent. As compared with 1960 however, these countries have also improved their position.

In the push for UPE, the elimination of drop-out is possibly the most vital factor. As H.M. Phillips stated, in his comprehensive world survey, "the greatest single quantitative contribution to be made would be to eliminate drop-out".[52] It the schools could retain all those who enrol, the boost to the literacy rate would be significant

[52] H.M. Phillips. *Basic Education : A World Challenge.* London, John Wiley, 1975. p. 142.

and the efficiency of the school system greatly enhanced. Unfortunate-le drop-out occurs, even in those countries with fairly high literacy rates, while the problem in those with literacy rates less than 40 per cent is severe.

In general, factors affecting drop-out, both those internal as well as external to the educational system are well known. The importance of these factors will vary between countries and between regions within the countries. The use of more incentives needs consideration, and continued encouragement should be given to disadvantaged groups especially to the very poor and to girls. Involvement of the community in the primary educational process has hardly begun, but several experimental models illustrate ways of community participation. In the same way, non-formal structures and approaches may be extended to supplement the existing formal primary school system.

Measures taken need not be costly. Structural reorganization is almost cost free and yet can be effective. Automatic promotion to abolish repetition is not an expensive measure, particularly if skilled community persons are used to help children overcome difficulties and keep up with their grade level. Tapping community resources may be the most cost-effective measure and also the most educationally rewarding, particularly in provision of basic educational infrastructure. The measures are not simple, but given the political and administrative will to eliminate drop-out in the drive for UPE, much can be accomplished to bring equality of opportunity to every child who enrols, as experiences of the countries reported here illustrate.

## SHAANXI PROVINCE, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

### Introduction

During the period from July to October 1983, the Shaanxi Pedagogical Institute made an inquiry into the question of drop-out in the primary schools in the rural areas of Huxian County, Shaanxi Province, with a view to studying the effect of the policy, orientation and measures adopted in primary education in the countryside.

The survey covered the population, natural resources, economic development and educational facilities of the Huxian County, and attempted to investigate the actual situation of the school-age children and the 313 primary schools of the whole county.

The findings show that, relying on the superior socialist system and under the leadership of the County Committee of the Communist Party of China, the vast number of educators and the broad masses of the people of Huxian County have achieved universal primary education in the county after hard work over a period of more than 30 years, and especially in the recent five years.

The enrolment in the primary schools has reached 70,922, which is 15.1 per cent of the total population. The average enrolment rate is over 98 per cent in the past five years, the stable enrolment rate being maintained at 97 per cent. The rate of drop-out has been reduced to 1.04 per cent and the rate of graduation has reached 88.8 per cent.

The universalization of primary education in Huxian County shows that although the development of education is naturally governed by economic growth, it is, at the same time, affected by political and other factors.

The survey covers the following aspects:

- A Brief View of Huxian County
- Educational Development in Huxian County, a Historical Review
- Sampling Analysis of Drop-out in Huxian Primary Schools

- Measures Taken to Reduce Drop-out in Huxian County
- Huxian County's Experience in Universal Primary Education
- Thoughts on the County's Education in Future

## A brief view of Huxian County

Huxian County is situated in the middle of Guanzhong Plain, about 40 kilometres from the provincial capital, the ancient city of Xi'an. It has a total area of 1,255 square kilometres, including a mountainous area of 704 square kilometres. The whole county consists of twenty-three communes and towns, including two mountain communes, with a total population of 469,550 in 94,944 households. The agricultural population is 418,850, in 86,990 households.

Being endowed with favourable natural conditions, fertile land, mild climate and rich resources, the county is often known as "Silver Huxian".

Huxian County is now one of the grain and cotton base areas of Shaanxi Province. The main cereal crops are wheat, rice and maize, while the industrial crops include cotton, rape, peanuts, cayenne pepper and garlic. According to the recent data there are such mineral resources as gold, copper, iron, quartz, marble, limestone, graphite, asbestos, talcum, dolomite and red feldspar.

Since the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, the economic development of the county has been gaining impetus. In 1982, the gross industrial and agricultural output value of the county topped 200 million *yuan*,[1] surpassing all previous records.

As the economic situation improved, it has provided increased material assurances for educational development. Now the county has 375 middle and primary schools, among which there are 13 senior middle schools and regular middle schools, 27 junior middle schools, four agricultural schools, 258 regular primary schools (including 42 primary schools with junior middle school classes attached), and 73 lower primary schools. There are also one teachers' training school and one kindergarten run by the county.

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[1] Approximately 1.98 Chinese Yuan (¥) = One United States dollar.

The total enrolment of the middle and primary schools is 106,278, among which there are 7,173 senior middle school students, 27,668 junior middle school students, 515 agricultural school students and 70,922 pupils. The number of teaching and administrative staff of middle and primary schools is 5,564, of which 2,606 are in middle schools and 2,929 in primary schools. The enrolment of students has increased by 51 per cent and the number of teaching and administrative staff by 280 per cent, as compared with the respective figures of 1965. Since the restoration of the college entrance examination in 1977, 4,954 new students have been sent to institutions of higher education and specialized secondary schools, from Huxian County.

**Educational development in Huxian County: A historical review**

In the Qing Dynasty, the literati pursued their studies in academies of classical learning or old style private schools, and scholars were selected for the officialdom through the imperial examination system. Towards the end of the Qing Dynasty, some forms of innovations in education were initiated, with the result that the imperial examination system was abolished and Westernized schools were set up. After the Revolution of 1911, education in such types of schools spread gradually.

In the last years of the Qing Dynasty, the academy of classical learning in Huxian County, i.e., Mingdao Academy, was closed, and a higher primary school was set up in its place. Later, it was named the First County Higher Primary School. This was the earliest new type school founded in Huxian County.

Under the sponsorship of the Chinese patriots, educational undertakings made much headway in Huxian County. By 1933, there were already ten higher primary schools and 235 lower primary schools in the county. Nevertheless, as the labouring people were living in poverty, none of them could afford to send their children to school. It was only those from the well-to-do families who could get an education. Until 1949, the enrolment rate of school-aged children was still below 30 per cent.

After the founding of the People's Republic of China, the Chinese Communist Party and the People's Government paid great attention to cultural emancipation of the labouring people and their children's right to receive an education. They not only organized numerous learn-to-read classes to wipe out illiteracy among the

young men and women, but also exerted all efforts to make primary education universal. By 1955, the enrolment rate of the primary schools in Huxian County had already risen to 70 per cent. In 1958, the number of pupils in the primary schools reached 45,333, an increase of 15,792 over that of 1956, and the enrolment rate increased to 97 per cent. During the period of the temporary difficulties for three years (1960-1962), the enrolment rate dropped. From the Period of Readjustment till 1965, the county set up 341 part-farming and part-study schools, in addition to the 94 regular primary schools and 233 lower primary schools. The number of pupils rose again to 59,354, and the enrolment rate returned to 97 per cent.

During the ten years of great disturbances, of the Cultural Revolution, the steadily developing national economy suffered serious setbacks and the newly flourishing educational undertakings were also affected. The state-paid teachers of the county were sent to the countryside to do manual labour. The part-farming and part-study schools were closed down, and the school-houses, furniture, books, teaching apparatus and other facilities were neglected. Some classes were given in mills or on stages. Earthen platforms and wooden boards often served as tables or benches. Some students brought their own stools and did the writing on their laps. School administration was chaotic. In 1972, the statistics showed that the enrolment rate of the school-age children of the whole county was only 88 per cent, while the drop-out rate was around 10 per cent.

In 1976, the Bureau of Education of Huxian County spent a year consolidating the 375 middle and primary schools in the county. The Bureau appointed headmasters and deans for the 261 regular primary schools and sent senior teachers to the 91 lower primary schools. Teachers from state-run schools were required to register anew, and their qualifications checked. Teachers in schools run by local people were subjected to a comprehensive examination concerning their cultural level, teaching experience and state of health. 480 unqualified teachers were dismissed. Files were established for teachers in schools run by local people, and the teachers were issued certificates of appointment or probation. This has laid a good foundation for universal primary education.

The Bureau also urged all the schools to check school property and accounts and established a rational system of administration. The teachers and students were called upon to mend school walls,

tidy up the school yards and repair the desks and benches. The teachers were encouraged to take initiatives in teaching, and the students, to study diligently. The state of disorder in the schools was completely changed.

After the National Conference on Educational Work held in 1978, the Party Committee and the People's Government of Huxian County studied the documents of the conference in earnest, reviewed the educational work, summed up their experience, drew lessons from the past, and applied these to the current situation. They speeded up the elimination of illiteracy andset about establishing universal primary education. After five years of assiduous effort, remarkable success has been achieved. Illiteracy has been wiped out among most of the young men and women, and primary education has been made nearly universal.

## Sampling analysis of drop-out

Raising the stable enrolment rate and reducing the drop-out rate is the key to universal primary education. The Bureau of Education of Huxian County has made it a rule to check the drop-out in primary schools, analyse the causes, and adopt appropriate measures at the beginning and the end of each school term. This has been carried out every year with perseverance. An extensive inquiry about drop-outs in the 313 primary schools of the whole county was made in July 1983.

**Table 1. Drop-out at the various grades in primary schools, Huxian County**
(School year 1982-1983)

| No. Grade | Item | Total No. of Pupils | No. of Drop-out | | | Drop-out Rate (per cent) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Total | Boys | Girls | |
| Grade | I | 13271 | 92 | 50 | 42 | 0.63 |
| Grade | II | 12783 | 66 | 27 | 39 | 0.52 |
| Grade | III | 14347 | 140 | 47 | 93 | 0.97 |
| Grade | IV | 16273 | 237 | 104 | 133 | 1.30 |
| Grade | V | 14248 | 207 | 91 | 116 | 1.45 |
| Total | | 70922 | 742 | 322 | 420 | 1.04 |

Table 1 shows that the number of female drop-outs is larger than that of males, and the number for the higher grades exceeds that for the lower grades. The reason is that people do not pay much attention to girls' schooling owing to the influence of the remnant feudalistic ideology. This has its historical and social roots. In Old China, the traditional concept was: "Ignorance is a virtue of women". As girls were to get married sooner or later, very few of them went to school. Although more than 30 years have elapsed since liberation, some people have not yet freed themselves from the feudal ideological yoke of regarding men as supeior to women.

The different situations in the mountain area and the plains district have also been examined.

Table 2 shows that the drop-out rate in the mountain area is higher than that in the plains district. According to statistics of recent years, the enrolment rate in the mountain area is about 5 per cent lower than that in the plains district. Statistics of drop-outs from the well-off suburb commune, the Shijing Commune, which is economically a little below the average, and the relatively poor Taping Commune in the Qinling Mountains, have also been analyzed.

The statistics in Table 3 show that the drop-out rate in the well developed area is relatively low compared to the others. The economic conditions of the three communes are shown in Table 4.

From the above figures the higher the pupils' grade is and the older the pupils grow, the higher the drop-out rate becomes. This is the consequence brought about by the traditional contempt for education. This way of thinking, comes from the influence of the self-sufficient small scale peasant economy. China has had a long period of feudal society of over 2,000 years, in which the self-sufficient small scale peasant economy occupied a dominant position. One of the characteristics of this economy is reflected in the saying: "Men are to plough and women to weave". People acquired the knowledge they needed in their daily life and production from the simple experience of their fore-fathers, without resorting to culture and education. This mode of production and way of living served to mould their views on knowledge and education. Such remnant influences can still be observed today. Short-sighted parents let their school children help in household and farm chores so as to add a little to the family earnings, without thinking of the future.

**Table 2. A comparison of drop-outs of pupils between the mountain area and the plains district, Huxian County**
*(School Year 1982-1983)*

| Grade | Mountain Area | | | | | Plains District | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total No. of Pupils | Drop-out | | | | Total No. of Pupils | Drop-out | | | |
| | | Subtotal | Boys | Girls | Rate (per cent) | | Subtotal | Boys | Girls | Rate (per cent) |
| Grade I | 418 | 34 | 20 | 14 | 8.1 | 12853 | 58 | 30 | 28 | 0.45 |
| Grade II | 270 | 19 | 9 | 10 | 7 | 12513 | 47 | 18 | 29 | 0.38 |
| Grade III | 269 | 12 | 4 | 8 | 4.4 | 14078 | 128 | 43 | 85 | 0.96 |
| Grade IV | 204 | 17 | 8 | 9 | 8 | 16069 | 220 | 96 | 124 | 1.3 |
| Grade V | 182 | 10 | 5 | 5 | 4.9 | 14066 | 197 | 86 | 111 | 1.4 |
| Total | 1343 | 92 | 46 | 46 | 6.8 | 69579 | 650 | 276 | 374 | 0.93 |

**Table 3. A comparison of drop-outs between the three communes, Huxian County**
*(School Year 1982-1983)*

| Grade | Suburb Commune | | | | | Shijing Commune | | | | | Taiping Commune | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total No. of Pupils | Drop-out | | | | Total No. of Pupils | Drop-out | | | | Total No. of Pupils | Drop-out | | | |
| | | Sub-total | Boys | Girls | Rate (%) | | Sub-total | Boys | Girls | Rate (%) | | Sub-total | Boys | Girls | Rate (%) |
| Grade I | 621 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0.16 | 551 | 9 | 5 | 4 | 1.63 | 144 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1.4 |
| Grade II | 656 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 565 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0.35 | 119 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 3.4 |
| Grade III | 705 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0.43 | 678 | 8 | 0 | 8 | 1.18 | 109 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2.8 |
| Grade IV | 876 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 0.46 | 719 | 17 | 7 | 10 | 2.36 | 97 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2.1 |
| Grade V | 724 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0.14 | 656 | 20 | 7 | 13 | 3.00 | 93 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 3582 | 9 | 4 | 5 | 0.25 | 3169 | 56 | 21 | 35 | 1.77 | 562 | 11 | 6 | 5 | 1.97 |

*Note:* There are 12 primary schools with 80 classes in Suburb Commune, 17 primary schools with 89 classes in Shijing Commune, and 9 primary schools with 32 classes in Taiping Commune.

**Table 4. A Comparison of economic conditions between the three communes, Huxian County (1982)**

| Commune | *Gross industrial agricultural output value* | | *Total income* | | *Grain yield* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Gross output value (ten thousand yuan)* | *Average output value per capita (yuan)* | *Total income (ten thousand yuan)* | *Average income per capita (yuan)* | *Total yield (ten thousand jin)* [1] | *Yield per mu* [2] *(jin)* |
| Suburb Commune | 949.49 | 415.26 | 1145.03 | 500.78 | 1724.78 | 609 |
| Shijing Commune | 629.18 | 292.36 | 653.42 | 60.6 | 1897.5 | 443.2 |
| Taiping Commune | 92.94 | 277.60 | 63.09 | 37.6 | 211.2 | 314.3 |

1 Two jin = kilogram

2 Fifteen mu = 1 hectare

In Zu-an Commune, there are 35 pupil drop-outs (accounting for 0.8 per cent of the total number of pupils of the commune), of whom 17 (49 per cent of the drop-outs) serve as family auxiliary labourers. The situation is more or less the same with Songcun Commune and Pangguang Commune.

Table 5 gives is an analysis of pupil drop-out in Zu-an Commune, Songcun Commune and Pangguang.

With regard to sex, the number of drop-out girls is larger than that of boys; as to locality difference, the drop-out rate in the mountain area is higher than in the plains; so far as the economic conditions are concerned, the rate in underdeveloped areas exceeds that in well-developed areas; and in respect of age and grade, the number in the higher grades is above that in the lower grades. Pupils leave school more often because of financial difficulties or lack of labour force in the family, than for other reasons.

Huxian County is one of the counties in Shaanxi Province and in the Northwest, whose educational undertakings has developed fairly rapidly, and hence the question of pupil drop-out is not very serious. But if positive preventive measures are not taken, new illiterates will certainly appear. In view of this, at the beginning of the fall term this year, the County Bureau of Education organized an inspection team to find out how all the schools undertook to get the school-agers enrolled in the new term.

**Measures taken to reduce the drop-out rate**

a) Developmental motivation. After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, the economic system in the countryside in Huxian County changed a great deal. The agricultural economy developed quickly with the practice of various systems of production. The economy thrived and the peasants grew rich. Presently, agriculture is in a period of transition from the traditional to the modern production practices. Peasants have come to realize that the past experience in production, handed down from older generations, and the conventional farming methods can hardly fit in with the needs of developing rural agriculture. The broad masses of the peasants earnestly demand better education, the training of qualified and talented persons, and "scientific farming" experiments.

**Table 5. Causes of pupil drop-out of the three communes, Huxian County**
*(School year 1982-1983)*

| Commune | No. of Drop-outs | Causes | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Serving as Auxiliary Labour | | Financial Difficulties | | Looking for Jobs or Learning Trade | | Lack of Intelligence | | Illness | | Other Causes | |
| | | No. | per cent | No. | per cent | No. | per cent | No. | per cent | No. | per cent | No. | per cent |
| Zu-an Commune | 35 | 17 | 48.5 | 8 | 23 | 4 | 11.5 | 4 | 11.5 | 2 | 5.5 | 0 | 0 |
| Songcun Commune | 31 | 13 | 41.9 | 1 | 3.2 | 9 | 29 | 3 | 9.7 | 2 | 6.4 | 3 | 9.7 |
| Pangguang Commune | 49 | 8 | 16.3 | 5 | 10 | 16 | 32.6 | 12 | 24.8 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 14.2 |
| Total | 115 | 38 | 33 | 14 | 12.2 | 29 | 25.2 | 19 | 16.5 | 5 | 4.3 | 10 | 8.7 |

*Note:* There are 23 primary schools with 4,304 pupils in Zu-an Commune, 21 primary schools with 4,370 pupils is Songcun Commune, and 13 primary schools with 4,014 pupils in Pangguang Commune.

Cadres at the county level said that reports on scientific farming and diversified economy organized in the county were most welcome. All the peasants who had some schooling were eager to consult this kind of report, as well as materials on science and technology in agriculture. Statistics show that 16 training sessions on science and technology were organized by the departments concerned in the county in 1982, totalling more than 23,600 (person – time). The above figures suggest that peasants have a better understanding of the importance of "intelligence investment". They were not satisfied with the conditions of the existent primary schools where "boys at earthen desks became 'dusty toys' after class hours".

b) Improving school facilities. There was a great deal of mass support for improving education, both by the collective and by individuals. In four years time, the problem has been solved. Contributions have been made by the State, with the collective making-up of remaining amount from the local school funds. Thus, classrooms, desks and other school facilities are now, by and large, sufficient. Necessary funds were guaranteed to provide for universal elementary education and help lower the rate of drop-outs.

During the four years from 1979 to 1982, the people of Huxian County invested over 6,380,000 yuan in increasing school facilities, out of which a sum of approximately 4,800,000 was from collective capital, including the conversion of labour power and building materials. It was about 75 per cent of the total investment, averaging 12 yuan per head on the basis of the local rural population. They built 3,401 bays of new classrooms, with a total floor space of 33.3 per cent of the figure prior to 1979. Most of the new classroom buildings are of brick and timber construction. The length, width and daylighting of these classrooms generally are in accordance with the teaching requirements. They also repaired and rebuilt 2,616 bays of old classrooms. The floor space of all the new classrooms and the repaired or rebuilt ones is 47 per cent of the total space. In the meantime, they bought and repaired 33,236 sets of desks and benches, or 60 per cent of the total number existent presently in the whole county. Now, there is no building considered as dangerous in 90 per cent of the county schools; every class has its own classroom; 98 per cent of the pupils have wooden desks and benches; teachers have "office and bedroom in one", and writing tables, chairs and beds to furnish their rooms; 85 per cent of schools there have their school signs, gates, walls, gardens and sports ground; 70 per cent of the

schools have small plots for agricultural production. This has improved the study conditions for the pupils remarkably. Whereas one-fifth of the pupils had to have their classes in stock rooms or on theatre stages and more than 50,000 pupils sat at earthen desks and uneven stools in class before these improvements were made.

Pupils are at school to learn how to read and write and to grow healthily, and that the school should be a children's paradise. Yet, in the past, there were only small playgrounds in most of the primary schools in Huxian County. The pupils did not have many outside activities except running or playing among themselves. In 1982, having generally solved the problem of providing adequate school buildings and furnishings, the Huxian Educational Bureau called on the masses of peasants, the school authorities and production brigades and teams to give financial and material support, and gather and make use of waste materials for helping the schools with sports apparatus. They also adopted methods of granting subsidies and rewards by the Government. As a result, more than 5,200 items of sports apparatus were turned out, which cost over 150,000 yuan. The part subsidied and awarded by the government was only 30,000 yuan. Now, 80 per cent of the primary schools have table tennis, badminton, swings, teeter-totters (see-saws), slides and sandy areas with jumping facilities.

Some even have steel stands for basket ball games and a 60 metre track. Students have a great variety of significant activities for their Physical Training classes and after class activities. They are no longer merely fooling around. The peasants said satisfactorily, "Now the school looks like a school. Children all love to go to school." Some nearby pre-school aged children often beg their grandparents earnestly to take them there to have fun, as if to quench their thirst.

What's more, in the first half of 1983, the county mobilized the masses of peasants to contribute money for the purchase of more than 5,500 pieces of teaching apparatus. This was approximately 50,000 yuan worth, equivalent to the three years' total appropriation by the Government.

To improve school conditions is an important factor among others in the reduction of the drop-out rate and in raising the rate of universal education.

c) **Removing bad influences.** On the other hand, in order to reduce the drop-out rate, it is also important to eliminate bad influences from the old society and bring about changes in people's views. The correct way of achieving the purpose is by reasoning, educating and giving systematic guidance. For example, at the meetings for cadres from production brigades, communes, and the county departments, and at general membership meetings, the leading cadres of the county government emphasized the important role and status of culture and education, and of women, in social life and production, and the characteristics of the economic transition of China. In so doing, people were taught to understand the significance of culture and education, and of sending girls to school, as they would boys. Practice shows that this kind of purposeful propaganda and education have produced a significant effect. Now, out of the 70,922 pupils, the total number presently at school, about 36,000 are boys and about 34,000 are girls.

d) **Using flexible measures.** The development in the economy and culture is different in different areas. Huxian County, though not very large, has mountain areas and flatlands, and some production teams and communes are wealthy, some comparatively poor. In order to reduce the drop-out rate, many flexible measures have been taken for different cases.

The rise of the drop-out rate of the whole county was mainly due to the increasing number of drop-outs in mountain areas. To solve this problem, Huxian County adopted the following measures:

- Providing several teaching sites for one school – the locations of the teaching sites were related to the specific characteristics of the mountainous region. For example, Laoyu Commune set up four regular primary schools and 17 lower primary schools for 781 pupils in the whole commune.
- Adopting a variety of forms in running schools: full-time programmes, part-time programmes, morning and evening classes; and pupils were given special permission to bring their younger brothers and sisters with them.
- Helping the pupils to overcome some particular difficulties on their way to school. Wangxianping Primary School of Baimiao People's Commune is situated on a mountain top, some thousand metres above sea level. The mountain paths

were narrow and slippery on snowy or rainy days. Pupils had to give up the journey completely until the following spring. One model teacher, convinced teachers to repair the paths. Furthermore, he rebuilt a radio as a two-way transmitter, so that, in poor weather the teacher could teach at school, while the students listened and talked to him from their home. The County Education Bureau examined the good experience of the school and then provided every primary school in the mountain areas with a two-way transmitter set.

- Providing the schools with teachers in mountain areas. The schools there badly needed teachers, so the County Bureau selected some senior middle school graduates from plain areas, assessed their proficiency, and then sent the qualified ones to teach in the mountain areas. The State paid them regular salaries and gave them special subsidies to cover the expenses of shoes and socks, heating and class activities.
- Making regular inspections of mountain area schools by the County Education Bureau. This enabled the Bureau members to solve problems right on the spot. The two heads of the County Education Bureau visited every mountain area school, big or small.

The County Education Bureau stipulated that the school authorities in any part of the county should find ways to help pupils from poor families to cover their tuition fees. Weibei Primary School and Xingx ng Village School carried out part work and part study programmes. They organized pupils in growing vegetables in the school yards and in gathering medicinal herbs. Thus the pupils did not have to pay for their books. The County Education Bureau granted subsidies to mountain areas which lacked funds for education. These subsidies were based on the financial situations in different teams and brigades, and were given in two ways: either incidental grants or regular subsidies. As a result, some pupils from the poorer families were able to complete their elementary schooling.

e) Quality of education. Reducing the drop-out rate and increasing the regular attendance rate are both closely related to the quality of the teaching staff. The quality of primary school education cannot be guaranteed without a well-qualified teaching staff. That is why Huxian County has also devoted much attention to the training of

teachers. Among 2,929 primary school teachers in the whole county, 2,109 (72 per cent) are not state-paid teachers but are from schools run by the local people. Some of these local teachers did not have much schooling themselves, and sometimes even misled pupils in their learning; some knew little about teaching techniques and the effects of their teaching remained poor; some could not maintain discipline among the pupils so the school spirit was not good; some were not qualified teachers at all or not fit for the teaching post. Since 1978, the County Education Bureau has consolidated the teaching staff three times, discharging more than 700 unqualified or incompetent staff members. For the purpose of raising the working efficiency of the teachers in service, the county ran a special school for teachers to undertake advanced studies. All communes in the county set up branch schools for teachers' full time, or short-term programmes of training for teachers. They organized teachers in taking correspondence courses, carrying out research activities, and learning by self-instruction. Through a variety of channels, they succeeded in raising the vocational competence of teachers to different levels. After reorganization and training, the political and cultural quality of the teachers was improved. According to an investigation, about 80 per cent of the teachers are well qualified and fit for their teaching jobs now. The number of teachers form schools run by the local people tends to remain stable. Many of them have become the backbone of the teaching staff.

To popularize elementary education, it is not enough that all the school-age children are at school; the quality of education should also be taken into serious consideration. The primary schools in Huxian County attach great importance to the all-round implementation of the Party's educational policy and try by every means possible to improve the quality of learning and teaching. They pay great attention to educating pupils in the light of the "Four Insists", patriotism, communist morality and ideals. Besides that, they earnestly put the "Pupils Regulations" into effect and actively carry out the "Five Stresses and Four Points of Beauty" and "Be-Good-at-Three (keep fit, study hard and work well) Movement" according to the students' characteristics. Now the school spirit, discipline, and the learning environment have changed a great deal. The pupils' style of study has changed completely. There were 6,733 "three-good" pupils in the whole county, about one-tenth of the total number. They made great efforts to teach all the pupils undisparagingly and raise their basic knowledge. Also they cultivated

their practical ability, and helped those students who were lagging behind in their studies by giving them individual coaching. Gradually, the learner achievements were much improved. At the same time, they insisted on having "Physical training (PT) classes, morning exercises and outside class activities" and carried out "The National Physical Training Standards". Together with the health departments, they took an active part in the prevention of diseases. They gave special care to the training of PT, music and arts teachers. And the students often held sports games, and painting, handwriting and singing contests. Through these activities, the educational quality was raised and the drop-out rate reduced.

To prevent drop-outs, it is necessary to strengthen management. They believe a stable school attendance can only be achieved through strengthened management and consistent work in that respect. This is not a task which should be done just once or twice, and could not be accomplished in one or two years. Since 1980, they have made it a rule that all the primary schools must register school-aged children at the beginning of the school year. Teachers went from house to house and village to village to get the school-age children to go to school. Every mid-year they had a general check-up on the work. Word was given that any drop-out pupils could return to class whenever they wanted to and no one should look down upon them. If pupils had any difficulties, the school authorities were ready to help; teachers were sent to help with make-up work for missed classes; permission was given to allow them to bring their younger brothers or sisters with them to school or to study part time. To raise the rate of graduates they stipulated that schools should ask the pupils under 15 years of age who had done five years' courses, but were not up to the requirements, to repeat unsuccessful courses at school. Any school with a high drop-out rate or repeater rate was not fit to be an advanced school.

### Huxian County's experience in universal primary education

Huxian County has achieved remarkable success in universalizing primary education. Their rich experience is highly enlightening. The following is a brief summary of a few of the aspects.

a) **The study and understanding of policies and procedures.** Early in 1978, everything was not in its normal way of development. The leaders in Huxian County held the view that they should not be condemned if they endeavoured to help children go to school. After

studying the relevant instructions of Comrade Mao Ze Dong and Comrade Zhou En-lai's directive, "Universal primary education is a basic policy of ours", they came to a better understanding of the problem. During that year, they made special efforts in the work, and the enrolment of school-aged children noticeably increased.

In Ganhe Commune, which is situated in the northwest of Huxian County in the Weihe River and the Ganhe River basin, the peasants had fairly good education. They used new technology in agricultural production and practiced scientific farming on a large scale quite early. In the Xisongcun Production Brigade of this commune, the average grain yield per *mu** reached 1,166 *jin** in 1982. Two hundred and thirty thousand jin of No. 211 wheat, an improved variety, were sent to the seeds company of the county. Sixth per cent of the families got an income of 1,000 yuan. On the contrary, in some other communes and production brigades very little progress in agricultural production was made due to lacking adequate education and due to using old methods of cultivation. Practice and reality taught the county leaders that it was impossible to bring about agricultural modernization in the countryside which is full of illiterate and semi-illiterate peasants; that if the peasants had no education, they could not master modern agricultural technology, and that if the broad masses of the labouring people remained uneducated, nothing could be mentioned of the achievement of material civilization and moral virtues.

After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, the Party Committee of Huxian County vigorously led the work of bringing order out of chaos and taking measures for thorough-going reform on the educational front. As a result, negative influences were eliminated and the enthusiasm of vast numbers of teachers and educators was aroused. The Twelfth National Congress of the Party showed great foresight by pointing out that education was one of the important strategic elements.

The Bureau of Education of Huxian County made a serious study of Comrade Deng Xiaoping's exposition on educational work and of the documents of the Twelfth National Congress. They further understood that in order to realize the glorious goal of making the annual gross industrial and agricultural output value four times as

* See Table 4 for an explanation of these terms.

much as that of the previous year by the end of this century, it was not enough just to rely on more investment, more equipment and more manpower. To strive for scientific and technological progress and better management was also necessary, and education was the foundation for training and bringing up qualified scientists and technicians and raising the level of science and technology and management. Universal primary education was the cornerstone of this foundation. They also realized that pupils today would shoulder the task of building the country ten or twenty years later, and whether or not they would be brought up as a new generation with ideals, morality, culture and discipline would be of vital importance to the future of the country and the people.

On the other hand, they also saw that after the implementation of the system of production responsibility in the countryside, changes occurred in the system of agricultural economic management, in the structure within agriculture, and in the ways of farming. There emerged a vigorous mass campaign among the peasants, for studying and using science. Since 1980, peasants' technical schools have been set up one after another, and have enjoyed great popularity. There are 437 families in Xisongcun Production Brigade of Ganhe Commune. They set up a central technical school for peasants with affiliated agricultural and fruit-cultivating schools. They also formed advisory groups to give instructions on cultivation, manuring, pests-prevention and farm machinery repairing. These appeared in the brigade one hundred "families with science and technology", amounting to 27 per cent of the total households. Liangzhuang Production Brigade ran a peasants' technical school which planned to take in 30 students. But when the school started, 60 people came to attend the classes.

Through practice and reality, the leaders of the Party Committee, and the administration of Huxian County, further realized the position and role of education in accomplishing modernization of agriculture. They went all out to tap the potentialities for investment in education. According to the statistics, the total expenditure of the county in the period 1979-1982 was 47,198,000 yuan, of which 13,414,000 yuan, i.e. 28 per cent of the total was funds for education. This figure has been rising yearly.

b) The key step is to enhance management. As the leaders of the county and the comrades of the educational and administrative

departments attached importance to education and gained a better understanding of the problem, they quickly adopted effective measures.

i) Twice they readjusted the distribution of the schools. The first time, they combined 85 scattered senior middle schools and nine-year course schools into 22 senior middle schools (or complete middle schools). The second time, they combined 22 senior middle schools and 86 eight-year course schools into 19 senior middle schools (or complete schools) and 27 junior middle schools. The number of primary schools with junior middle school classes attached was reduced to 41. In this way, more money could be spared and more teachers provided for primary school.

ii) They made every effort to enlist financial support to improve the conditions needed for running schools.

iii) They selected a number of persons with dedication and professional skills to be the heads of the schools. At present, all the headmasters and deans are selected and assigned to the primary schools by the Bureau of Education of the county. Every year, they are subject to a proficiency assessment to guard against incompetent school leadership.

iv) They return the power of recruitment, assignment and transference of teachers to the Bureau of Education, thus putting an end to teachers being asked freely to do other kinds of work. The assignment of graduates from normal schools was also put under the jurisdiction of the Bureau.

v) They improved the system of management by dividing the county into several educational inspection districts and appointing a cadre to be in charge of education in every commune, thus ensuring the fulfilment of all the work concerning education.

vi) They persistently carried on regular supervision and inspection of the educational work. The county head responsible for education, the Director of the Bureau of Education and the cadres of the communes in charge of education all fulfilled their tasks. In 1981 a work team headed by the leading comrades of the Standing Committee of the

County's People's Congress checked on the educational work in Dawang Commune. Immediately afterwards, they put forward to the departments concerned proposals for improving the conditions for running schools. The schools of the commune soon took on a new look. The County Bureau of Education also organized inspection teams to check on the work of the schools several times a year.

vii) Education was placed on the agenda of the Party Committee and of the People's Government of Huxian County. Discussions and studies of the problems were undertaken whenever it was necessary. Education was always an important item included in their summaries and work plans. Thanks to the above mentioned measures, this county has achieved marked progress in universal primary education. Practice has proved that, under the present conditions, unity of thinking, better understanding, strengthened Party's leadership and improved management are the key to an early realization of universal primary education and reduction of the drop-out rate.

c) Reliance on the masses and adherance to the policy of "Walking on Two Legs" are the main effective means. There is great enthusiasm among the masses for setting up and running schools. In Huxian County, the people consider it not a burden, but something for their own benefit, to bring up the young and to set up and run schools. They have already gained advantages from the development of education. In songcun Commune, 70 per cent of the drivers of big and small tractors are middle school graduates. A leading cadre from the factory said: "These youngsters have not gone to school for nothing. They are intelligent and clever with their hands. They can do whatever they are taught. We depend on them to run the factory."

**Table 6. Level of education of teenage young and middle-aged agricultural workers**

*UNIT: person*

| *Semi-illiterate* | *Lower Primary School* | *Higher Primary School* | *Junior Middle School* | *Senior Middle School* | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17,874 | 22,153 | 34,486 | 45,128 | 27,604 | 147,599 |
| 12.1% | 15% | 23.4% | 30.8% | 18.7 | 100% |

(in Huxian County)

**Table 7. Level of education of young and middle-aged people**

*UNIT : person*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Desirous of Learning | 90 | 37% |
| With Special Skills | 58 | 23.9% |
| Semi-illiterate | 3 | 1.2% |
| Lower Primary SChool | 13 | 5.3% |
| Higher Primary School | 67 | 27.5% |
| Junior Middle School | 113 | 46.5% |
| Senior Middle School | 48 | 19.8% |
| Female | 127 | 52.3% |
| Male | 116 | 47.7% |
| Total | 243 | 100% |

(in Houjiamiao Production Brigade, Wuzhu Commune, Huxian County)

**Table 8. Level of education of the peasant-families**

| *Level of Education* | *Number of Households* | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Sub-total* | *Well-to-do Families* | *Ordinary Families* |
| Semi-illiterate | 1 | | 1 |
| Lower Primary School | 2 | | 2 |
| Higher Primary School | 23 | 3 | 20 |
| Junior Middle School | 44 | 16 | 28 |
| Senior Middle School | 26 | 9 | 17 |
| Total | 96 | 28 | 68 |

(Related to income level in the first production team of Mafang Brigade of Ganhe Commune, the first production team of Zhandong Brigade, Yuxia Commune, and the second production team of Houjiamiao Brigade of Wuzhu Commune)

The above tables show that the young and middle-aged people in Huxian's countryside have quite good education. The level of education is in direct ratio to the level of income of the families. These educated people indeed play an important role on the forefront of production. There are 256 specialized technicians and 2,578 peasant-technicians, who are still engaged in production at the basic

level, working at the four levels of the agricultural science network in the county. Both figures are slightly higher than those of the present level of the whole country.

The reality has inspired the masses. In Huxian County, the masses' zeal for promoting education is mainly shown in the following aspects:

i) They act on their own initiative to run schools. When the poor conditions of the schools are observed, many brigades send representatives to the County Bureau of Education to ask for the approval of their own plans and suggestions for renovations. In most of the cases, old party secretaries and old brigade leaders take upon themselves to collect funds, organize manpower and arrange for construction work. They regard helping in running schools as something desirable to do in their remaining years, for the children and grandchildren of their villages.

ii) They are always ready to spend money on schools. The peasants know that their country is not very rich and it is their duty to take out their own money for the use of the school. Hence each team, each village, tries to do its best to help run the schools with or without subsidies from the State. Zhengzhuang Production Brigade, Niudong Commune took three years to complete the construction of a primary school, which cost more than 55,000 yuan. Every commune member contributed 34 yuan. Pang Zhongxiang, a commune member of Zhangliangzhai Brigade, Qindu Commune, donated 2,000 yuan to the building of more classrooms for the primary school. Many peasants have subscribed to newspapers, magazines, purchased alarm clocks and made desks and stools for their children in order that they can devote themselves to their studies and catch up with the good pupils.

iii) They are concerned about the quality of teaching and learning. They dare to criticize the principals and teachers who lack sense of responsibility in their work. Some even ask the county leaders to have such people removed.

iv) They care for the life of the teachers and students. Some teams send peasants to grow vegetables and raise pigs for the schools to increase the school income and improve the quality of meals at school. The peasants also help in the provision of electricity for the schools and water, food and firewood for the teachers.

The leaders of the Party and the administration of Huxian County have made the best use of the situation to encourage the production teams and brigades and the commune members to play a positive role in universal primary education to improve the conditions for running schools. According to the county's financial resources they would have needed at least 30 years to fulfil the task if they had only relied on the state appropriations for education. Thanks to the continuous boost in production in the county in recent years, the production teams and brigades are fairly well-off and can afford to help run the schools. Over the four years, the average contribution by the agricultural population is 12 yuan per capita, or only three yuan per capita a year, which is not at all a burden for the peasants. The ratio of contributions by the local people and appropriations by the county and the state for improving school conditions is 1:9:30.

Reality has taught that adherance to the policy of "walking on two legs" and taking all efforts to initiate educational undertakings is not just an expedient measure for the time being, but a long-term policy that must be followed. In the present period of national economic readjustment, every endeavour must be made to carry out this policy. Even with a well-developed national economy and more funds for education in the future, this policy will be continued and initiative of all elements of society will be aroused to set up and run schools. In this way the road to universal primary education will be widened. This is in agreement with the country's situation and the actuality of Huxian County.

v) The orientation is to carry out the educational policies in an all-round way to raise the quality of education.

Materialist dialectics maintain that the relation between quality and quantity is the unity of opposites. There is no quality without sufficient quantity. On the other hand, quantity without quality is but a false one. In universal primary education it is necessary, therefore, to place the promotion of the quality of education in an important position.

The leading comrades in Huxian County have attached great importance to quality of education. They have grasped the key work of the schools and implemented the educational policies of the Party in a comprehensive way. The schools are required to hold themselves responsible to the students, the parents and the whole society.

Quantitative evaluation is made of the enrolment rate and the stable attendance rate so that the school-aged children will not quit school soon after they are admitted. Qualitative evaluation is made of the drop-out rate, the pass rate, and the graduation rate. Pupils' behaviour after they enter junior middle school and their maturing at home and in society are also observed. The criteria to judge a school is not only the proportion of pupils entering middle schools but an all-round analysis. In 1983, 12,373 grade V pupils from Huxian County took part in the unified examination for entrance to middle schools conducted by Xianyang Prefecture. The statistics show that the average total mark for the three subjects, Chinese, mathematics and natural science, the pupils got 191.5, and the graduation rate was 88.8 per cent. With the improved foundation in the primary schools, the quality of education in the middle schools has been raised. According to statistics, the county has sent 4,954 students to technical schools, colleges and universities in the period 1977 to 1983, averaging 700 per year. In 1983 alone, 606 students were sent to universities from this county. The local people have come to see from their own experience that children of well-to-do families usually have a better cultural level. They have become more hopeful about the future with the improved quality of education and are more enthusiastic for setting up and running schools. Now the parents whose children have not gone to school feel ashamed and the children themselves tend to lower their heads in front of the public. Some peasant-families that received no education for generations think it a honour to send their children to university. Relatives and friends will come to congratulate them, and neighbours and villagers will give the children a warm send-off.

## A Tentative plan for education in Huxian County

After the Twelfth National Congress of the Communist Party of China, the Party Committee, the People's Government, and the educational and administrative departments of Huxian County earnestly studied the documents of the Congress and the speeches by Comrade Hu Yao-bang and Comrade Deng Xiao-ping, and reviewed the documents, "Some Provisions on Universal Primary Education", issued by the Central Committee. They have further realized the role universal primary education plays in gaining both spiritual virtues and material civilization. Meanwhile, they have seen that the broad masses of peasants are pressed by the increasing need

for education and technology. They are now determined to consolidate the achievement in universal primary education and further re-adjust the proportion and relationships within the educational undertakings. Firstly, they are to effectively run the two key primary schools and 19 commune-run central primary schools and turn them as quickly as possible into model schools in carrying out the educational policies of the Party in an all-round way, and into centres for reference books, materials, equipment and researches in primary education. They are to make more effort to run the school of advanced studies for teachers and raise the level and proficiency of the teachers. By the end of 1985, they are to get all the primary school teachers to the level of that above normal school graduates. They will firmly implement the policy of "walking on two legs" and further improve the conditions for running schools. They are to quickly repair the school-houses damaged by the heavy rains and make sure there will be no dangerous houses in the schools. They are to purchase more books, teaching apparatus and equipment for physical exercises. They are to raise the quality of education greatly and increase the graduation rate of primary schools considerably.

Today, more than 80 per cent of the children between 12 and 15 are at junior middle schools. Their plan is to make junior middle school education universal by 1990 and achieve the 1:1 ratio of students at agricultural schools and at ordinary middle schools. They are convinced that after assiduous efforts, all their aspirations can certainly come true.

# INDIA

*by K.N. Hiriyanniah ; K. Ramachandran.*

## Educational structure

India was declared a Republic in 1950, with the enactment of its own Constitution. At that time, an Article (45), was introduced in the Constitution, ensuring Free and Compulsory Education for all children up to the age of 14. Due to its geographical vastness and the varying local conditions from region to region, it was left to the states to administer education as a state subject, keeping in view the broad framework provided in the Constitution. While each state endeavoured to fulfil the constitutional directive, each differed in its approach.

Of the 22 states and nine union territories and centrally administered areas, elementary education of seven years at a stretch exists only in two states, whereas in the remaining areas, it is split into two stages, primary and middle. In some states, the primary stage is of four years duration and in some others, it is of five years. The middle stage is of three years duration in most of the stages, while it is of two years duration in one state and four years in another state. Even though the duration at the middle stage is three years in most of the states, in states where primary classes constitute just four years, the middle stage begins with grade V, whereas in states where primary stage is of five years duration, the middle stage commences from grade VI. This heterogeneity has culminated in considerable confusion in the assessment of drop-outs even at the elementary stage (Figure 1).

The secondary level is divided into two stages, secondary and higher secondary. In some states, the latter stage is also known as intermediate, pre-university course or junior college. The secondary stage is normally of two or three years duration, thereby providing a general education course of ten years duration. In one state, the higher secondary stage is of three years duration, and in some states, the two year secondary course, after an external examination, is followed by a year's higher secondary course before the student qualifies for entrance to the university. In all other states, the

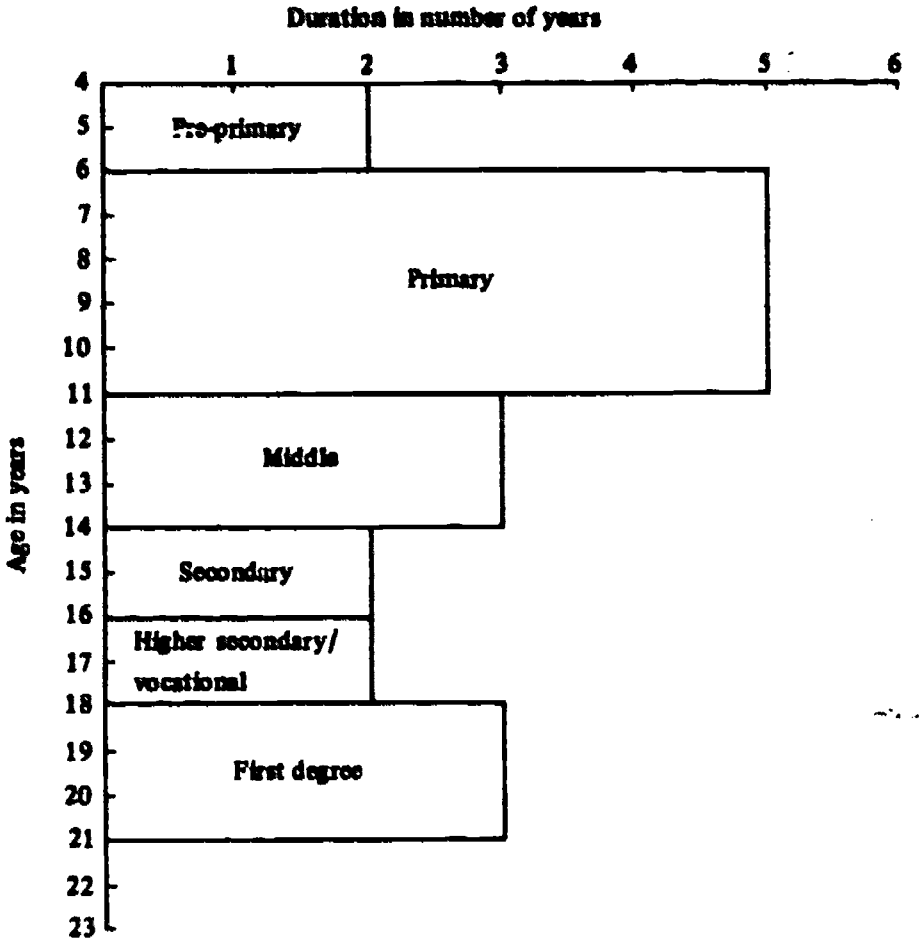



**Figure 1. Structure of education in India**

secondary course is followed by a two year higher secondary course in general education prior to the degree course. In lieu of this, there are vocational courses which are either of two year duration or more than four semesters. However, the vocational courses do not entitle the student to enter degree courses in professional education directly.

The duration of a degree course is normally of three years in most of the universities in the country, although there are universities where this is of two year duration. In some universities, a three year honours course is also provided in different subjects. For professional courses, this duration varies depending upon the particular requirements. Generally, the Masters degree in any discipline is of two year duration after the first degree.

Even though the pattern of general education differs in different states and union territories, at the national level, the general

pattern of education followed is eight year elementary, split into five year primary and three middle, two year secondary followed by two year higher secondary, three year degree course and two year post graduate course.

## Efforts towards equalisation of educational opportunities

Ever since the Constitution was enacted in 1950, efforts were made to achieve rapid progress in the area of education. The first step was to achieve universalisation of elementary education of children up to the age of 14, as envisaged under Article 45 of the Constitution. Towards this end, many schools, both at the primary and middle stages, were opened particularly in rural areas. As a result, by mid-1978 about 93 per cent of the rural population had a primary education facility either within the habitation of residence or within a distance of one kilometre.

During the same period, around 79 per cent of the rural population had an educational facility at the middle stage either within the habitation or within a distance of three kilometres.

In terms of the number of institutions and enrolment, it may be observed that, as against 209,671 primary and 13,596 middle schools during 1950-51 when the country was declared a Republic, there were 474,636 primary and 112,404 middle schools respectively during mid-1978. These did not include institutions with higher stages which had educational facilities for these lower stages also. With regard to enrolment there were 19,154,457 children in grades I-V and 3,119,958 in grades VI - VIII during 1950-51. In mid- 1978, these figures had mounted to 68,602,224 and 17,958,477 in the respective grades. This had been made possible not just because of universal provision of educational facilities alone, but also due to various incentive schemes or interventions like mid-day meals, free supply of textbooks, free uniforms to needy children, attendance scholarships to girls and scholarships to children belonging to weaker sections of the society.

Each scheme was introduced in each state at varying points of time, and consequently the impact in each case has been in varying degrees in various states. These interventions were introduced with the dual purpose of universal enrolment and universal retention.

The states also revised the curricula according to the changing situations. Suitable textbooks were prepared and made available to students at low cost. This was undertaken by the state departments of education which nationalised the school textbooks for all stages and set up their own machinery to see that there was timely production and distribution of textbooks. To provide competent teachers, a large number of teacher training institutions were opened. To enrich the knowledge of teachers and to orient them to the techniques of teaching, extension activities were introduced. The inspection and supervision machinery was strengthened. Reforms in examinations were introduced. Mass media and the latest designs in educational technology and visual aids have been used. Periodical review of the educational system in the country and research in the areas of education, particularly at the school stage, have been taking place regularly. In some states, it is observed that to overcome the endemic problem of drop-outs, the ungraded school system has been introduced, and yet in some other states the annual promotion examinations have been abolished up to grade VII to enable pupils to overcome repetition in the same class or drop-out at the primary or middle stage. However, the pupils have to maintain 75 per cent attendance in the school in the latter case.

The measures enumerated in the preceding paragraphs are for children in schools under the formal system of education. However, schemes were launched in October 1978, under a non-formal system, to provide education (i) to children who are in the age group 6 to 14 but have never attended school; and (ii) children who are in the age group 6 to 14 but who prematurely withdrew from the school before they completed the stage. In either case, the main purpose is to develop literacy and numeracy. For this, suitable material is produced and supplied to the children free of cost. The timings for instructional purposes are suitably adjusted to attract more children to the school. The teachers who teach under this system are oriented accordingly. In some states, the course in the non-formal system is so designed that the participants can, after completion of the course, appear in the examinations for pupils under the formal system, and continue their studies further. Although the non-formal system was in vogue earlier, it was not popular, and by mid-1978 there were only 6,631 non-formal education centres in rural areas although the total number of villages was 573,842. The number of pupils enrolled in these centres was 194,173.

**Drop-out.** In India, drop-out is construed as that component where children who enrol themselves in schools and colleges withdraw prematurely before they complete the stage. In a broad sense drop-out in India is the sum total of drop-outs and repeaters.

Since the country is committed to free and compulsory education, all its efforts at present are concentrated towards minimising drop-out at the elementary stage (from grades I-VIII) generally corresponding to the age group of 6 to 14. Hence, this report will be confined to drop-outs at the elementary stage.

Elementary education at the national level comprises of two stages, the primary I-V and the middle VI-VIII, and because of this demarcation, it is observed that a large proportion of schools have facilities for primary education and education at the middle stage, separately. But the system of education is not uniform throughout the country. Hence any statistics on education at the primary stage at the national level is a combination of a large number of primary schools and part of middle schools, and statistics on education at the middle stage is a combination of a large number of middle schools and part of secondary schools. Apart from this, in several schools complete classes constituting even that stage of education are not provided. During mid-1978, it is observed that 95,366 (20 per cent) of the 474,636 primary and 12,370 (11 per cent) of the 112,404 middle schools did not have the complete classes covering each respective stage. This phenomenon is found more in rural than in urban areas. During the same period, around 20 per cent of the primary schools in rural areas were incomplete, as against 19 per cent in urban areas. For the middle stage, the gap was even wider.

The scientific study of drop-outs is by the Cohort Method wherein a particular batch of students joining grade I during a particular year are followed during the successive years in the next higher classes, till the end of that stage. A major problem in such a study is the non-availability of earlier records and the time involved in the collection of appropriate data. Further, the data should also be amenable to analysis on the basis of variables which are directly responsible for this phenomenon such as rural/urban characteristics and sex and, in a country like India, information about children belonging to certain communities who have been largely responsible for the large drop-out. Such details are not readily available in the periodical statistics collected annually by official agencies. Collecting

**Table 1. Enrolment of boys and girls in grades I-VIII during various years (in millions)**

| Grade | | Year | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1968-1979 | 1969-1970 | 1970-1971 | 1971-1972 | 1972-1973 | 1973-1974 |
| I | B | 12.14 | 12.16 | 12.51 | 12.91 | 13.47 | 12.88 |
| | G | 7.10 | 7.78 | 7.93 | 8.20 | 8.71 | 8.37 |
| | T | 19.24 | 19.94 | 20.44 | 21.11 | 22.18 | 21.25 |
| II | B | 7.26 | 7.44 | 7.67 | 7.93 | 8.67 | 8.58 |
| | G | 4.43 | 4.56 | 4.73 | 4.83 | 5.37 | 5.23 |
| | T | 11.69 | 12.00 | 12.40 | 12.76 | 14.04 | 13.81 |
| III | B | 5.88 | 6.03 | 6.18 | 6.36 | 6.67 | 6.83 |
| | G | 3.42 | 3.52 | 3.64 | 3.79 | 3.98 | 3.97 |
| | T | 9.30 | 9.55 | 9.82 | 10.15 | 10.65 | 10.80 |
| IV | B | 4.85 | 4.99 | 5.11 | 5.23 | 5.47 | 5.37 |
| | G | 2.65 | 2.75 | 2.84 | 2.94 | 3.12 | 2.99 |
| | T | 7.50 | 7.74 | 7.95 | 8.17 | 8.59 | 8.36 |
| V | B | 4.03 | 4.15 | 4.27 | 4.36 | 4.54 | 4.38 |
| | G | 2.01 | 2.10 | 2.18 | 2.27 | 2.41 | 2.30 |
| | T | 6.04 | 6.25 | 6.45 | 6.63 | 6.95 | 6.68 |
| VI | B | 3.49 | 8.58 | 3.63 | 3.71 | 3.88 | 3.81 |
| | G | 1.43 | 1.48 | 1.56 | 1.62 | 1.73 | 1.75 |
| | T | 4.92 | 5.06 | 5.19 | 5.33 | 5.61 | 5.56 |
| VII | B | 2.97 | 3.07 | 3.09 | 3.19 | 3.28 | 3.16 |
| | G | 1.18 | 1.23 | 1.29 | 1.33 | 1.42 | 1.39 |
| | T | 4.15 | 4.30 | 4.38 | 4.52 | 4.70 | 4.55 |
| VIII | B | 2.52 | 2.63 | 2.70 | 2.75 | 2.80 | 2.67 |
| | G | 0.94 | 0.99 | 1.04 | 1.09 | 1.15 | 1.09 |
| | T | 3.46 | 3.62 | 3.74 | 3.84 | 3.95 | 3.76 |

*Note:* B – Boys G – Girls T – Total

*Source:* 1968-69, 1969-70, 1970-71, 1971-72, 1972-73, 1974-75, 1975-76, 1976-77, & 1977-78. Education in India, Ministry of Education & Social Welfare 1973-74 and 1978-79 Third and Fourth All India Educational Survey – NCERT

**Table 1.** *(continued)*

| Grade | | Year | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *1974-1975* | *1975-1976* | *1976-1977* | *1977-1978* | *1978-1979* |
| | B | 13.31 | 13.28 | 13.54 | 12.70 | 12.87 |
| I | G | 8.67 | 8.71 | 9.16 | 8.43 | 8.69 |
| | T | 21.98 | 21.99 | 22.70 | 21.13 | 21.56 |
| | B | 9.03 | 8.96 | 9.68 | 9.81 | 9.72 |
| II | G | 5.61 | 5.62 | 5.96 | 5.93 | 6.00 |
| | T | 14.64 | 14.58 | 15.64 | 15.74 | 15.72 |
| | B | 7.28 | 7.42 | 7.78 | 7.66 | 7.92 |
| III | G | 4.34 | 4.48 | 4.68 | 4.53 | 4.81 |
| | T | 11.62 | 11.90 | 12.46 | 12.19 | 12.73 |
| | B | 5.82 | 5.93 | 6.39 | 6.31 | 6.43 |
| IV | G | 3.34 | 3.41 | 3.65 | 3.62 | 3.77 |
| | T | 9.16 | 9.34 | 10.04 | 9.93 | 10.20 |
| | B | 4.88 | 5.07 | 5.30 | 5.42 | 5.41 |
| V | G | 2.64 | 2.78 | 2.89 | 2.95 | 2.99 |
| | T | 7.52 | 7.85 | 8.19 | 8.37 | 8.40 |
| | B | 4.20 | 4.24 | 4.46 | 4.61 | 4.72 |
| VI | G | 1.97 | 2.03 | 2.18 | 2.25 | 2.35 |
| | T | 6.17 | 6.27 | 6.54 | 6.86 | 7.07 |
| | B | 3.41 | 3.63 | 3.74 | 3.87 | 3.97 |
| VII | G | 1.56 | 1.69 | 1.76 | 1.85 | 1.95 |
| | T | 4.97 | 5.32 | 5.50 | 5.72 | 5.92 |
| | B | 2.97 | 3.12 | 3.17 | 3.27 | 3.40 |
| VIII | G | 1.25 | 1.32 | 1.39 | 1.45 | 1.58 |
| | T | 4.22 | 4.44 | 4.56 | 4.72 | 4.98 |

*Note:* B – Boys G – Girls T – Total

*Source:* 1968-69, 1969-70, 1970-71, 1971-72, 1974-75, 1975-76, 1976-77, & 1977-78. Education in India, Ministry of Education & Social Welfare 1973-74 and 1978-79 Third and Fourth All India Educational Survey – NCERT

**Table 2. Drop-out in various cohort years in different classes**
*(in thousands)*

| *Drop-out at the end of grade* | | *Cohort years* | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *1968-69* | *1969-70* | *1970-71* | *1971-72* | *1972-73* | *1973-74* |
| | B | 4698 | 4496 | 4588 | 4235 | 4894 | 3853 |
| I | G | 2533 | 3053 | 3093 | 2847 | 3483 | 2766 |
| | T | 7231 | 7549 | 7681 | 7082 | 8377 | 6619 |
| | B | 1260 | 1303 | 1257 | 1840 | 1292 | 1612 |
| II | G | 927 | 939 | 854 | 1395 | 887 | 1123 |
| | T | 2187 | 2242 | 2111 | 3235 | 2179 | 2735 |
| | B | 953 | 898 | 1300 | 1013 | 1359 | 1029 |
| III | G | 697 | 668 | 992 | 634 | 926 | 828 |
| | T | 1650 | 1565 | 2292 | 1647 | 2285 | 1857 |
| | B | 686 | 1091 | 489 | 746 | 629 | 967 |
| IV | G | 532 | 824 | 350 | 560 | 522 | 402 |
| | T | 1218 | 1915 | 839 | 1306 | 1151 | 1369 |
| | B | 732 | 174 | 637 | 609 | 1382 | 699 |
| IV | G | 653 | 321 | 610 | 602 | 643 | 600 |
| | T | 1385 | 495 | 1247 | 1211 | 2025 | 1299 |
| Total Drop- | B | 8329 | 7962 | 8271 | 8443 | 9556 | 8160 |
| outs in | G | 5342 | 5805 | 5899 | 6038 | 6461 | 5719 |
| grades | T | 13671 | 13767 | 14170 | 14481 | 16017 | 13879 |
| I-V | | | | | | | |
| | B | 398 | 569 | 504 | 595 | - | - |
| VI | G | 189 | 287 | 271 | 323 | - | - |
| | T | 587 | 856 | 775 | 918 | - | - |
| | B | 296 | 462 | 569 | 471 | - | - |
| VII | G | 244 | 302 | 370 | 277 | - | - |
| | T | 540 | 764 | 939 | 748 | - | - |
| Total Drop- | B | 9023 | 8993 | 9344 | 9509 | - | - |
| outs in | G | 5775 | 6394 | 6540 | 6638 | - | - |
| grades | T | 14798 | 15387 | 15884 | 16147 | - | - |
| I-VII | | | | | | | |

**Table 3. Percentage drop-outs amongst boys and girls under various cohort years at elementary stage**

| *Cohort Years* | *Drop-out at the end of grade I* | | | *Drop-out at the end of grade II* | | | *Drop-out at the end of grade III* | | | *Drop-out at the end of grade IV* | | | *Drop-out at the end of grade V* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | *G* | *T* | *B* | *G* | *T* | *B* | *G* | *T* | *B* | *G* | *T* | *B* | *G* | *T* |
| 1968-69 | 38.7 | 35.7 | 37.6 | 16.9 | 20.3 | 18.2 | 15.3 | 19.2 | 18.8 | 13.1 | 18.1 | 14.9 | 16.1 | 27.1 | 19.9 |
| 1969-70 | 37.0 | 39.2 | 37.9 | 17.0 | 19.9 | 18.1 | 14.1 | 17.6 | 15.4 | 20.0 | 26.4 | 22.3 | 4.0 | 14.0 | 7.4 |
| 1970-71 | 36.7 | 39.0 | 37.6 | 15.8 | 17.7 | 16.5 | 19.5 | 24.9 | 21.6 | 9.1 | 11.2 | 10.0 | 13.1 | 23.1 | 16.6 |
| 1971-72 | 32.8 | 34.7 | 33.5 | 21.2 | 26.0 | 23.0 | 14.8 | 16.0 | 15.3 | 14.5 | 13.8 | 14.3 | 12.0 | 21.7 | 15.4 |
| 1972-73 | 36.3 | 40.0 | 37.8 | 15.1 | 17.0 | 15.8 | 18.7 | 21.3 | 19.7 | 10.6 | 15.3 | 12.3 | 12.9 | 20.3 | 16.5 |
| 1973-74 | 33.8 | 33.0 | 33.5 | 17.7 | 20.0 | 18.7 | 13.9 | 18.5 | 15.8 | 15.1 | 19.2 | 16.6 | 12.9 | 20.3 | 15.5 |

*Note:* B – Boys
G – Girls
T – Total

**Table 3.** *(continued)*

| Cohort Years | Total drop-outs from grades I-V | | | Drop-out at the end of grade VI | | | Drop-out at the end of grade VII | | | Total Drop-outs from grades I-VII | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | G | T | B | G | T | B | G | T | B | G | T |
| 1968-69 | 68.6 | 75.3 | 71.1 | 10.4 | 11.4 | 10.5 | 8.7 | 15.6 | 10.8 | 77.7 | 81.4 | 76.9 |
| 1969-70 | 65.4 | 74.6 | 69.0 | 13.6 | 14.5 | 13.9 | 12.7 | 17.9 | 14.4 | 73.9 | 82.2 | 77.2 |
| 1970-71 | 66.0 | 74.4 | 69.3 | 11.9 | 13.4 | 12.4 | 15.2 | 21.2 | 17.1 | 74.7 | 82.5 | 77.7 |
| 1971-72 | 65.5 | 73.5 | 68.6 | 13.3 | 14.9 | 13.8 | 12.2 | 15.0 | 13.1 | 73.7 | 80.8 | 76.5 |
| 1972-73 | 65.0 | 74.2 | 68.6 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 1973-74 | 67.2 | 71.9 | 69.1 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |

*Note:* B – Boys
G – Girls
T – Total

such data even on a sample basis requires both money and time. The only variable available in the official statistics is the sex of the children.

It is observed that at the primary stage there is a likelihood of more drop-outs at the end of grade V since quite a few students from the states having grades I-IV may drop out since there may not be facilities for education at the middle stage in the neighbourhood. Likewise, at the middle stage since in some states this stage comprises grade V and VI or VII to VIII after which many students might drop-out for want of educational facilities for grade VIII in the neighbourhood.

Before discussing the sample study, it is worthwhile examining the official statistics over a period of eleven years starting 1968-69 (Table I).

The eleven year classwise data, which is the latest finalised figure for the country, provides a complete cohort up to grade VII for the base years 1968-69, 1969-70, 1970-71 and 1971-72, and for another two years, for 1972-73 and 1973-74, up to grade IV.

The figures in Table 2 indicate consistent increases in drop-outs as the enrolment increased from year to year, although in proportion, the impact is very little particularly at the end of grade VII. While the extent of drop-out for boys shows some improvement, there is a slight increase in drop-outs among girls for the cohort years 1969-70 and 1970-71 as base resulting in increases in drop-outs during these years.

The rate of drop-out would have been considerably reduced if there was more homogeneity in the structure of education. Drop-out at the end of grade IV would not have occurred to the same extent if the primary stage was up to grade V. Similarly, if the terminal class at the middle stage had been VIII instead of VII as in the case of quite a few states and only up to VI in one, drop-out would also have been less.

Around 50 per cent of the drop-outs at primary stage occur in grade I (Table 3). In almost all the years in all the classes, the proportion of drop-outs amongst girls is more than that of boys. From these figures it is not clear whether the proportion of pupils repeating the same class is more or those who withdraw prematurely is more. However, if children enter the school and spend some time in the school then the tendency to drop-out reduces.

At this stage it would be relevant to discuss briefly the enrolment among girls and among children belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes who contribute in a large measure towards drop-out.

**Enrolment of girls.** During mid-1978 there were an estimated 63.79 million girls in the age group 6-14 in the country of whom only 43 per cent (including some 4 per cent in higher or lower classes), were studying in different stages of school education.

If rural and urban figures are taken into consideration it is observed that only 39 per cent of the girls in the age group 6-14 in rural areas are studying in schools as against 56 per cent of the girls in the age group in urban areas. Even this low enrolment among girls is further off set by huge drop-out amongst them. The low enrolment among girls is mainly due to very poor enrolment among girls in nine of the 22 states which have been declared as educationally backward. Among these nine states, the enrolment of girls is less than 50 per cent in the age group and ranges from 19 to 48 per cent.

**Enrolment of scheduled caste children.** The estimated child population belonging to the scheduled caste communities in the age group 6-14 by mid-1978 was about 19.13 million. Out of this, 53 per cent of children in this community were enrolled as against 56 per cent for all the communities. The bulk of this population reside in rural areas. The low enrolment amongst girls in these communities is related to the most unsatisfactory enrolment amongst the nine educationally backward states where it ranges between 23 and 68 per cent. Of this enrolment, a larger proportion is in the age group 6 to 11.

**Enrolment of scheduled tribe children.** The estimated child population in the age group 6-14 corresponding to the same period was 9.45 million, of whom just 43 per cent were enrolled in schools. There is no scheduled tribe population in one of the nine educationally backward states. The enrolment ranged between 20 and 50 per cent and it is again the poor enrolment in these eight states which has reduced the overall enrolment picture. Almost all these tribes are in rural areas and the proportion of children enrolled in rural areas is more than those in urban areas. In these communities, proportionate enrolment in the lower age group 6-11 years is much more than in the age group 11-14.

**Sample study of wastage (repeaters and drop-outs) at the primary stage**

This study was undertaken in January 1977 and completed by April 1977, with a view to providing quick results to the educational planners and administrators to enable them to formulate policies and fix priorities. The study is confined only to the primary stage on a highly restricted sample. The study covered thirteen major states among the twenty-two states in the country. Further, within each state, rural areas were selected in different regions within the state. In the case of states with a population less than 20 million, each state was divided into three regions, whereas in the case of states with population more than 20 million the states were divided into five regions. In the case of urban areas only one urban area was chosen in each state, with a population of not less than 20,000 according to 1971 census. In urban areas, the sample size of schools was restricted to five per cent primary schools, subject to a minimum of two schools within the municipality/corporation limits, giving representation to girls schools, if any. In rural areas all the primary schools located within the revenue boundary were covered.

Analysis of data. The states were divided into two groups-those having grades I-IV as the primary stage, and others having grade I-V as the primary stage. Any incomplete primary schools which did not have all the primary classes conforming to the state pattern were rejected.

Among the seven states with grades I-V at the primary stage, in three states the population of the scheduled tribes, which contributes in a large measure to drop-out was more than five per cent. In four of six states with grades I-IV as the primary stage, the population of the scheduled tribes was more than five per cent. With regard to scheduled castes in all the seven states with primary stage constituting primary grades I-V, the proportion of population of this community was more than 13 per cent, while only two of the six states with primary grades I-IV had more than 13 per cent population in these communities.

Trends in drop-outs in states with primary grades I-IV. A very significant feature here was that the rate of repeaters was considerably more than those who left the schools prematurely (Table 4). A large proportion of repeaters are in grade I in comparison to higher

**Table 4. Repeaters and drop-outs (in percentage) at primary stage with grades I-IV**

| Area | | Grade I (1971-72) | | | | | Grade II (1972-73) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | G | T | SC | ST | B | G | T | SC | ST |
| RURAL | R | 42.5 | 41.3 | 42.2 | 29.6 | 36.1 | 17.3 | 18.2 | 17.7 | 15.2 | 25.4 |
| | D | 7.5 | 12.7 | 9.5 | 13.8 | 23.1 | 15.8 | 9.8 | 13.6 | 16.6 | 30.2 |
| URBAN | R | 26.5 | 28.3 | 27.3 | 42.3 | 32.4 | 18.8 | 21.6 | 20.0 | 18.7 | 36.4 |
| | D | 18.4 | 17.1 | 17.8 | 21.3 | 39.7 | 14.1 | 18.4 | 15.9 | 29.9 | 0.0 |
| RURAL & URBAN Combined | R | 35.4 | 35.1 | 35.3 | 37.2 | 34.0 | 18.0 | 20.0 | 18.8 | 17.0 | 30.5 |
| | D | 12.3 | 14.9 | 13.4 | 18.3 | 32.4 | 15.0 | 14.4 | 14.8 | 23.6 | 16.1 |

**Table 4** *(continued)*

| Area | | Grade III (1973-74) | | | | | Grade IV (1974-75) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | G | T | SC | ST | B | G | T | SC | ST |
| RURAL | R | 16.3 | 9.4 | 13.8 | 7.7 | 32.4 | 12.4 | 11.8 | 12.2 | 11.6 | 22.6 |
| | D | 9.2 | 13.6 | 10.8 | 27.3 | 11.8 | – | – | – | – | – |
| URBAN | R | 20.3 | 19.0 | 19.8 | 23.5 | 29.9 | 29.4 | 17.9 | 25.1 | 25.7 | 46.9 |
| | D | 22.7 | 16.4 | 20.3 | 29.1 | 25.4 | – | – | – | – | – |
| RURAL & URBAN Combined | R | 18.3 | 14.5 | 16.9 | 15.3 | 30.7 | 21.3 | 15.0 | 19.0 | 18.7 | 37.5 |
| | D | 16.1 | 15.1 | 15.7 | 20.8 | | – | – | – | – | – |

**Overall wastage up to grade III**

| | *Rural* | *Urban* | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| B | 49.7 | 30.5 | 41.2 |
| G | 52.0 | 44.1 | 48.1 |
| T | 50.6 | 36.3 | 44.0 |
| SC | 25.2 | 55.0 | 47.0 |
| ST | 71.3 | 64.0 | 67.2 |

*Note:*

B – Boys
G – Girls
T – Total
SC – Scheduled castes
ST – Scheduled tribes
D – Drop-outs
R – Repeaters

classes and it goes on reducing from class to class. While there are more repeaters in rural areas, the number of school leavers is higher in urban areas. Generally, the rate of repeaters and drop-outs is higher among scheduled tribe children whether in rural or urban areas. Consequently the proportion of overall drop-outs in all classes in this community is the highest. The rate of repeaters among girls is less than those among boys. In the case of overall wastage in education, repeaters and drop-outs combined, the wastage in rural areas is much more than in urban areas, it is more among girls than boys. Children belonging to weaker sections of the society contribute in a larger measure towards this wastage. The large proportion of repeaters confirms that most of the children who enter the schools are first generation learners who do not get any academic help in their homes.

Trends in drop-outs in states with primary grades I-V. Even amongst these states it is observed that repeaters contribute in a larger measure than drop-outs towards wastage, and rural areas contribute more in this regard (Table 5). Again children belonging to scheduled tribes are in greater proportion in these categories, whether in rural or urban areas. A plausible reason for the larger proportion of drop-outs a..ong these communities in urban areas is that most of them drop-out to work in households, which solves their immediate economic problems. In the case of overall proportion of wastage, it is observed that it is almost the same as in the previous case, wastage being more in rural areas than urban, more among girls than boys and more among the weaker sections of the society (Table 6).

**Table 5. Repeaters and drop-outs (in percentage) at primary stage with grades I-IV**

| Area | | | Grade I (1971-72) | | | | | Grade II (1972-73) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | B | G | T | SC | ST | B | G | T | SC | ST |
| RURAL | | R | 37.7 | 38.8 | 35.0 | 30.8 | 16.7 | 22.5 | 32.5 | 25.7 | 25.0 | 29.0 |
| | | D | 11.4 | 12.8 | 13.0 | 22.0 | 33.3 | 15.6 | 18.3 | 16.5 | 24.4 | 3.2 |
| URBAN | | R | 27.6 | 19.6 | 24.0 | 13.2 | 5.0 | 12.7 | 12.6 | 12.7 | 10.6 | 0.0 |
| | | D | 13.7 | 12.8 | 13.3 | 36.3 | 55.0 | 17.6 | 12.8 | 15.5 | 16.8 | 87.5 |
| RURAL & URBAN Combined | | R | 29.9 | 27.4 | 28.9 | 23.2 | 12.9 | 17.2 | 19.3 | 18.0 | 19.0 | 23.1 |
| | | D | 12.6 | 12.8 | 12.7 | 28.2 | 40.3 | 16.7 | 14.6 | 15.9 | 21.2 | 20.5 |

**Table 5 *(continued)***

| Area | | | Grade III (1973-74) | | | | | Grade IV (1974-75) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | B | G | T | SC | ST | B | G | T | SC | ST |
| RURAL | | R | 12.3 | 20.5 | 14.8 | 29.7 | 3.3 | 18.0 | 12.3 | 16.4 | 20.2 | 37.9 |
| | | D | 14.4 | 16.3 | 15.0 | 7.8 | 46.7 | 9.2 | 19.0 | 11.9 | 12.5 | 31.0 |
| URBAN | | R | 9.6 | 8.0 | 8.9 | 12.4 | 0.0 | 9.7 | 3.9 | 7.1 | 13.8 | 0.0 |
| | | D | 17.4 | 19.0 | 18.1 | 22.5 | 0.0 | 19.2 | 12.3 | 16.2 | 14.7 | 25.0 |
| RURAL & URBAN Combined | | R | 10.7 | 11.4 | 11.0 | 21.0 | 3.0 | 13.1 | 6.0 | 10.4 | 16.8 | 33.3 |
| | | D | 16.2 | 18.3 | 17.0 | 15.2 | 42.4 | 15.1 | 14.0 | 14.7 | 13.6 | 27.3 |

**Overall wastage up to grade IV**

| | *Rural* | *Urban* | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| B | 43.3 | 32.2 | 37.4 |
| B | 65.6 | 22.3 | 39.9 |
| T | 52.0 | 27.8 | 38.4 |
| SC | 61.6 | 34.2 | 49.8 |
| ST | 21.4 | 85.0 | 41.9 |

Note:

B – Boys
G – Girls
T – Total
SC – Scheduled castes
ST – Scheduled tribes
D – Drop-out
R – Repeaters

## Conclusions and suggestions

a) Universal provision has been made reasonably adequate, but still a large number of schools are incomplete. Hence all incomplete schools should be provided with all classes constituting that stage. Wherever necessary the existing school should be upgraded.

b) The case study has revealed that the drop-outs are more in grade 1. This is because most of the children coming to the primary schools are coming for the first time and faced with a new environment. They have to adjust to the new environment and develop a liking for the schools. If they are introduced to a school situation earlier, it will encourage them to come to and remain in the primary school. For this purpose, efforts should be made to open pre-primary schools, particularly in rural areas, and support such schools which are already in existence.

c) From the case study it is observed that among drop-outs there are a majority of repeaters, which reflects the poor achievement of children particularly in earlier classes. This calls for a review of classroom teaching in earlier classes and suitable remedial measures.

d) It is found that a large number of repeaters are from rural areas. This is due to the fact that most of them are first generation learners who do not have any academic guidance in their homes and this calls for remedial teaching for academically weak children.

**Table 6. Enrolment (total and girls) at the elementary stage of education (1950-1980) and Targets (1980-81)**

| Year & Plan | Enrolment in grades I to V/Age group 6-11 (In lakhs) | | Percentage of children in grades I-V to total population in age group 6-11 | | Enrolment in grades VI-VIII/Age group 11-14 (In lakhs) | | Percentage of children enrolled in grades VI-VIII to total population in age group 11-14 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Girls | Total | Girls | Total | Girls | Total | Girls |
| (i) | (ii) | (iii) | (iv) | (v) | (vi) | (vii) | (viii) | (ix) |
| 1950-51 (1st Plan) | 191.55 | 50.85 | 42.6 | 24.6 | 31.20 | 5.34 | 12.7 | 4.5 |
| 1955-56 (2nd Plan) | 251.67 | 76.39 | 52.9 | 32.4 | 42.93 | 8.67 | 16.5 | 6.6 |
| 1960-61 (3rd Plan) | 349.94 | 114.01 | 62.4 | 41.4 | 67.04 | 16.30 | 22.5 | 11.3 |
| 1968-69 (4th Plan) | 543.68 | 202.11 | 78.1 | 59.6 | 125.36 | 33.47 | 33.5 | 19.4 |
| 1973-74 (5th Plan) | 612.55 | 231.09 | 77.0 | 59.9 | 139.50 | 42.97 | 32.8 | 21.0 |
| 1979-80 (6th Plan) | 709.43 | 271.81 | 83.6 | 65.9 | 194.83 | 65.28 | 40.2 | 27.7 |
| 1984-85* (6th Plan Target) | 826.33 | 341.76 | 95.2 | 81.5 | 258.35 | 92.10 | 50.3 | 36.8 |

* The 1984-85 targets are on the basis of population projections related to 1971 census

e) Girls contribute in a large proportion to drop-outs. This is due to non-availability of separate schools for girls and also women teachers. Wherever feasible, separate schools for girls should be opened and a large number of women teachers should be appointed and posted in rural areas.

f) There are a large number of school leavers who are still in the age group 6-14, but would not like to return to the school since they have to support their families. Hence, non-formal education should be encouraged in a major way. This may include adjusting the timing of instruction, preparing suitable learning materials, and providing these free of cost to the children.

**Measures for preventing drop-outs at the elementary stage of education**

The provision of universal elementary education has always been a national goal of education in India The Provincial Governments which came into existence under the Government of India Act (1919) passed compulsory education legislation and increased the facilities for elementary education. The compulsory education legislation, however, did not bring about the desired results since the laws could not be enforced on poor people whose children had to remain away from schools mainly on account of poverty and poor economic status.

During the post-independence period, the Government of India, therefore, accorded a high priority to the programme of universalisation of elementary education, especially after the enactment of the Indian Constitution. Article 45 in the Directive Principles of the Constitution laid down that "the State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen". Efforts have been made to implement this directive through successive Five Year Plans formulated by the Government of India.

According to Article 45 of the Indian Constitution, the goal of universalisation of elementary education should have been attained by the year 1960. The target date has to be revised to 1990, mainly because of the magnitude of the problem in terms of ever increasing population and the constraints of financial and manpower resources.

Although it has not been possible to attain the goal of universalisation of elementary education, the progress achieved so far has indeed been impressive (Tables 6 and 7). The total enrolment in grades I-V has risen from 19,155,000 (42.6 per cent) in 1950-51 to 70,943,000 (83.6 per cent) in 1979-80. The enrolment in grades VI-VII had risen from 312,000 (5.54 per cent) in 1950-51, to 19,483,000 (65.28 per cent) in 1979-80. However, the enrolment of girls, both at the primary and middle stages, in the successive base years of Plan periods had been lower than that of boys.

**Table 7. Enrolment (total and girls) at the elementary stage of education (1950-1980) and targets (1980-1985)**

| *Year & Plan* | *Enrolment in grades I-VIII/Age group 6-14 (In lakhs)* | | *Percentage of children enrolled in grades I-VIII to total population in age group 6-14* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Total* | *Girls* | *Total* | *Girls* |
| *(i)* | *(ii)* | *(iii)* | *(iv)* | *(v)* |
| 1950-51 (1st Plan) | 222.75 | 59.15 | 32.4 | 17.4 |
| 1955-56 (2nd Plan) | 294.60 | 85.06 | 42.5 | 22.5 |
| 1960-61 (3rd Plan) | 416.98 | 130.31 | 48.7 | 30.9 |
| 1968-69 (4th Plan) | 669.04 | 237.58 | 82.5 | 45.5 |
| 1973-74 (5th Plan) | 752.05 | 274.06 | 61.6 | 46.4 |
| 1979-80 (6th Plan) | 904.26 | 337.09 | 67.2 | 52.0 |
| 1984-85* (6th Plan targets) | 1084.68 | 433.86 | 78.8 | 64.8 |

* The 1984-85 targets are on the basis of population projections related to 1971 census

## Measures to remove or lessen the drop-out problem

While the position regarding the increase in enrolment at the elementary stage during the periods of the successive Five Year Plans has been satisfactory, the problem of drop-out and wastage has been negating the progress achieved in relation to the enrolment of children in grades I-VIII. During 1976-77, the percentage of drop-outs at the primary stage was 63 while at the middle stage it was 77 (Table 8).

## Table 8. Percentage of drop-outs at primary stage for consecutive five years (1972-73 to 1976-77)

| Sl No. | State/Union Territory | Percentage of drop-outs at primary stage – Class V (On the basis of enrolment four years earlier) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1972-73 | 1973-74 | 1974-75 | 1975-76 | 1976-77 |
| (i) | (ii) | (iii) | (iv) | (v) | (vi) | (vii) |
| 1 | Andhra Pradesh | 69.3 | 66.8 | 65.9 | 65.2 | 65.6 |
| 2 | Assam | 73.8 | 77.6 | 72.4 | 71.4 | 38.7 |
| 3 | Bihar | 76.1 | 74.3 | 73.7 | 72.7 | 71.1 |
| 4 | Gujarat | 66.8 | 66.1 | 65.5 | 64.9 | 63.7 |
| 5 | Haryana | 39.4 | 40.9 | 42.9 | 41.3 | 41.6 |
| 6 | Himachal Pradesh | 39.7 | 37.7 | 34.8 | 33.9 | 30.8 |
| 7 | Jammu & Kashmir | 56.6 | 56.1 | 55.1 | 54.8 | 52.6 |
| 8 | Karnataka | 71.1 | 70.0 | 68.9 | 68.9 | 67.9 |
| 9 | Kerala | 33.9 | 31.1 | 29.8 | 20.6 | 6.2 |
| 10 | Madhya Pradesh | 65.2 | 64.1 | 62.9 | 68.2 | 75.7 |
| 11 | Maharashtra | 60.0 | 58.0 | 58.0 | 59.1 | 56.1 |
| 12 | Manipur | 82.3 | 80.6 | 81.9 | 81.5 | 81.5 |
| 13 | Meghalaya | - | - | 76.0 | 76.6 | 75.6 |
| 14 | Nagaland | 69.3 | 69.9 | 70.1 | 67.7 | 59.3 |
| 15 | Orissa | 72.5 | 70.7 | 70.7 | 70.2 | 71.6 |
| 16 | Punjab | 38.5 | 37.8 | 39.2 | 38.6 | 45.3 |
| 17 | Rajasthan | 63.9 | 62.1 | 63.7 | 56.5 | 60.9 |
| 18 | Sikkim | .. | | | .. | - |
| 19 | Tamil Nadu | 48.7 | 51.0 | 48.2 | 48.3 | 47.2 |
| 20 | Tripura | 65.7 | 64.3 | 63.8 | 66.9 | 73.2 |
| 21 | Uttar Pradesh | 71.5 | 71.7 | 70.1 | 70.2 | 71.0 |
| 22 | West Bengal | 69.5 | 70.4 | 68.9 | 68.0 | 69.7 |
| 23 | A & N Islands | 52.3 | 52.6 | 43.0 | 41.0 | 40.0 |
| 24 | Arunachal Pradesh | 77.7 | 72.5 | 69.2 | 81.6 | 79.9 |
| 25 | Chandigarh | 22.0 | 22.6 | 23.5 | 26.6 | 20.5 |
| 26 | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 86.5 | 86.4 | 84.2 | 81.4 | 85.1 |
| 27 | Delhi | 23.3 | 27.1 | 14.0 | 14.1 | 17.5 |
| 28 | Goa, Daman & Diu | 56.5 | 61.5 | 55.7 | 51.4 | 49.1 |
| 29 | Lakshadweep | 46.3 | 39.2 | 35.6 | 47.6 | 21.4 |
| 30 | Mizoram | .. | | | 62.2 | 61.9 |
| | For the country | 64.9 | 64.4 | 63.2 | 62.8 | 63.1 |

The drop-out rates at the end of the primary stage in six states and five union territories has been below 50 per cent, the lowest being 6 per cent in Kerala. In all other states and union territories, the drop-out rates at the end of the primary stage have been over 50 per cent, the highest among the states being 81 per cent in Manipur and the highest among the union territories being 85 per cent in Dadra and Nagar Haveli. At the end of the middle stage, the drop-out rates in all the states have been more than 50 per cent, the lowest being 50 per cent in Kerala and the highest being 86 per

**Table 9. Percentage of drop-outs at middle stages for consecutive five years (1972-73 to 1976-77)**

| Sl. No | State/Union Territory | Percentage of drop-outs at middle stage – class VIII (On the basis of enrolment seven years earlier | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1972-73 | 1973-74 | 1974-75 | 1975-76 | 1976-77 |
| (i) | (ii) | (iii) | (iv) | (v) | (vi) | (vii) |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 87.7 | 86.4 | 86.7 | 85.9 | 85.9 |
| 2. | Assam | 79.3 | 79.9 | 81.6 | 82.0 | 83.5 |
| 3 | Bihar | 86.0 | 85.8 | 85.3 | 84.8 | 86.5 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 78.5 | 79.4 | 78.3 | 76.7 | 75.6 |
| 5. | Haryana | 58.0 | 54.4 | 55.0 | 53.6 | 55.6 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | – | 61.0 | 62.2 | 60.6 | 59.5 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 60.8 | 62.1 | 65.2 | 66.0 | 66.4 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 83.8 | 83.6 | 81.2 | 80.4 | 80.0 |
| 9. | Kerala | 55.6 | 62.2 | 53.1 | 49.2 | 50.5 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 79.2 | 78.6 | 79.3 | 77.7 | 74.1 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 75.7 | 75.7 | 75.2 | 75.1 | 73.6 |
| 12. | Manipur | 83.1 | 87.1 | 86.4 | 85.8 | 85.7 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | – | – | – | – | – |
| 14. | Nagaland | 75.9 | 76.5 | 75.3 | 77.9 | 76.9 |
| 15. | Orissa | 87.5 | 87.5 | 86.4 | 85.2 | 84.1 |
| 16. | Punjab | 64.3 | 57.4 | 58.5 | 57.9 | 59.2 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 82.3 | 80.5 | 80.1 | 75.3 | 73.9 |
| 18. | Sikkim | – | – | – | – | – |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 74.7 | 74.5 | 76.8 | 74.2 | 71.4 |
| 20. | Tripura | 78.6 | 77.7 | 76.4 | 77.7 | 78.3 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 81.2 | 83.0 | 82.5 | 82.4 | 82.6 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 77.9 | 79.1 | 78.5 | 78.1 | 78.6 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 69.0 | 68.7 | 71.3 | 66.8 | 60.1 |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | 87.0 | 83.9 | 89.9 | 87.4 | 81.5 |
| 25 | Chandigarh | 22.3 | 22.0 | 21.1 | 27.7 | 26.3 |
| 26 | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 89.9 | 92.6 | 90.9 | 92.2 | 92.8 |
| 27. | Delhi | 27.6 | 33.0 | 34.5 | 34.5 | 31.0 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 69.4 | 63.9 | 65.1 | 68.3 | 69.9 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | 74.3 | 84.1 | 73.8 | 72.7 | 62.6 |
| 30. | Mizoram | – | – | – | – | – |
| 31. | Pondicherry | 71.1 | 70.7 | 64.6 | 63.7 | 55.7 |
| | For the country | 79.0 | 79.2 | 78.7 | 77.6 | 77.1 |

cent in Bihar. In the case of Union Territories, the highest drop-out rate (93 per cent) has been Dadra and Nagar Havelo (Table 9).

During the past three decades, several measures aimed at removing or lessening the drop-out problem at the prir ary and middle stages of education have been initiated by the Government of India. Some of these measures or programmes have been taken in order to prevent drop-outs and to retain all children at least up to the end of grade VIII, while the others have been directed at

retrieving the drop-outs back into the educational system, both formal and non-formal.

### Non-pedagogical measures to prevent drop-out

Prominent among the non-pedagogical measures taken to prevent drop-outs at the elementary stage are (a) legislations for free and compulsory primary education; (b) provision of schooling facilities within easy walking distance from the homes of children; (c) creation of necessary infrastructure of facilities in schools; (d) incentive schemes for students; and (e) introduction of 'no detention policy' at the primary stage.

a) **Free and compulsory education.** In all the States and Union Territories education in grades I-VIII in all the schools managed by Government and local bodies, and a sizeable proportion of schools aided by the Government, is free. The only exception is the State of Uttar Pradesh where education of boys in grades VI-VIII is yet to be made free.

Legislation for compulsory primary education is available in 16 states and three union territories (Figure 2). However, only the Compulsory Education Acts of Himachal Pradesh covers the entire elementary stage of education for children in the age group 6-14. In the remaining states and union territories, the Compulsory Education Act (s) cover only the primary stage of education for children in the age group of 6-11.

**Figure 2. States/Union Territories which have Legislations/Acts for Compulsory Primary Education**

| *Sl. No.* | *State/Union Territory* | *Name of the Compulsory Education Act applicable to the State/Union Territory* |
|---|---|---|
| *1.* | *2.* | *3.* |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Act, 1961. |
| 2. | Assam | Assam Elementary (Provinclalisation) Act, 1974. |
| 3. | Gujarat | Gujarat Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1961. |

**Figure 2.** *(continued)*

| *Sl. No.* | *State/Union Territory* | *Name of the Compulsory Education Act applicable to the State/Union Territory* |
|---|---|---|
| *1.* | *2.* | *3.* |
| 4. | Haryana | The Panjab Primary Education Act, 1960. Act No. 39. |
| 5. | Himachal Pradesh | Himachal Pradesh Compulsory Primary Education Act 1953 (Act No. 7 of 1954) and Punjab Primary Education Act, 1960 (Act No 39 of 1969) |
| 6. | Jammu & Kashmir | – |
| 7. | Karnataka | Karnataka State Compulsory Primary Education Act and Rules, 1961. |
| 8. | Kerala | Kerala Education Act, 1958 (Act 6 of 1959) |
| 9. | Madhya Pradesh | Madhya Pradesh Primary Education Act, 1961. |
| 10. | Maharashtra | Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.<br>Hyderabad Comulsory Primary Education Act, 1952.<br>Madhya Pradesh Primary Education Act, 1956<br>The City of Bombay Primary Education (Bombay Act No. XIV of 1920 in Great Bombay). |
| 11. | Orissa | No Compulsory Education Act as such has been enacted. However, under Section 4 (1) of the Orissa Basic Education Act 1951, the State Govt. may declare any area for introducing compulsory education. |
| 12. | Panjab | Panjab Primary Education Act, 1960. (Act No. 39) |
| 13. | Rajasthan | The Rajasthan Primary Education Act, 1964. |
| 14. | Tamil Nadu | The Tamil Nadu Elementary Education Act, 1920. |
| 15. | Uttar Pradesh | United Province Primary Education Act 1919 & 1926. |

**Figure 2.** *(continued)*

| *Sl. No.* | *State/Union Territory* | *Name of the Compulsory Education Act applicable to the State/Union Territory* |
|---|---|---|
| *1.* | *2.* | *3.* |
| 16. | West Bengal | Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930.<br>West Bengal Urban Primary Education Act, 1963. |
| 17. | Andaman & Nicobar Islands | Andaman & Nicobar Islands primary Education Regulation, 1959, No. 3 of 1953. |
| 18 | Chandigarh | Panjab Primary Education Act 1960 (Act No. 39). |
| 19. | Delhi | Delhi Primary Education Act, 1960.<br>Delhi Schools Education Act, 1973. |

*Note:* Only the Compulsory Education Acts of Himachal Pradesh covers the entire elementary stage of education for children in the age group 6 to 14. In the remaining States and Union Territories, the Compulsory Education Act (s) cover only the primary stage of eduation for children in the age group of 6 to 11.

It has not been possible to enforce the penal provision in the legialations for compulsory education because of the socio-economic factor involved, and it has not been possible to achieve the goal of universal enrolment and universal retention of children in the age group 6-14. Another reason for this is the fact that the legislations do not enforce compulsion in the case of disabled children who require special education services which are available only in a few mostly urban localities.

b) Provision of schooling facilities. There has been substantial progress in the provision of schooling facilities during the post-independence period. Efforts have been made to provide primary schooling facilities within easy walking distance from the home of every child.

Eighty per cent of rural habitations in 1978, varying in size from 100-500 persons, had primary schools or sections in the habitation or in the neighbourhood within a distance of one kilometre of

the remainder. 13 per cent had primary schools or sections up to two kilometres distance, and the rest had facilities over two kilometres.

If habitations of 300 persons or more are considered, the percentage having access to primary education, either within the habitation or up to one kilometre distance, increases up to 93 per cent. However, the habitations of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes exceeding 300 persons had access to primary schools or sections at 67 and 78 per cent respectively, either within the habitation or at a distance of one kilometre.

At that time also, 79 per cent of the rural population was served by middle schools or sections located either in the habitation or in the neighbourhood up to a distance of three kilometres. (Tables 10-13).

In order to provide schooling facilities within easy walking distance from the home of every child, efforts are being made by the Central and State Governments to cover all the habitations which do not have primary schools and which have viable populations of about 300, with the provision of primary schools at a maximum distance of one kilometre. Similarly efforts are also made to cover the schoolless habitations with the provision of middle schools at a maximum distance of three kilometres from the residence of children, during the Sixth Five Year Plan period.

**Table 10. Percentage of rural population with primary schools/ sections (As on September 30, 1978)**

| *Sl. No.* | *Distance at which Primary School/ Section is available* | *Percentage of population served by Primary Schools/Sections* |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Within the habitation | 78.53 |
| 2 | Up to 0.5 km but not within habitation | 6.60 |
| 3. | 0.6 to 1.0 km | 7.69 |
| 4. | 1.1 to 1.5 km | 2.20 |
| 5. | 1.6 to 2.0 km | 2.83 |
| 6. | More than 2 km | 2.15 |

## Table 11. Habitations with population of 300 or more served by primary schools/sections (As on September 30, 1978)

| Sl No. | Type of habitations | Number of habitations with population of 300 or more | Percentage of habitations served by Primary Schools/Sections | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Within the habitation | Up to 1 km |
| 1. | All habitations | 466,707 | 77.31 | 93.05 |
| 2. | Habitations predominantly populated by scheduled castes | 24,198 | 66.94 | 90.65 |
| 3. | Habitations predominantly populated by scheduled tribes | 41,550 | 77.78 | 90.48 |

## Table 12. Percentage of rural population with middle schools/ sections (As on September 30, 1978)

| Sl No. | Distance at which middle school/ section is available | Percentage of population served by middle schools/ sections |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Within the habitation | 33.47 |
| 2. | Up to 1.0 km | 13.10 |
| 3. | 1.1 to 2.0 km | 17.78 |
| 4. | 2.1 to 3.0 km | 14.43 |
| 5. | 3.1 to 4.0 km | 7.90 |
| 6. | 4.1 to 5.0 km | 5.37 |
| 7. | More than 5 km | 7.90 |

## Table 13. Habitations with population of 500 or more served by middle schools/sections (As on September 30, 1978)

| Sl No. | Type of habitations | Number of habitations with population of 500 or more | Percentage of habitations served by schools/sections | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Within the habitation | Up to 3 kms |
| 1. | All habitations | 305 002 | 28.42 | 78.42 |
| 2. | Habitations predominantly populated by scheduled castes | 13,159 | 13.47 | 75.27 |
| 3. | Habitations predominantly populated by scheduled tribes | 17,848 | 21.41 | 64.11 |

**Table 14. Primary schools with unsatisfactory buildings/structures (As on September 30, 1978)**

| *Sl. No.* | *State/Union Territory* | *Total number of primary schools* | *Primary schools with unsatisfactory buildings/structures* | *Percentage of schools with unsatisfactory buildings/structures* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Andrah Pradesh | 39,696 | 19,895 | 47.60 |
| 2. | Assam | 21,603 | 14,726 | 68.16 |
| 3. | Bihar | 50,934 | 30,594 | 60.06 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 10,958 | 2,222 | 20.28 |
| 5. | Haryana | 5,384 | 453 | 8.50 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 4,416 | 3,195 | 72.35 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 6,709 | 4,097 | 61.08 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 22,528 | 4,773 | 21.18 |
| 9. | Kerala | 6,033 | 241 | 3.99 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 53,572 | 20,566 | 38.38 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 33,794 | 8,473 | 25.07 |
| 12. | Manipur | 3,437 | 3,066 | 89.20 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | 3,575 | 2,797 | 68.23 |
| 14. | Nagaland | 969 | 885 | 91.33 |
| 15. | Orissa | 32,103 | 17,096 | 53.23 |
| 16. | Panjab | 13,410 | 5,082 | 37.89 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 20,822 | 5,094 | 24.46 |
| 18. | Sikkim | 299 | 98 | 32.77 |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 27,588 | 5,378 | 19.49 |
| 20. | Tripura | 1,573 | 1,425 | 90.59 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 68,122 | 14,284 | 21.00 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 42,659 | 25,360 | 59.44 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 160 | 50 | 31.25 |
| 24. | Arnachal Pradesh | 735 | 651 | 88.57 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | 39 | 3 | 7.69 |
| 26. | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 134 | 70 | 52.23 |
| 27. | Delhi | 1,620 | 195 | 12.03 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 951 | 57 | 6.00 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | 17 | 3 | 17.64 |
| 30. | Mizoram | 516 | 427 | 82.75 |
| 31. | Pondicherry | 280 | 96 | 34.28 |
| | TOTAL | 474,636 | 190,357 | 40.11 |

c) **Creation of necessary infrastructural facilities.** One of the factors which has been contributing to the low attracting and retaining power of schools and the high rate of drop-out at the elementary stage of education, has been the lack of adequate infrastructure of facilities, such as satisfactory school buildings and services of trained and competent teachers. A large number of primary and middle schools in the country are housed in unsatisfactory structures, comprising thatched huts, tents and even open spaces. In 1978 it was found that 40 per cent of the primary schools were housed in unsatisfactory structures (Table 14). Among the states, Nagaland had the highest percentage (91 per cent) of primary schools housed in unsatisfactory structures, followed by Assam (68 per cent), Bihar (60 per cent). Himachal Pradesh (72 per cent), Jammu and Kashmir (61 per cent), Manipur (89 per cent), Meghalaya (68 per cent), Orissa (53 per cent), Tripura (90 per cent) and West Bengal (59 per cent).

At the same time 14 per cent of the middle schools were housed in unsatisfactory structures (Table 15). Among the states, Manipur had the highest percentage (80 per cent) of middle schools housed in unsatisfactory structures, followed by Himachal Pradesh (59 per cent), Nagaland (70 per cent and Tripura (64 per cent).

The unsatisfactory primary and middle school buildings/structures have been posing a formidable problem in the programme of universalisation of elementary education in the country. It has been estimated that the cost for converting the existing unsatisfactory primary and middle school structures into economical but durable school buildings would be about Rs. 19,200 million (US$1,920 million). Since the plan resources alone would not be able to take care of the programme of construction of such a large number of school buildings efforts are also being made to find alternate sources of finance.

Attempts have been made to achieve economy in construction cost, among other things, by increasing the use of locally available building materials and functionally suitable designs. Efforts have also been made, at various levels, to mobilise community resources for improving the physical facilities of the schools and to involve the village communities in the execution of the programmes for construction and maintenance of school buildings, provision of furniture and equipment. Simultaneously, efforts are also made to optimise the

**Table 15. Middle schools with unsatisfactory buildings/structures (As on September 30, 1978)**

| *Sl. No.* | *State/Union Territory* | *Total number of primary schools* | *Primary schools with unsatisfactory buildings/structures* | *Percentage of schools with unsatisfactory buildings/structures* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 4,382 | 665 | 15.18 |
| 2. | Assam | 3,653 | 1,631 | 44.65 |
| 3. | Bihar | 10,643 | 1,932 | 18.15 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 12,500 | 340 | 2.72 |
| 5. | Haryana | 801 | 26 | 3.25 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 981 | 580 | 59.12 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 1,990 | 793 | 39.85 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 11,913 | 822 | 6.90 |
| 9. | Kerala | 3,686 | 77 | 2.09 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 9,082 | 943 | 10.38 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 16,348 | 1,267 | 7.75 |
| 12. | Manipur | 378 | 306 | 80.95 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | 374 | 160 | 42.78 |
| 14. | Nagaland | 330 | 232 | 70.30 |
| 15. | Orissa | 6,507 | 2,042 | 31.38 |
| 16. | Panjab | 1,576 | 347 | 22.02 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 5,121 | 156 | 3.05 |
| 18. | Sikkim | 40 | – | – |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 5,700 | 527 | 9.25 |
| 20. | Tripura | 292 | 181 | 64.04 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 12,049 | 1,866 | 15.49 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 3,082 | 717 | 23.26 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 35 | – | – |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | 105 | 55 | 52.38 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | 22 | 4 | 18.18 |
| 26. | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 23 | – | – |
| 27. | Delhi | 322 | 45 | 13.98 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 137 | 3 | 2.19 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | 5 | – | – |
| 30. | Mizoram | 245 | 194 | 79.18 |
| 31. | Pondicherry | 82 | 17 | 20.73 |
| | TOTAL | 112,404 | 15,934 | 14.18 |

utilisation of the existing physical facilities, by adjusting the schooling hours, reducing instructional hours at the primary stage and introducing double shifts at the elementary stage.

The Fourth All-India Educational Survey had also indicated that 34 per cent of the primary schools were single-teacher schools; 27 per cent were two-teacher schools; 15 per cent were three-teacher schools; 8 per cent were four-teacher schools and only 5 per cent were five-teacher schools. Eight per cent of the schools had more than five teachers. (Table 16).

Among the states, Jammu and Kashmir had the highest percentage (78 per cent) of single-teacher schools followed by Andhra Pradesh (54 per cent), Gujarat (56 per cent), Karnataka (72 per cent), Maharashtra (52 per cent), Meghalaya (64 per cent) and Rajasthan (57 per cent).

As a measure for reducing the drop-out rates due to the non-availability of an adequate number of teachers in the single-teacher schools, efforts are being made to convert the single-teacher schools, wherever possible, into two-teacher schools or to provide an additional teacher as a leave reserve, in a cluster of three or four single-teacher schools. In certain cases, attempts are made to make the single teacher schools part of a complex of neighbouring primary or middle schools. Other steps being taken to optimise the utilisation of teachers include recruitment of teachers on the basis of actual attendance, and increasing the teacher-pupil ratio at the primary stage wherever it is less than 1:40, and deployment of surplus teachers existing in any school to either the existing single-teacher schools or to new schools.

d) **Incentive schemes for students.** Socio-economic conditions in families, particularly in rural areas and among the weaker sections of the society, have been contributing to the high rate of drop-out at the elementary stage of education. In order to reduce drop-out and eliminate wastage, the Central and State Governments have focussed attention on overcoming the social and economic barriers which prevent children from continuing their education at least up to the end of the elementary stage. The introduction of incentive schemes in primary and middle schools are among the programmes designed to prevent drop-out as well as to increase the enrolment of children at the elementary stage. Prominent among the incentive schemes in

## Table 16. Primary schools according to teachers in position
## (As on September 30, 1978)

| Sl. No. | State/Union Territory | Teachers in Position | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Zero | One | Two | Three | Four | Five | More than five | Total |
| 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 292 | 21,544 | 9,488 | 3,630 | 1,562 | 1,293 | 1,887 | 39,696 |
| 2. | Assam | 20 | 6,187 | 10,150 | 2,995 | 1,098 | 565 | 588 | 21,603 |
| 3. | Bihar | 497 | 17,085 | 17,744 | 9,689 | 3,783 | 1,403 | 733 | 50,934 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 68 | 6,182 | 2,225 | 912 | 361 | 175 | 1,035 | 10,958 |
| 5. | Haryana | 17 | 951 | 1,843 | 1,047 | 547 | 382 | 579 | 5,384 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 27 | 1,871 | 1,744 | 378 | 190 | 102 | 104 | 4,416 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 30 | 5,268 | 1,031 | 195 | 86 | 42 | 57 | 6,709 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 381 | 16,341 | 3,627 | 788 | 509 | 254 | 628 | 22,528 |
| 9. | Kerala | .. | 24 | 75 | 396 | 711 | 1,067 | 3,760 | 6,033 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 411 | 25,201 | 18,209 | 4,464 | 1,624 | 1,141 | 2,522 | 53,572 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 115 | 17,827 | 7,676 | 2,034 | 1,445 | 803 | 3,894 | 33,794 |
| 12. | Manipur | - | 181 | 1,347 | 978 | 437 | 264 | 230 | 3,437 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | - | 2,296 | 847 | 258 | 87 | 37 | 50 | 3,575 |
| 14. | Nagaland | - | 45 | 225 | 177 | 167 | 147 | 208 | 969 |
| 15. | Orissa | 243 | 14,698 | 6,820 | 6,115 | 2,027 | 1,194 | 1,006 | 32,103 |
| 16. | Panjab | 1 | 2,753 | 3,860 | 2,001 | 1,504 | 1,108 | 2,183 | 13,410 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 96 | 11,978 | 4,298 | 1,448 | 768 | 712 | 1,522 | 20,822 |

**Table 16** *(continued)*

| Sl. No. | State/Union Territory | Teachers in Position | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Zero | One | Two | Three | Four | Five | More than five | Total |
| 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. |
| 18. | Sikkim | .. | 44 | 90 | 56 | 42 | 29 | 38 | 299 |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 104 | 2,618 | 8,883 | 5,143 | 3,163 | 2,691 | 4,986 | 27,588 |
| 20. | Tripura | 8 | 579 | 460 | 176 | 115 | 55 | 180 | 1,573 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 600 | 8,583 | 17,200 | 14,143 | 10,276 | 7,081 | 10,239 | 68,122 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 23 | 1,655 | 10,821 | 14,273 | 7,874 | 3,852 | 4,161 | 42,658 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | - | 37 | 29 | 32 | 23 | 13 | 26 | 160 |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | .. | 528 | 142 | 30 | 19 | 6 | 10 | 735 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | | .. | 3 | 2 | 4 | 8 | 22 | 39 |
| 26. | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 2 | 111 | 17 | 4 | – | – | – | 134 |
| 27. | Delhi | | 4 | 19 | 48 | 60 | 319 | 1,170 | 1,620 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | | 173 | 444 | 137 | 98 | 34 | 65 | 951 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | | 1 | - | - | 4 | 2 | 10 | 17 |
| 30. | Mizoram | | 74 | 83 | 84 | 110 | 97 | 68 | 516 |
| 31 | Pondicherry | 2 | 92 | 51 | 25 | 32 | 32 | 46 | 280 |
| | All-India | 2,937 | 164,931 | 129,451 | 71,658 | 38,726 | 24,908 | 42,025 | 474,636 |

*Source*: Fourth All India Educational Survey – NCERT, New Delhi

the primary and middle schools are (i) provision for mid-day meals, (ii) supply of free uniform/clothes, (iii) supply of free textbooks and stationery, and (iv) attendance scholarships for girls.

i) *Mid-day meal programme.* At the time of the Fourth All-India Education Survey a mid-day meal programme was available in 126,780 primary schools. The percentage of primary schools covered was 26 per cent (Table 17). The percentage of primary schools in rural and urban areas which had the mid-day meal programme was 26 per cent and 27 per cent respectively. Among the states, in Kerala and Tamil Nadu more than 90 per cent of the primary schools were covered by the mid-day meal programme in 1978. Andhra Pradesh (25 per cent), Gujarat (29 per cent), Haryana (97 per cent), Karnataka (28 per cent), Orissa (46 per cent), Rajasthan (33 per cent), Sikkim (36 per cent) and West Bengal (70 per cent), were the states where more than 25 per cent of primary schools were covered by the programme.

At that time also, 19,610 middle schools (17 per cent) had provision for free mid-day meals to students from economically poorer families, 16 per cent of middle schools in rural areas and 22 per cent of middle schools in urban areas were covered by the mid-day meal programme.

The programme in primary schools has been largely rural based, except in the states of Kerala and Tamil Nadu where a large proportion of schools in urban areas was also covered under the programme.

ii) *Provision of free uniforms and clothes.* Economic causes, like inability of the parents to provide their children with adequate clothes, also contribute a great deal towards children dropping out from schools. As a measure to prevent drop-out at the elementary stage of education, the central and state governments, therefore, have initiated schemes for supplying uniforms/clothes to children belonging to the disadvantaged sections of the society.

In 1978, provisions for supply of free uniforms/clothes to students were available in 59,960 primary schools and 10,563 middle schools, 54,476 primary schools in rural areas and 4,484 primary schools in urban areas were covered by the scheme. In the case of middle schools which had the facility, 8,739 were in rural areas while 1,804 were in urban areas. The percentage of primary and

## Table 17. Percentage of schools with mid-day meals programme for students (As on September, 30, 1978)

| Sl. No. | State/Union Territory | Percentage of schools with mid-day meals programme | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Primary | | | Middle | | |
| | | Rural | Urban | Total | Rural | Urban | Total |
| i. | ii. | iii. | iv. | v. | vi. | vii. | viii. |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 26.42 | 18.91 | 25.86 | 56.2 | 29.63 | 50.37 |
| 2. | Assam | 3.58 | 1.55 | 3.49 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 0.05 |
| 3. | Bihar | 1.11 | 2.63 | 1.17 | 1.35 | 1.25 | 1.33 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 32.54 | 2.19 | 29.25 | 12.95 | 6.49 | 11.91 |
| 5. | Haryana | 40.42 | 2.13 | 37.41 | 0.13 | 5.08 | 0.50 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 10.62 | 15.48 | 10.71 | 7.85 | 0.00 | 7.65 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 0.72 | 0.82 | 0.73 | 0.89 | 0.33 | 0.80 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 26.87 | 44.10 | 28.27 | 39.04 | 36.83 | 38.55 |
| 9. | Kerala | 96.74 | 96.31 | 96.72 | 77.11 | 85.82 | 78.02 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 15.06 | 4.05 | 14.29 | 12.10 | 2.90 | 10.43 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 4.67 | 14.17 | 5.83 | 5.13 | 25.15 | 8.24 |
| 12. | Manipur | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | 0.37 | 2.82 | 0.42 | 0.30 | 2.33 | 0.53 |
| 14. | Nagaland | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 15. | Orissa | 47.74 | 16.23 | 46.32 | 0.81 | 3.28 | 0.95 |
| 16. | Panjab | 17.41 | 4.35 | 16.38 | 0.21 | 2.24 | 0.38 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 37.21 | 6.61 | 33.99 | 1.16 | 4.24 | 1.70 |
| 18. | Sikkim | 76.29 | 75.00 | 76.25 | 88.57 | 80.00 | 87.5 |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 97.70 | 91.22 | 96.53 | 94.74 | 87.55 | 92.58 |
| 20. | Tripura | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 7.58 | 12.80 | 8.08 | 1.17 | 5.39 | 1.83 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 73.91 | 48.39 | 70.06 | 0.27 | 1.02 | 0.39 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 94.23 | 100.00 | 94.38 | 96.55 | 100.00 | 97.14 |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | 29.60 | 8.33 | 29.25 | 11.65 | 0.00 | 11.43 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | 100.00 | 92.85 | 94.87 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| 26. | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 99.25 | – | 99.25 | 95.65 | – | 95.65 |
| 27. | Delhi | 0.00 | 6.49 | 5.12 | 0.00 | 5.49 | 4.66 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 34.32 | 16.50 | 8.73 | 0.00 | 88.24 | 10.95 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | 100.00 | – | 100.00 | 100.00 | – | 100.00 |
| 30. | Mizoram | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 31. | Pondicherry | 97.13 | 85.92 | 94.29 | 90.57 | 65.52 | 81.71 |
| | TOTAL | 26.61 | 27.75 | 26.71 | 16.42 | 22.73 | 17.45 |

*Source:* Fourth All India Educational Survey – NCERT, New Delhi

**Table 18. Percentage of schools with the scheme of free uniforms to students (As on September, 30, 1978)**

| Sl. No. | State/Union Territory | Percentage of schools with the scheme of free uniforms to students | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Primary | | | Middle | | |
| | | Rural | Urban | Total | Rural | Urban | Total |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 14.93 | 5.20 | 14.20 | 19.42 | 6.34 | 16.54 |
| 2. | Assam | 0.00 | 1.22 | 0.05 | 2.76 | 1.75 | 2.68 |
| 3. | Bihar | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 22.01 | 5.98 | 20.28 | 9.50 | 2.23 | 8.34 |
| 5. | Haryana | 7.44 | 9.22 | 7.58 | 4.18 | 8.47 | 4.49 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 14.59 | 21.43 | 14.72 | 21.03 | 0.08 | 20.69 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 26.21 | 21.15 | 25.85 | 25.81 | 21.93 | 25.23 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 5.81 | 9.76 | 6.13 | 8.51 | 10.33 | 8.91 |
| 9. | Kerala | 94.36 | 94.38 | 94.36 | 91.87 | 94.59 | 92.16 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 0.12 | 0.75 | 0.17 | 0.18 | 0.85 | 0.30 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 2.41 | 5.54 | 2.80 | 2.45 | 3.74 | 2.65 |
| 12. | Manipur | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | 0.09 | 1.41 | 0.11 | 1.81 | 9.30 | 2.67 |
| 14. | Nagaland | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.33 | 0.00 | 0.30 |
| 15. | Orissa | 15.37 | 7.39 | 15.01 | 10.68 | 17.21 | 11.05 |
| 16. | Panjab | 0.17 | 0.85 | 0.22 | 0.07 | 7.46 | 0.70 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 4.46 | 2.35 | 4.23 | 1.68 | 3.23 | 1.95 |
| 18. | Sikkim | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 22.84 | 23.98 | 23.04 | 25.27 | 28.93 | 26.37 |
| 20. | Tripura | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 0.12 | 0.57 | 0.17 | 0.25 | 1.32 | 0.41 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 66.84 | 13.92 | 58.86 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 82.05 | 75.00 | 81.88 | 93.10 | 100.00 | 94.29 |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | 0.69 | 0.00 | 0.68 | 0.97 | 0.00 | 0.95 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | 27.27 | 37.14 | 48.71 | 71.43 | 46.67 | 54.55 |
| 26. | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 97.76 | – | 97.76 | 95.65 | – | 95.65 |
| 27. | Delhi | 48.25 | 51.10 | 50.49 | 77.55 | 73.63 | 74.22 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 7.90 | 14.56 | 8.62 | 13.33 | 35.29 | 16.06 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | 0.00 | – | 0.00 | 0.00 | – | 0.00 |
| 30. | Mizoram | 7.66 | 0.00 | 6.78 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 31. | Pondicherry | 31.10 | 30.99 | 31.07 | 30.19 | 20.69 | 26.83 |
| | TOTAL | 12.62 | 10.42 | 12.42 | 9.28 | 9.90 | 9.40 |

*Source:* Fourth All India Educational Survey – NCERT, New Delhi

middle schools which had provisions for supply of free uniforms/ clothes to students were 12.42 and 9.40 respectively (Table 18). Among the states, Kerala and Tripura had more than 90 per cent of the primary schools covered by the programme.

iii) *Provision of free textbooks.* Another incentive scheme, which is designed to prevent drop-out and reduce wastage at the primary and middle stages of education, is the scheme for free supply of textbooks to needy students.

The percentage of primary schools which had the scheme for supply of free textbooks in 1978 was 37 per cent in the rural areas and 34 per cent in the urban areas. Among the states, in Bihar, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Tripura more than 90 per cent of the primary schools had free supply of textbooks. In Himachal Pradesh and Orissa more than 50 per cent of the primary schools were covered by the scheme. A large proportion of the primary schools was covered by the scheme in the union territories.

Thirty-four per cent of the middle schools in the country had provision for free supply of textbooks to students. The percentages of middle schools in rural and urban areas which had the scheme were 34 and 38 per cent respectively. In Bihar and Tripura, more than 90 per cent of middle schools were covered by the scheme. Other states in which a large proportion of middle schools had been covered by the scheme were Andhra Pradesh (54 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (55 per cent), Kerala (83 per cent), Tamil Nadu (89 per cent) (Table 19).

iv) *Attendance scholarships for girls.* Since a large proportion of drop-outs at the elementary stage has been girls, the Government of India has initiated special measures for promoting education of girls. Prominent among them is the scheme of attendance scholarships for girls from the weaker sections of the society, including scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

In 1978 there were 62,438 primary schools and 18,262 middle schools which had provision for attendance scholarships for girls. The provision for scholarships for girls were 13 per cent and 16 per cent for primary and middle schools respectively. The scheme existed more in rural schools than in urban schools; 59,277 primary schools (14 per cent) in rural areas and 3,161 (7 per cent) in urban areas, had provision for attendance scholarships for girls. Among

**Table 19. Percentage of schools with the scheme of free textbooks to students (As on September 30, 1978)**

| Sl. No. | State/Union Territory | Percentage of schools with the scheme of free textbooks to the students | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Primary | | | Middle | | |
| | | Rural | Urban | Total | Rural | Urban | Total |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 44.75 | 39.09 | 44.33 | 59.42 | 37.21 | 54.54 |
| 2. | Assam | 3.87 | 1.66 | 3.77 | 4.22 | 1.75 | 4.02 |
| 3. | Bihar | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 92.47 | 93.92 | 92.65 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 30.17 | 8.59 | 27.83 | 15.77 | 12.40 | 15.22 |
| 5. | Haryana | 20.76 | 13.95 | 20.23 | 18.46 | 20.34 | 18.60 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 53.74 | 39.29 | 53.46 | 55.75 | 48.00 | 55.56 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 25.39 | 26.28 | 25.46 | 21.49 | 21.93 | 21.56 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 37.65 | 36.53 | 37.56 | 48.26 | 35.30 | 45.40 |
| 9. | Kerala | 93.18 | 94.54 | 93.32 | 83.26 | 85.30 | 83.48 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 10.95 | 3.79 | 10.45 | 11.49 | 5.44 | 10.38 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 29.28 | 34.14 | 29.86 | 30.66 | 61.53 | 35.45 |
| 12. | Manipur | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | 1.31 | 5.63 | 1.40 | 5.74 | 4.65 | 5.61 |
| 14. | Nagaland | 31.08 | 0.00 | 30.34 | 18.89 | 0.00 | 17.58 |
| 15. | Orissa | 74.43 | 67.13 | 74.10 | 22.83 | 26.23 | 23.02 |
| 16. | Punjab | 21.88 | 18.81 | 21.64 | 37.24 | 23.13 | 36.04 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 19.95 | 24.76 | 20.47 | 20.22 | 26.09 | 21.25 |
| 18. | Sikkim | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 94.66 | 91.46 | 94.08 | 89.02 | 91.23 | 89.68 |
| 20. | Tripura | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 95.57 | 95.24 | 95.55 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 13.61 | 11.07 | 13.37 | 19.71 | 18.70 | 19.55 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 94.87 | 75.00 | 94.38 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | 100.00 | 83.33 | 99.73 | 99.03 | 100.00 | 99.05 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | 100.00 | 64.29 | 74.36 | 100.00 | 53.33 | 68.18 |
| 26. | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 100.00 | – | 100.00 | 95.65 | – | 95.65 |
| 27. | Delhi | 100.00 | 93.19 | 94.63 | 83.67 | 74.72 | 76.09 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 18.87 | 30.10 | 20.08 | 26.67 | 35.29 | 27.74 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | 94.12 | – | 94.12 | 100.00 | – | 100.00 |
| 30. | Mizoram | 28.45 | 40.68 | 29.84 | 21.08 | 41.46 | 24.49 |
| 31. | Pondicherry | 31.58 | 19.23 | 28.93 | 37.74 | 41.38 | 39.02 |
| | TOTAL | 37.91 | 34.11 | 37.56 | 34.19 | 38.75 | 34.93 |

*Source:* Fourth All India Educational Survey – NCERT, New Delhi

middle schools, 15,972 (17 per cent) in rural areas and 2,290 (13 per cent) in urban areas were covered by the scheme in 1978. In the states of Andhra Pradesh (38 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (44 per cent), Karnataka (36 per cent), Tripura (100 per cent) and West Bengal (72 per cent) and in the union territory of Chandigarh (76 per cent), the scheme of attendance scholarships for girls were available in more than 35 per cent of the primary schools. The states and union territories where a large proportion of middle schools which had provision for attendance scholarships for girls were Andhra Pradesh (50 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (68 per cent), Karnataka (55 per cent), Kerala (54 per cent), Orissa (53 per cent), Tripura (95 per cent) and Chandigarh (72 per cent) (Table 20).

e) 'No detention policy' at the primary stage. As a measure for combating the drop-out problem, it has been suggested to states and union territories, to introduce 'no detention policy' at the primary stage of education, so that every child enrolled at the primary stage is promoted to the next higher class till he/she completes grade V, but with adequate safeguards for maintaining standards by way of periodical assessment and evaluation on a continuing basis. This policy has already been introduced in a few states like Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. In Kerala, no detention policy was introduced in grades I-III and minimum detention is made in the subsequent higher classes. Actions to introduce 'no detention policy' at the primary stage are being initiated in other states and union territories. It is expected that the introduction of this policy would bring down considerably the drop-out rates and wastage at the primary stage.

### Pedagogical measures to prevent drop-outs

Studies conducted on the problems of drop-out and wastage at the elementary stage of education have revealed that one of the main causes of drop-out and wastage has been the poor quality of education. Therefore, as part of the efforts to prevent drop-outs and eliminate wastage, several measures aimed at bringing about qualitative improvement in education and overcoming the problems related to certain pedagogical aspects of the drop-out problem, were initiated during the past few years. Prominent among these measures were: (a) programmes/projects for evolving new curriculum approaches and improving the quality of textbooks and other learning materials; (b) experimental/operational projects on ungraded school systems;

**Table 20. Percentage of schools having attendance scholarships schemes (As on September , 30, 1978)**

| Sl. No. | State/Union Territory | Percentage of schools having attendance scholarship scheme | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Primary | | | Middle | | |
| | | Rural | Urban | Total | Rural | Urban | Total |
| i. | ii. | iii. | iv. | v. | vi. | vii. | viii. |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 38.46 | 34.12 | 38.13 | 53.86 | 36.49 | 50.04 |
| 2. | Assam | 3.55 | 1.20 | 3.46 | 3.18 | 1.75 | 3.07 |
| 3. | Bihar | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 21.19 | 1.26 | 19.03 | 9.14 | 1.39 | 7.89 |
| 5. | Haryana | 0.04 | 0.24 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 3.39 | 0.25 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 44.94 | 35.71 | 44.77 | 68.41 | 56.00 | 68.09 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 36.77 | 37.58 | 36.84 | 59.36 | 43.31 | 55.81 |
| 9. | Kerala | 5.27 | 5.30 | 5.27 | 54.43 | 59.79 | 54.99 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 0.02 | 0.42 | 0.05 | 2.85 | 0.42 | 2.41 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 0.25 | 1.40 | 0.39 | 0.55 | 0.99 | 0.62 |
| 12. | Manipur | 0.00 | 1.55 | 0.08 | 0.00 | 10.00 | 1.06 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.60 | 0.00 | 0.53 |
| 14. | Nagaland | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.98 | 0.00 | 0.91 |
| 15. | Orissa | 1.27 | 2.07 | 1.31 | 53.67 | 51.90 | 53.57 |
| 16. | Panjab | 0.01 | 0.19 | 0.02 | 1.46 | 1.49 | 1.46 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 0.07 | 1.60 | 0.24 | 11.43 | 14.16 | 11.91 |
| 18. | Sikkim | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 0 18 | 0.40 | 0.01 | 0.30 | 0.76 | 0.44 |
| 20. | Tripura | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 95.57 | 95.24 | 95.55 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 0.63 | 0.66 | 0.64 | 1.87 | 3.33 | 2.10 |
| 22. | West Bengal | 82.90 | 16.56 | 72.89 | 20.19 | 11.61 | 18.82 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | 100.00 | 67.86 | 76.92 | 100.00 | 0.60 | 72.73 |
| 26. | Dadra Nagar Haveli | 0.00 | – | 0.00 | 0.00 | – | 0.00 |
| 27. | Delhi | 0.00 | 0.78 | 0.62 | 0.00 | 0.73 | 0.67 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 3.18 | 4.86 | 3.36 | 9.17 | 23.53 | 10.45 |
| 29. | Kakshadweep | 11.76 | – | 11.76 | 20.00 | – | 20.00 |
| 30. | Mizoram | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 31. | Pondicerry | 0.96 | 0.00 | 0.71 | 9.43 | 3.45 | 7.32 |
| | TOTAL | 13.73 | 7.35 | 13.15 | 16.96 | 12.57 | 16.25 |

*Source:* Fourth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, New Delhi

and (c) in-service and pre-service programmes for enhancing the competence of teachers.

a) **Improvement of curricula and learning materials.** Because of the geographical, economic, social and cultural variations, the needs of the learners have been diverse and, therefore, the conventional curricula, learning materials and instructional strategies have not been always relevant to the basic needs and life situations of the children. An important area of challenge, which has been engaging the attention of the educational planners and workers at all levels in the country has been to evolve new curricula or curriculum approaches that would provide an effective programme of education, especially at the elementary stage, through the improved use of limited resources available in the country.

Many Commissions and Committees, appointed during the last two decades by the Government of India in order to evolve a suitable and effective system of education in the country, have made useful recommendations and suggestions for improvement of the quality of education. These include the report of the Education Commission (1964-66), the report of the Expert Group of 1975 "The Curriculum for the Ten-Year School: A Framework", and the Review Committee of 1977.

Today in India, the guidelines provided in "The Curriculum for the Ten-Year School – A Framework" and the "Report of the Review Committee on the Curriculum for the Ten-Year School" form the basis for the development of the curriculum for school education at different levels in the states and union territories in the country.

The basic characteristics and objectives of the curriculum for school education have also been spelt out in the policy frame of the Sixth Five Year Plan. According to it "the curriculum would be developed with the goal of imparting necessary levels of literacy, numeracy, comprehension and functional skills related to local socio-economic factors and environment needs. It would suit flexible models, with provision of diversification and dextrous balance between common basic goals and varying methodology. The basic objectives would stresss the curriculum as an instrument for inculcating humanistic values, capacity for tolerance, promotion of national integration, scientific attitude and temper and individual capability for learning from the surrounding world".

*The drop-out problem in primary education*

In recent yeass, a number of projects of national importance on development or renewal of primary education curricula and improvement of textbooks and learning materials have been undertaken in India with the primary objective of evolving new educational programmes which could meet the educational needs of children from different sections of the society, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged sections of the society. Prominent among the on-going projects for improvement of curricula and learning materials and are being implemented at the national level are the projects on (i) Primary Education Curriculum Renewal; and (ii) Nutrition/Health Education and Environmental Sanitation.

i) *Project on "Primary Education Curriculum Renewal".* The project "Primary Education Curriculum Renewal" was launched in 1976. The major objectives of the project are to develop new curricula and learning materials relevant to the basic needs and life situations of the children, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged sections of the society, and to increase the meaningfulness of the existing primary education through gradual infusion into the primary school curriculum of new ideas tested in the experimental education programmes. The project also aims at creating within the states or union territories in the country, the necessary competencies among educational planners and workers at different levels, for developing and implementing the curricula, which by its content and methodology would reflect the major socio-economic, geographical and cultural environments.

Initially the project was implemented in ten primary schools in each of the three selected districts in 15 states and union territories. Thus, the pilot phase of the project, which was completed in 1980, covered 450 primary schools in the country.

The new curriculum for grades I-V and instructional materials were developed through the involvement of the teachers of the project schools, teacher educators of Teacher Training Institutes and other experts in the state/union territory, under the supervision of the respective State Institutes of Education and the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SIF/SCERT). The instructional materials include textbooks, guidance materials for teachers, general reading materials and workbooks. The guides developed for the teachers play an important part in helping the teachers to utilise the local environmental resources for the effective education of the

children. By the end of 1980, about 380 titles, serving approximately 170,000 children were published in 15 states and union territories. Under the project a "Minimum Learning Continuum (MLC)", indicating the competencies expected to be attained by a learner at the end of the primary stage of education, has also been developed. The terminal competencies expected to be attained by the end of grade V are in relation to Language, Mathematics, Environmental Studies, Healthy Living, Socially Useful Productive Work and Creative Expression, which are the broad areas of the primary education curriculum. The MLC provides a broad common competency oriented framework which allows ample scope for flexibility for adopting local specific learning situations in the curriculum.

In 1981, in order to increase the impact of the project in the 15 states and union territories already participating in the project, it was decided to introduce the project more widely. At the same time it was also proposed to extend the project to the remaining 16 states and union territories. As a result, the project is now being implemented in about 2,355 primary schools in the country.

An elaborate programme of training of personnel involved in the project at different levels, has been an important component in the implementation of the project. Under the project, a three-tier training strategy is followed. The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) at the national level organises training programmes for key persons from the SIEs/SCERTs in states and union territories. It also provides learning opportunities through mutual exchange of experience in the regional and national level meetings and workshops. At the state/union territory level, the SIE/SCERT organises a series of training programmes for teacher educators of elementary teacher training institutions of the project schools and supervisory staff associated with the schools. At the district level, each elementary teacher training institute organises training and orientation programmes for the teachers of the project schools. The TTIs also closely supervise the implementation of the project in the schools.

The project, assisted by UNICEF, is at present being implemented in 22 states and eight union territories in the country. For smooth implementation of the project, a Primary Curriculum Development Cell (PCDC) has been set up at the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), which is entrusted

with the responsibility for the planning and execution of the project. The PCDC continues to act as the central technical, co-ordinating and monitoring agency, and undertakes the research and development that is necessary for continued curriculum renewal in primary education.

ii) *Project on Nutrition/Health Education and Environmental Sanitation.* The problems of health and nutrition among children have been among the causes of drop-out and wastage at the elementary stage of education in India. Therefore, the Government of India, being concerned with the problems of health and nutrition, especially those related to malnutrition and infectious deseases, has initiated a series of actions to eradicate these problems. It has been realised that one of the causes of malnutrition has been ignorance of good nutrition and hygienic habits among the children.

As part of the measures to combat the problem, the Government of India launched a pilot project on "Nutrition/Health Education and Environmental Sanitation" at the primary stage in the year 1976. The main objectives of the project is to help the primary school teachers to understand and practise the technique of integrating nutrition/health concepts into their teaching of the component subjects of the primary school curriculum. The activities under the project include the preparation, testing and development of packages of instructional material on nutrition and health education and environmental sanitation which are suited to the primary school stage; the preparation, testing and development of instructional material for the training of teachers, teacher educators and teacher trainees in elementary teacher training institutes; and the testing and devising of means by which nutrition/health education could be concurrently imparted to the out-of-school population, especially to women and girls in underprivileged groups such as scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

Under the project, five regional centres were established in five states. Following a detailed survey of local conditions and existing nutritional health and sanitation habits, a curriculum package for primary school pupils and teachers was developed. About 7,500 teachers from 2,650 primary schools were trained under the project, which covered approximately 300,000 children. Since desirable nutrition, health and sanitation practices cannot be developed in isolation from the community in which the children live, a supplementary

programme to reach the community through teachers, children and parents was also developed.

Evaluation of the project has indicated that it has had an impact on the health and nutritional status of the children studying in the schools in which the scheme was implemented. Therefore, the project is now being expanded by setting up nutrition education centres in 12 additional states and two union territories covering about 1,400 primary schools.

The project, assisted by UNICEF, is implemented by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), which acts as the co-ordinating and monitoring agency. At the state level, the Education Department of the state government or a designated agency like SIE/SCERT is responsible for monitoring and co-ordinating the scheme.

b) Experimental projects on the ungraded school system. Frustrations due to failure in examinations and the detention of children in various classes at the primary and middle stages have been contributing to drop-out and wastage at the elementary stage of education. The problem of drop-out due to these are being tackled through the introduction of the ungraded school system, particularly at the primary stage. At present, experimental projects on the ungraded school system are being carried out in some of the states and union territories. The main objectives of these projects are to evolve suitable techniques for retaining all the children enrolled in the primary schools and to alleviate the alarming rate of drop-out, wastage and stagnation.

In the case of the experiments on the ungraded school system, normally grades I and II or grades I and III or even grades I to IV are fused into one class and the child is allowed to progress according to his/her own ability and speed. The learners are given self-learning materials for study. After a lesson is mastered, another lesson is given for study immediately in order to maintain continuity in learning. Gifted children and fast learners are allowed to progress according to their speed of achievement, and they are provided with enrichment material to broaden their learning, while slow learners are given special attention and encouragement to overcome their deficiencies in learning.

In the ungraded school system, there are no annual examinations

and detentions. A child is allowed to continue studies irrespective of his/her performance. Thus, the children experience neither any fear of examinations nor frustration due to failures and detention. However, there is provision for continuous self-evaluation by the pupils themselves. After learning a lesson, pupils evaluate their own performances and are made to correct their own mistakes. The teacher assists the pupils as and when assistance is required by the pupils.

The learning materials for use of the pupils are developed by teachers and experts. Generally, the course of study for a year is divided into convenient units of 30 to 40 self-learning lessons. The lessons are presented sequentially and opportunity is given to repeat the lessons, if necessary.

The evaluation of the experimental projects on the ungraded school system has indicated encouraging signs in terms of reduction in drop-out rate, wastage and stagnation. The experiment, therefore, is being introduced on a wider scale in many of the states and union territories in the country.

c) **Programmes for enhancing the competence of teachers.** There has been a growing recognition of the fact that one of the causes of drop-out and wastage at the elementary stage of education has been the poor quality of teaching, which has been too knowledge oriented, bookish and uninteresting. Therefore, as part of the efforts to improve the quality of elementary education, several measures aimed at enhancing the competence of teachers and for the updating and extensive use of educational techniques for higher efficiency and greater effectiveness of teaching, have been initiated during the past few years. Prominent among these measures are (i) training programmes for in-service teachers; (ii) an experimental project for evolving new techniques to train in-service teachers on a mass scale, and (iii) the revision of the elementary teacher education curriculum.

i) *Training programmes for in-service teachers.* In 1978, among the primary school teachers 13 per cent of teachers were untrained (Table 21). Meghalaya had the highest percentage (81) of untrained teachers, and Assam (34 per cent), Manipur (50 per cent), Nagaland (61 per cent), Sikkim (34 per cent) and Mizoram (39 per cent) had a substantial backlog of untrained primary school teachers. In the case of teachers at the middle stage, 13 per cent of teachers

## Table 21. Percentage of trained teachers at the primary and middle stages (As on September 30, 1978)

| Sl. No. | Stage/Union Territory | Primary Stage | | Middle Stage | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Number of Teachers | Percentage of Trained Teachers | Number of Teachers | Percentage of Trained Teachers |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 98,135 | 97.46 | 35,072 | 94.88 |
| 2. | Assam | 49,218 | 64.93 | 22,570 | 30.48 |
| 3. | Bihar | 137,605 | 92.17 | 48,581 | 93.75 |
| 4. | Gujarat | 63,145 | 96.54 | 57,892 | 97.20 |
| 5. | Haryana | 30,168 | 98.88 | 13,653 | 98.80 |
| 6. | Himachal Pradesh | 14,334 | 97.88 | 8,866 | 96.58 |
| 7. | Jammu & Kashmir | 16,768 | 82.15 | 10,176 | 83.67 |
| 8. | Karnataka | 66,492 | 87.27 | 42,415 | 88.53 |
| 9. | Kerala | 62,114 | 91.41 | 58,547 | 85.78 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 122,823 | 84.56 | 50,151 | 84.96 |
| 11. | Maharashtra | 156,799 | 87.70 | 97,010 | 92.76 |
| 12. | Manipur | 11,658 | 49.24 | 2,396 | 20.74 |
| 13. | Meghalaya | 6,136 | 38.56 | 1,945 | 18.20 |
| 14. | Nagaland | 4,665 | 38.33 | 2,490 | 30.28 |
| 15. | Orissa | 76,419 | 75.50 | 22,254 | 54.66 |
| 16. | Panjab | 49,723 | 97.65 | 25,013 | 97.72 |
| 17. | Rajasthan | 43,840 | 91.97 | 41,864 | 89.81 |
| 18. | Sikkim | 1,517 | 64.53 | 390 | 46.41 |
| 19. | Tamil Nadu | 144,972 | 99.78 | 61,509 | 98.02 |
| 20. | Tripura | 6,342 | 67.75 | 2,716 | 67.12 |
| 21. | Uttar Pradesh | 247,339 | 95.17 | 85,673 | 90.67 |
| 22. | West Benga | 158,343 | 51.10 | 36,283 | 59.38 |
| 23. | A & N Islands | 1,057 | 92.34 | 451 | 91.80 |
| 24. | Arunachal Pradesh | 1,524 | 55.97 | 526 | 56.84 |
| 25. | Chandigarh | 1,068 | 96.54 | 704 | 96.88 |
| 26. | Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 249 | 92.37 | 99 | 91.92 |
| 27. | Delhi | 18,893 | 98.79 | 11,234 | 97.38 |
| 28. | Goa, Daman & Diu | 3,620 | 75.33 | 1,906 | 71.83 |
| 29. | Lakshadweep | 159 | 88.05 | 138 | 90.58 |
| 30. | Mizoram | 1,945 | 60.67 | 1,386 | 36.22 |
| 31. | Pondicherry | 2,111 | 94.60 | 1,028 | 95.53 |
| | All India | 1,599,182 | 86.27 | 744,918 | 86.67 |

*Source:* Fourth All India Educational Survey – NCERT, New Delhi

in the country were untrained. In Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Sikkim, and Mizoram, more than 50 per cent of the teachers at the middle stage were untrained.

In addition to the large number of untrained teachers in primary and middle schools, there are also a sizeable number of underqualified teachers who need upgrading of their academic qualifications. The minimum qualifications prescribed for the primary school teacher is the matriculation or the Secondary School Leaving Certificate which is awarded after ten years of schooling.

In 1978, several steps were initiated for upgrading their academic qualifications. Prominent among them were correspondence-cum-contact courses for in-service teachers and deputation of untrained in-service teachers to undergo full-time institutionalised teacher training courses offered by the recognised elementary teacher training institutes. These have helped in reducing the number of untrained and underqualified teachers in primary and middle schools.

Along with the efforts aimed at clearing the backlog of the untrained and underqualified teachers, a variety of short-term training programmes have also been conducted to update the knowledge of the in-service primary teachers. The main objective of these training courses is to orient the in-service teacher to the current developments in content and methodology of teaching. The duration of these courses vary from three days to four weeks, depending upon the objectives of the training programme. These programmes have enabled a large number of in-service teachers to keep themselves abreast with the recent developments in the content of studies in primary and middle schools and to cope with the challenge of the changing curricula and teaching methodology.

In addition to this, a large number of teachers were also trained under the UNICEF-assisted "Science Education Programme" implemented at the national level by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in collaboration with the State Institute of Education/State Institute of Science Education/State Council of Educational Research and Training in the states and union territories. The Science Education Programme was started in 1967 for the reorganization and expansion of the teaching of science in primary and middle schools. By 1975, almost all the states and union

territories in the country had implemented the programme in their schools under pilot, wider introduction or universalisation phases. The programme involved science curriculum renewal, development of instructional materials, upgrading of elementary teacher training institutes in order to improve pre-service and in-service training in science of teachers, in-service training of teachers and other functionaries and use of the environment and local resources for the purpose of teaching science at the elementary stage. The major achievements of this programme were the experience that it provided in curriculum development and implementation and a change of attitude towards teaching at the primary level. It has now been widely accepted that teaching at the primary level can be made more interesting and effective if it is environment based and centred on the child.

Several agencies in the country are engaged in the organization and implementation of in-service training courses for primary and middle school teachers. At the national level, the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) organizes training courses for key personnel and resource persons engaged in training of in-service teachers at the elementary stage. At the regional level, training courses for resource persons and key persons at the state/union territory level are also organised by the four Regional Colleges of Education which are run by the NCERT and located in the states of Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. These colleges cater to the needs of the four regions – Southern, Western, Eastern and Northern regions. They organise training courses for key persons, teacher educators or teachers on a regional basis or for a particular state in their jurisdiction on specific demands. They also assist NCERT in organizing courses for resource persons engaged in training of in-service primary and middle school teachers.

ii) *Alternative strategy for in-service teacher training.* It has been recognised that under the present system of training teachers through short-term training courses organized every year in each of the states and the union territories in the country, it would take many years before the entire population of primary and middle school teachers in the country could be trained and retrained.

Therefore, attempts have been made to develop an alternative strategy by making use of the mass media for in-service teacher training courses. The in-service teacher training course in science for

primary school teachers, by using a multi-media package developed by the Centre for Educational Technology, National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), represents a major attempt in this direction. The package offered a 12-day teacher training programme simultaneously to 24,000 primary school teachers spread over 2,400 villages in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan covered by the Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE) in the year 1975-76. About 48,000 teachers (about 2.8 per cent of the total number of primary school teachers in the country in 1975) were trained by using the multi-media package during 1975-76.

The use of mass media, especially radio, for training of in-service teachers at the primary and middle stage has also been made in the states of Gujarat and Kerala. In Gujarat a series titled "Teach English", is offered by the Ahmedabad station of the All India Radio.

The different components of the Multi-media package were television programme (22½ minutes); radio programme (20 minutes); activities (two hours); study of enrichment materials (30 minutes); and pre- and post-telecast/broadcast discussions guided by the teacher monitor (one hour). The television programmes were telecast by utilising facilities provided by the SITE. These programmes were designed to demonstrate the new approaches to science teaching. It also provided opportunities for upgrading the teachers' knowledge and understanding of the subject matter. The telecast was preceded by an introductory talk by the teacher monitor, and followed by a general discussion on the content of the programme. The radio programmes were designed to motivate the teachers and to provide enrichment of the content. The programme is broadcast every Saturday between 16.30 hours and 17.00 hours. The series covers all the four skills of the language, i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing, in addition to vocabulary. The series consists of 52 radio lessons, in addition to the support materials which are given to the teachers in advance.

In Kerala, a radio-cum-correspondence course is used for training in-service teachers at the elementary stage covering the subjects of science and regional language (Malayalam). The course has been offered for the last six years. The programme is confined to only those schools which have listening facilities and the teachers

are enrolled on a voluntary basis. The radio broadcasts and correspondence course lessons are supported by the contact programmes conducted at the elementary teacher training institutes. Teachers are evaluated on the basis of their performance on the post tests included in the correspondence course lessons, and tests and quizzes conducted during the contact programmes. The successful teachers are given certificates.

iii) *Revision of the elementary teacher education curriculum.* In India, the programme of professional education of teachers at all levels is under a process of revision in the light of the recommendations made by the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), which was constituted by the Government of India to advise on matters relating to teacher education in the country. The framework of the teacher education curriculum approved by the NCTE, recommended significant changes in the existing teacher education programmes. It highlights the need for flexibility and relevance in the courses in order to relate them to the local needs and conditions.

The recommendations of the NCTE have been followed by attempts to introduce changes in the existing courses of teacher education, both in terms of organization and structure. Thirteen states and three union territories have already revised the curriculum of elementary teacher education. The changes introduced into the elementary teacher education curriculum are expected to make teacher training programmes in tune with the emerging needs of the society, competence-based and task oriented and to improve the quality of teaching in primary and middle schools in the country. This would lead, ultimately, to the qualitative improvement of elementary education resulting in reduction of drop-out rates at the elementary stage of education.

**Measures for retrieving drop-outs**

The existing system of education at the elementary stage could be regarded as a single point entry, sequential and full-time system of institutional instruction by full-time and professional teachers. This system favours only those who can complete the elementary stage successfully and harms the interests of the bulk of children who drop-out at the early stage of elementary education. It is felt that if elementary education is to be made universal, the existing elementary education system should be radically modified by introducing certain

structural changes to make due provision for the education of out-of-school children, including the drop-outs.

In 1974, the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) which is the highest body responsible for decision making and policy making in the field of education in the country recommended the adoption of large scale programmes of part-time education for those children who for various socio-economic constraints failed to take advantage of the schooling facilities.

In recent years, several programmes aimed at meeting the educational needs of the out-of-school children have been initiated in India. Prominent among them are (a) programmes for non-formal and part-time education; and (b) experimental/operational projects for developing alternative approaches to non-formal and part-time education of out-of-school children.

a) **Programmes for non-formal and part-time education.** The basic strategy for the universalisation of elementary education in all the states and union territories consists of expansion and improvement of formal schooling, with provision of schools covering all the habitations in the country, and the provision of a massive programme of non-formal education covering the needs of the out-of-school children and the educationally backward areas in the states and union territories.

The programme of non-formal education covers, in most cases, only children in the age group of 9-14. The age group six to eight years is not included in these programmes mainly because children below nine years of age are not considered to be mature enough to benefit from the programmes of non-formal education and also because of the fact that inclusion of this group could indirectly have an adverse effect on the efforts for universal enrolment of children in the formal schools.

There are three main categories of children covered under the non-formal and part-time education programme. The first category includes children of the weaker sections of the society like the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, those in hilly areas, tribal areas, urban slums and other economically backward rural areas. There are a large number of children among these sections in the age groups who have dropped out at a very early stage of primary education or who have never entered the formal schools. These children are

handicapped mainly in terms of the unsuitability of school timings as they are required to help their family in a variety of work. The non-formal education programmes for these groups of children are to be offered to them at a time and place convenient to them. The curriculum also has to be relevant to their needs.

A suitable pattern of non-formal education for these groups of children is the one followed in the state of Madhya Pradesh. Under this pattern, the entire curriculum of five years of primary stage is condensed into a two-year curriculum based on 18 graded units. The timing of the non-formal education centres, teaching methods, building requirements and admission rules have been made simple and more flexible. This enables the child to learn, and yet simultaneously earn his living or help his parents in their jobs. After passing the examination of grade V the child would enter the formal school in grade VI.

The second category of children proposed to be covered under the non-formal education programmes include girls in the age group 6-14 who are not attracted by the existing programme of education being offered by the formal elementary school. For these girls it is proposed to offer either the courses similar to the one designed for the first category, or more functional courses which would help them to cope with their life situations with a sense of responsibility and awareness of the jobs they have to handle.

The third category includes children who are engaged in traditional professions like carpet weaving, pottery, etc. These children need to be provided with part-time education which would focus on literacy, numeracy, and citizenship training, along with instruction about the crafts in which they are engaged in, and in intrepreneurship and marketing of products, so that such children acquire not only literacy but also economic and social understanding of the craft in which they are engaged.

Most of the non-formal education programmes being implemented in the country are experimental in nature. Prominent among the experimental projects for non-formal education of out-of-school children are (i) Experimental Projects – for Non-formal Education for Children of 9-14 Age Group for Universalization of Elementary Education sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Government of India; and (ii) Experimental Non-formal Education

Programme being implemented by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT).

*i) Experimental non-formal education projects for children of 9-14 years.* The main objectives of the experimental projects for non-formal education are: to help the educationally backward states, viz., Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal in developing and implementing programmes of non-formal education for children in the age group 9-14 so as to enable them to cover the huge size of non-enrolled and non-attending children under the school system; to help these states in developing institutional structure at various levels, not only for quantitative expansion, but also for the improvement of the quality of education; to help the states in developing group-specific and local-specific curricula and instructional materials so that education at the elementary level is more meaningful and relevant to the life situations and needs of the children; and to help the states in improving the competence of teachers at the elementary level even in the remotest areas of the country.

The projects were started in the last quarter of 1979-80.

Under the project, during the period 1980-85 it is proposed to set up a total of 120,905 non-formal education centres in the educationally backward states. The total number of non-formal education centres set up till 1981-82 were 51,712, covering about 1,150,000 of children in the age group 9-14. The proposed coverage of children during the period 1980-85 is 3,480,000.

The non-formal education centres are located mostly in the primary or middle schools, or local panchayat office, or any accommodation provided by the community. The expenditure towards remuneration of teachers and some equipment like blackboard, maps, charts, lighting facilities, etc., are provided by the states. In order to implement the programme of non-formal education smoothly in the states, funds are also provided to strengthen the State Directorates of Education, State Institutes of Education, State Councils of Education Research and Training Teacher Training Institutes and supervisory machinery at the district and block levels. The entire work for both the formal and non-formal channels is carried out through the same administrative structure since the programmes are

complementary and in the long run expected to support, strengthen and enrich each other.

The academic aspects of non-formal education programme for the nine educationally backward states consist of preparation of prototype and group-specific learning/instructional materials and training of personnel at various levels including teacher educators, supervisors, and teachers of non-formal education centres.

In addition to the non-formal education programmes being implemented in nine educationally backward states, programmes of non-formal education for children in the age group 9-14 are also implemented in several other states and union territories.

In the non-formal educational programme, the association of voluntary agencies has been considered desirable. Therefore, under the main centrally sponsored schemes, two sub-schemes have been formulated and put into operation. These sub-schemes are assistance to voluntary agencies in the nine educationally backward states for running non-formal education centres according to the state government pattern; and assistance to the academic institutions, both governmental and private in any state/union territory of the country, for undertaking new and experimental projects on non-formal education, with potential for replicability.

In addition to the experimental projects on non-formal education of children in the age group 9-14, the Government of India is providing assistance in terms of printing paper to the states and union territories for production of textbooks and other literature for non-formal education programmes.

ii) *NCERT experimental programme.* The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) has also been organizing non-formal education programmes on an experimental basis, through its constituent units, all over the country. Under the programme, NCERT is running 228 non-formal education centres in 15 states.

The curriculum for the non-formal education programme is built around six major areas of study: health, vocation, physical and social environment, social awareness, literacy and numeracy. The curriculum is designed in such a way that it would enable the children to attain in about two years the competencies attained by a child in the formal primary school after five years of education.

**b) Alternative approaches in non-formal education.** Prominent among the new projects being implemented at the national level are the UNICEF-assisted projects titled "Developmental Activities in Community Education and Participation (DACEP)" and "Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE)". Another new project in the field of non-formal education is the "Action Research Project on Non-formal Education for Out-of-School Rural Children", being implemented by the Indian Institute of Education, Pune.

i) *Developmental Activities Community Education and Participation (DACEP).* In recent years there has been a growing realization among educational planners and workers at different levels, that one of the approaches to extending the opportunity for education to the drop-outs and other out-of-school children and youth, is a system based on and sustained and supported by the community. The UNICEF-assisted project "Developmental Activities in Community Education and Participation" is an attempt to develop such a system of non-formal education.

The specific objectives of the project are to develop and test new types of educational activities as feasible means of meeting the minimum educational needs of large groups that are partially or totally deprived of any form of education, to increase the participation of the community in formal and non-formal education and to raise the general level of literacy, especially among women and girls. The approach followed under the project, is based on the premise that children's education to be meaningful, has to proceed concurrently with gradual changes and modifications of their socio-economic environment. The objectives of the project are expected to be attained through developing suitable educational programmes to cater to the specific needs of pre-school and drop-outs and out-of-school children, young girls and women in selected communities; imparting useful and relevant skills to members of the community outside the formal system of education; enabling the schools to play a more effective role in promoting social change within the community by removing the dichotomy between the primary school and the community; and making use, for educational purposes, of the resources of various agencies existing with the communities.

The project was initially implemented in 13 states and two union territories during the year 1976 on an experimental basis. In 1976, two community education centres were established in each

of the states and union territories participating in the project. In order to develop need-based educational activities and programmes for the various age groups in the selected communities, a survey of the socio-economic conditions was made. The development of instructional materials was decentralized, and was carried out with the active participation of the local community and teachers.

The project supports the country's programme of universalisation of elementary education. Under the project, the drop-outs and other out-of-school children are helped through non-formal education to re-enter the formal education system.

ii) *Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE).* The UNICEF-assisted Project "Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE)" is a part of the effort to meet the minimum educational needs of a large number of children hitherto unreached, and to achieve the target of enrolling out-of-school children in the age group 6-14 in part-time non-formal education.

The specific objectives of the project are:

- to develop a non-formal system of education as an alternative to formal schooling and to increase the number of children, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged sections of the society, participating in non-formal education activities; and
- to evolve flexible, work-based decentralised curricula and learning materials relevant to the needs and life situations of diverse groups of children not only for non-formal, but also for formal channels of education.

These objectives will be achieved by the following means:

- Developing and trying out relevance-based, problem-centred learning materials (learning episodes) in sufficient quantity and variety to cater to the needs of children in the age group 9-14.
- Introducing into the curriculum of elementary teacher training institutes or into the in-service education programme of primary school teachers, a training-cum-production mode for providing experience of developing curriculum materials and generating a source of learning materials (learning episodes) for the education of out-of-school children.

- Developing non-formal learning centres which will provide accredited education to those children in the target group.
- Developing evaluation centres and accreditation services for the evaluation and certification of learners enrolled in non-formal learning centres.

Under the Project, a list of critical competencies and learning continua, derived from the learning episodes, which themselves are derived from significant real-life local specific problems and issues, will be developed. This would act as a rational basis for accreditation of learners in terms of the minimum competencies to be acquired at the mastery level by learners at different stages of elementary education. The list of critical competencies would also provide guidelines for the development of additional learning episodes.

Associated with the development of the list of critical competencies, is the development of a bank of test items and evaluation centres which would be established at the State/UT level to begin with, and later on decentralised to the district and the block levels. These would become the bases for decentralised accreditation services leading to the development of an open learning system.

Project CAPE supports the efforts to improve the quality of elementary teacher education programme, since at the level of the elementary teacher training institutions, the implementation of the project is related to some of the significant reforms proposed to be introduced in elementary teacher education. The development of learning episodes, particularly for the out-of-school children by the teacher trainees, through the introduction of a training-cum-production mode at the elementary teacher education institutions, would form the basis of a functional and task-oriented elementary teacher education. Under the training-cum-production mode the teacher trainees are required to visit localities of disadvantaged populations to identify real-life problems and develop and try-out learning episodes for use by children in the age group of 9-14.

The training-cum-production mode would make the training processes in elementary teacher training institutions more practical and responsive to the needs and problems of different groups of learners. It would establish radical and permanent changes in the training processes in elementary teacher training institutions and would lend itself to the implementation, throughout India, of the

reforms in elementary teacher education as recommended by the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) and elaborated in its document "Teacher Education Curriculum – A Framework" which envisaged teacher education to be functional and task oriented and the teacher as an agent of social change.

The expected outcomes of the project are as follows:

- a large number of tried-out locally relevant learning materials (learning episodes);
- establishment of a designed infrastructure for decentralised curriculum development for non-formal education of children;
- A list of critical competencies and learning continua;
- Establishment of a designed network of non-formal learning centres for education of out-of-school children in the age group of 9-14, with data available on the planning, development, management and other aspects of such centres;
- A direct contribution to the efforts aimed at achieving the goal of universal elementary education through enrolment of learners from disadvantaged populations in the learning centres attached to the elementary teacher institutes/in-service teacher training centres in the country;
- Improvement of the quality and relevance of elementary education by making available a large number of teacher educators of TTIs and teachers at the elementary education level trained in the development of relevance-based learning materials and trained to use environmental resources in developing appropriate teaching strategies for a variety of learners;
- Establishment of a network of evaluation/accreditation centres for evaluation and accreditation of learners enrolled in non-formal learning centres, leading to the development of an Open Learning System;
- Establishment of a network of Decentralised Resource Centres with data available on management and other aspects of setting up and running such centres;
- Availability of a large number of district and block level Education Officers trained in the planning and

management aspects of elementary education with special reference to the implementation of the programmes for universalisation of elementary education;

- Establishment of mechanisms for interaction between educational agencies and developmental agencies at the state, district, block and village level by establishing linkages between educational programmes and programmes of developmental agencies involved in work related to health, agriculture, small scale industries, etc., and
- Establishment of a designed mechanisms for continuous and comprehensive monitoring and evaluation of non-formal education programmes in the country.

The project was initiated in 1979 and is implemented in 22 states and seven union territories in the country. About 984 elementary Teacher Training Institutes (TTIs)/In-service Teacher Training Centres (ITTCs) in the country are involved in the implementation. In all the states and union territories, the activities related to the first phase of the project have been in progress. Under the project, a series of training programme for training the staff of SIEs/SCERTs and for training teacher educators and Education Officers have been conducted during the past two years. Up to December 1981, 839 Principals of TTIs/ITTCs were oriented to the academic and administrative aspects of the project. 4,727 teacher educators/teachers were trained on the methodology of developing learning episodes, while 1,483 teacher educators were trained on the methodology of processing of learning episodes. Under the project, 14 states and three union territories have revised the elementary teacher education curriculum as recommended by the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) and 13 states and seven union territories have introduced the training-cum-production mode in TTIs for development of learning episodes. By December 1981, about 1,600 education officers were oriented to the planning and management aspects of the project. About 13,000 draft learning episodes (in the form of modules and capsules) were developed by teacher educators and teacher trainees of TTIs/ITTCs and teachers up to December 1981. Out of these 4,000 modules have been screened and selected for further processing and about 300 modules have already been processed for publication.

In addition to the training of teacher educators and Education Officers, about 130 project team members based at the SIEs/SCERTs

were trained on the different aspects of the project. About 45 resource persons were also trained for organizing training courses for Education Officers at the district and block levels in the states and union territories participating in the project.

iii) *Non-formal Education for Out-of-School Rural Children.* Another new project being implemented for developing appropriate non-formal education strategy for out-of-school children is an "Action Research Project on Non-formal Education for Out-of-School Rural Children" undertaken by the Indian Institute of Education, Pune, in the State of Maharashtra. This project initiated in the year 1979, seeks to enroll out-of-school children in the age group 9-14 in part-time evening classes. The major activities initiated under the project include development of curricula suited to the culture, circumstances, environment and needs of the learners and the community, development of effective low cost teaching materials which could give scope for individual as well as group learning in ungraded classes; and development of appropriate strategies for training of teachers for non-formal and formal primary education, and training of supervisors.

The core curriculum developed under the project covers literacy, numeracy and general information (covering historical, geographical, scientific and cultural information) meaningfully related to the people's environment and future growth as skillful and knowledgeable citizens. In addition, songs, stories and games form part of total learning. The learners are also encouraged to engage in traditional activities such as drawing and handicrafts in their leisure time.

The part-time classes under the project are organised in such a way that, if needed, it is possible to close down for a while during the rainy season or seasons with important agricultural operation. Roughly, a class is expected to meet for about 300 days in a year and about two hours a day. The curriculum is designed in such a way that learning up to the level of grade IV could be completed in about two years.

At present, the action research project has restricted itself to the education of illiterate children in the age group 9-14. The total project covers five different areas of Pune District, selected with a view to replication or adaptation of the project experience in similar areas in the State of Maharashtra and elsewhere. The population of each area is about 30,000. The number of villages in the five

areas taken together is 100. it is expected that, in all 400 evening classes, staggered in four batches during the year 1980, 1981, 1982 and 1983 will be required for a coverage of 9-14 age group in these areas. The project is supported by UNICEF, Ministry of Education, Government of India, and the State Government of Maharashtra. Community involvement consists of provision of accommodation for the classes and certain equipment.

**Summary and conclusions**

The major causes of the problem of drop-out and wastage at the elementary stage of education in India have been socio-economic and educational. Socio-economic causes are being tackled by introducing multiple-point entry in the formal system, and starting non-formal and part-time education for those who cannot take advantage of the formal system of education. The socio-economic causes are also tackled by providing incentives like free mid-day meals, free textbooks, free stationery and free uniforms to the children. The educational causes are tackled by bringing about qualitative improvement in education through renewal of curricula, reduction of instructional hours, introduction of Socially Useful Productive Work, improvement of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials, teacher improvement, introduction of play-way techniques and ungraded system particularly in grades I-II, provision of adequate equipment and suitable buildings for schools, especially with the support of the community as well as by designing inexpensive and functional school buildings, and improvement of supervision including the adoption of school complexes and school communities at the village level.

However, in spite of these efforts, the problem of drop-out and wastage continues to plague the education system in India. The enrolment of drop-outs under the non-formal and part-time education programmes meant for children in the age group 9-14 has not been adequate in terms of the targets envisaged. The participation of girls in these programmes also has not been satisfactory. Therefore, it is necessary to enlarge the efforts for retrieving the drop-outs, especially girls back into the education system, both formal and non-formal.

At present there is a great emphasis on the coverage of the age group 9-11 years under the programmes of non-formal and part-time education While making efforts to expand the facilities for

non-formal education for children in the age group 9-11, it is also necessary to enlarge the scope of these programmes to cover children in the age group 11-14 which comprises the large proportion of drop-outs at the elementary stage.

The limitations of available resources have compelled the educational planners to restrict expenditure on programmes aimed at preventing drop-outs at the primary and middle stages and retrieving the drop-outs back into the education system. This has often resulted in limitations with regard to the success and achievement of these programmes. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the allocation of funds for these programmes, and, if necessary, alternative sources of resources need to be explored.

## PENINSULAR MALAYSIA

*by Lee Meow Fatt*

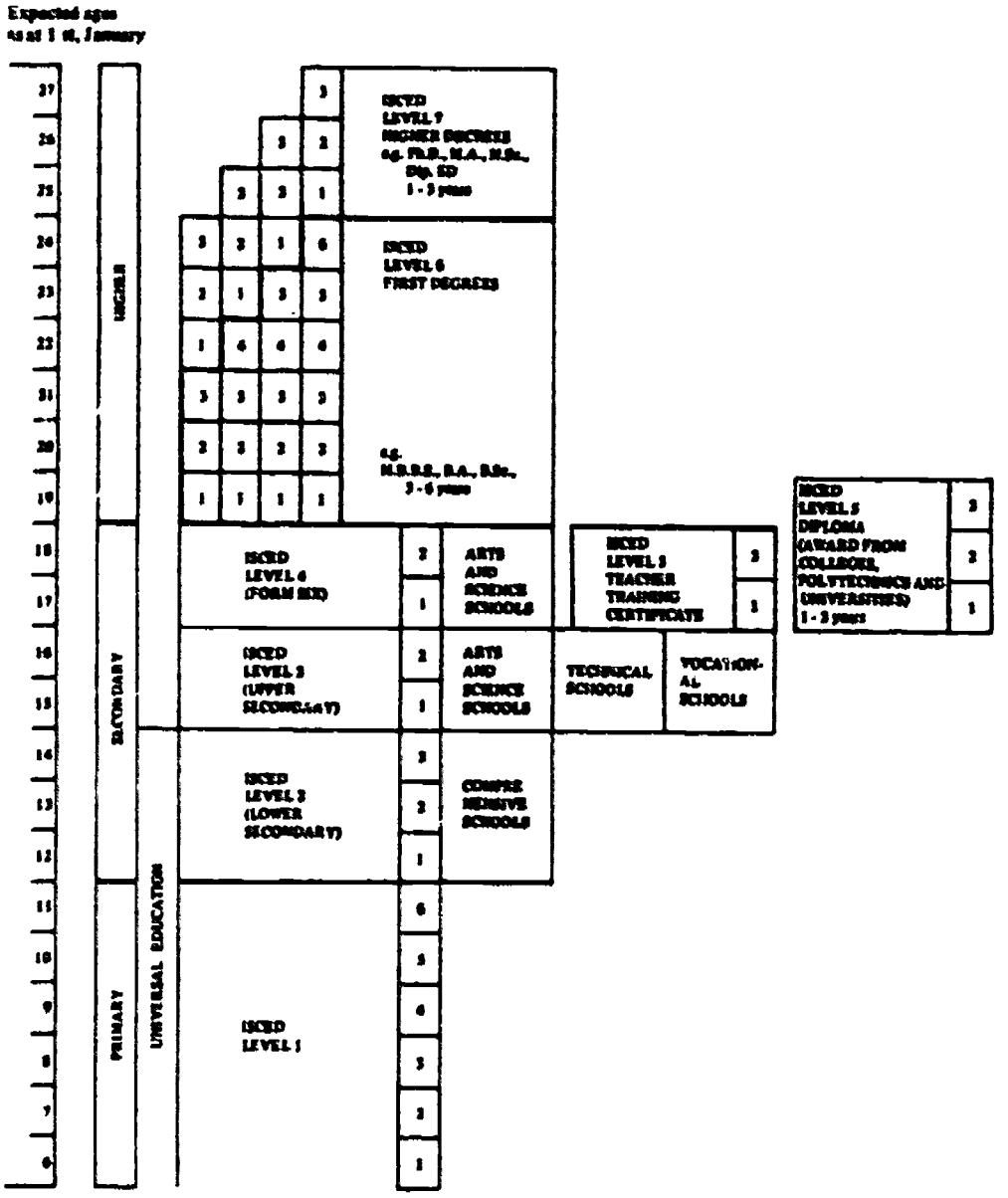
### The structure of formal education

Basic education is universal, but not compulsory in Peninsular Malaysia. In the 1950s, while the enrolment ratio at the primary level (grades I to VI) had been high at 90 per cent, only about 35 per cent of grade VI pupils were selected for admission into fully assisted secondary schools. A smaller number of the grade VI pupils enrolled at private secondary schools, and the rest dropped out of the education system. Primary education in all national primary schools (Bahasa Malaysia medium) had been free. In 1962, free primary education was extended to all pupils in fully assisted primary schools which were conducted in four media, namely; Bahasa Malaysia, English[1], Chinese and Tamil in accordance with the recommendations of the Rahman Talib Report 1960.

Since 1962, a certain number of grade VI pupils were also selected for admission into the Secondary Continuation School System (SCSS). An education committee was appointed in April 1963 to review the SCSS and the Malayan Secondary School Entrance Examination (MSSEE). The recommendations of the Education Committee 1963 to abolish the MSSEE and to integrate pupils of the SCSS into the regular secondary school system, were approved by the Malaysian Cabinet on March 1964. Thus since 1965, there has been universal basic education for nine years, comprising six years of primary education and three years of secondary comprehensive education, in fully assisted schools. Figure I shows the education structure in Peninsular Malaysia.

Besides fully assisted primary and secondary schools in Peninsular Malaysia, there are also a small number of private primary and secondary schools. The courses of study and curricula in such schools are similar to those offered in fully assisted schools, but for several reasons they have preferred to decline government assistance

[1] Since 1970, the English medium stream had been systematically and progressively absorbed into the national stream, where Bahasa Malaysia is the main medium of instruction.




ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education)

**Figure 1. Structure of formal education**

in order to maintain their independent or private status. They cater to only a small percentage of the school-going children within the age group 6+ to 14+ years. For example, in 1967, only 0.5% (8,334) of children between 6+ to 11+ years were enrolled in private primary schools and 3.9% (25,698) of children between 12+ to 14+ years were enrolled in private lower secondary schools. Their share in the total enrolment or participation is now practically negligible. For the purpose of this report, only data from fully assisted schools are analysed, and primary and secondary schools refer to those in fully assisted schools.

Despite the fact that primary education is free and there is provision for a place in fully assisted schools for every child between 6+ to 14+ years of age, there has been a significant number of school drop-outs. Drop-out in this report refers to the problem of children, within the age-group of 6+ to 14+ years of age, withdrawing from school before completing the nine years basic cycle of schooling. Drop-out is a common feature of education systems in developing countries, and represents one of the major causes of their inefficiency. It is not entirely an educational problem, but a manifestation of a number of factors operating in a complex socio-cultural, economic and political context. As such, it is not static but dynamic, and changes both in magnitude and character, as situations vary. The conception of the problem and the measures taken to overcome it, reflect the attitudes of the Government and the people and the degree of their commitment to solving it. The drop-out problem in Peninsular Malaysia can only be fully appreciated in that context. Thus, it is necessary to take into consideration the thinking and the underlying rationale for educational development as an integral component of national developmental efforts in Peninsular Malaysia.

**Educational development.** The administration of education in Peninsular Malaysia during the pre-independence period is an example of the colonial policy of 'divide and rule'. As a consequence of this policy, education was provided in four language media, namely: English, Malay, Chinese and Tamil in four somewhat parallel school systems although serving different purposes. Except for the Malay schools which were indigenous, the others were actually foreign models transplanted into the country. Education in the English medium schools produced the lower echelon personnel for the colonial administrative service and the private sector. Malay primary education laid stress on gardening, arts and crafts, besides the basic

3Rs. Chinese and Tamil education had an alien orientation, but served the needs of a transient immigrant population who had no stake in the country.

The most succinct statement of colonial policy to native education was given by Sir George Maxwell:[2]

> The aim of the government is not to turn out a few well-educated youths, nor yet numbers of less well-educated boys; rather it is to improve the bulk of the people and to make the son of the fisherman or peasant a more intelligent fisherman or peasant than his father had been, and a man whose education will enable him to understand how his own lot of life fits in with the scheme of life around him.

Post war political developments in the Region and the emergence of nationalism brought into focus the complexity of problems concerning education. Educational reconstruction during this period was chiefly aimed at unifying the main community groups through a national system of education in preparation for nationhood and independence which was achieved on 31st August, 1957. The task went through several stages and culminated in the appointment of an Education Committee in 1956, with the following terms of reference:

a) To examine the present education 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 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;

b) For this purpose, to examine the educational structure of the country including such provisions of the Education Ordinance, 1952 as may require alterations or adaptations and the measures for its implementation contained in Council Paper on Education No. 67 of 1954.

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2 Official Reports on Education in Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States 1870 – 1939.

Francis H.K. Wong & Gwee Yee Hean Pan Pacific Book Distributors (S) Pte. Ltd. p.2.

The Report of the Education Committee 1956, commonly referred to as the Razak Report, made a total of 17 recommendations whilst taking into consideration that the ultimate objective was to establish a national system of education for all using the national language as the main medium of instruction.

Among the more important proposals were:

a) Establishment of two kinds of schools only – independent or assisted primary schools and independent or direct grant secondary schools.

b) Conversion of existing primary schools to Standard Schools (Malay Medium) and Standard-Type Schools (Chinese, Tamil or English medium).

c) Malay and English to be compulsory subjects for all primary and secondary schools.

d) Establishment of one type of National Secondary School open to all races by competitive selection and with a common syllabus, a flexible curriculum permitting the study of all Malayan languages and cultures and room for diversity in the media of instruction.

e) Orientation of all schools to a Malayan outlook by the introduction of common content syllabuses and timetables for schools.

f) Measures for fostering the development of the national language and promoting a better knowledge of it among all who live in the Federation.

The underlying principles and proposals of this report, which were duly enacted as the Education Ordinance 1957, laid the foundations of the National Education Policy.

The implementation of the national education policy was reviewed in 1960 by another Education Committee, commonly referred to as the Rahman Talib Committee, which confirmed the soundness of the policy and its general acceptance by the various community groups. The Education Act 1961, incorporated the spirit and the underlying principles of the two Education Committee Reports and the existing national education policy formally came into being.

While the recommendations of the Education Committee 1956 set the pattern and structure of the national education system, the recommendations of the Education Review Committee 1960 had an important bearing on educational development in the 1960s. Among the more important were the following:

a) Universal free primary education up to grade VI;

b) Automatic promotion up to grade IX;

c) Common content syllabuses for all schools;

d) Common assessment examination at grade V;

e) Improvement of Vernacular Primary Schools;

f) Enhancement of technical and vocational education;

g) Control of primary education;

h) Setting up of the Federal Inspectorate;

i) Introduction of Bahasa Malaysia as the main medium of instruction in secondary schools;

j) Official language medium for public examinations;

k) Expansion of teacher training programmes; and

l) Provision of religious and moral instruction.

Besides the above provisions, secondary education was also made 'comprehensive' by the introduction of pre-vocational studies. This change was made in the light of developments in educational thinking, which emphasized the need to provide a form of education that would enable the pupils to discover their attitudes and later develop their real interests and skills as preparation for productive and gainful participation in society.

The proclamation of Rukunegara as the National Ideology, and of the New Economic Policy in 1970 was another important milestone in the history of educational development in Malaysia. While the national education policy laid the foundations for national unity and nation-building, the invidious effects of past colonial practices necessitated the introduction of a more positive strategy, taking into consideration the social, economic and political realities. The important aims underlying the Rukunegara are:

a) united nation of a plural society;

b) a democratic society through a constitutionally elected

parliament;

c) a just society of equal opportunities for all;

d) a liberal society of diverse cultural traditions; and

e) a progressive society oriented towards science and modern technology.

The New Economic Policy (NEP) is the strategy towards achieving the desired goals of Rukunegara. It seeks to eradicate poverty among all Malaysians, irrespective of racial origins, and to restructure Malaysian society so that the identification of race with economic function and geographical location is reduced, and eventually eliminated. The NEP and the systematic implementation of the national language policy, besides other considerations, have been the main guiding principles of educational planning and development in the 1970s.

The last twenty years has been a period of intense and rapid educational development in Peninsular Malaysia in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Many problems have emerged to beset the development process. Among them is educational wastage or drop-out at the first and second levels of education, which tends to undermine the efficiency of the system. Despite these problems, educational development advanced unabated. Enrolments at the different levels have registered manifold increases, and qualitative improvements have been pervasive. These include curriculum development, teacher education, planning and management, besides the provision of additional support services and the introduction of numerous educational innovations. These advances, besides indicating indirectly how problems have been tackled and solved as they arose, also reflect the degree of commitment of both the Government and the people to solving them.

Educational development is a continuous effort and the appointment of the Cabinet Committee (1974) to review the implementation of the education policy was another example of the Government's effort to improve the quality of education. The Cabinet Committee's terms of reference were to review to what extent the implementation of the policy has fostered national unity and met national manpower needs. The Committee recommended a total of 173 proposals which are aimed at rendering education more relevant, suitable and effective to meet social and national aspirations. These proposals, in the area of curriculum schooling

system, teacher education, supporting services, evaluation, facilities, and technical as well as vocational education, together with the New Economic Policy, will form the main thrust of educational development in the 1980s.

### The drop-out problem, magnitude and trend

**Enrolment and percentage participation.** In 1967 the enrolment in primary schools totalled 1,315,590 out of a projected population of 1,450,543, thus giving an overall participation rate of 90.6 per cent. This participation rate or enrolment ratio steadily increased to 95.9 per cent by 1979. There was a temporary reversal in the general trend of increase in 1970 when there was a slight temporary reaction to the declaration of the systematic implementation of the Bahasa Malaysia Policy 1967, which made provision for the progressive replacement of English as a medium of instruction by Bahasa Malaysia in English medium primary schools. This caused some parents who normally would have sent their children to fully assisted primary schools, to send them to private primary schools where the medium of instruction was still in English.

While the overall participation rate is generally high, there is a discrepancy in participation between sexes. In 1967, the participation rate for primary schools boys was 94.9 per cent while only 87.2 per cent of girls within the same age-cohort were enrolled, giving a difference of 6.8 per cent. Since then, the gap has been gradually narrowed, until by 1975, it was only 2.3 per cent. Although there is no published data on participation rates by sexes after 1975, indications tend to suggest that the gap is gradually reducing. Table 1 shows the enrolment ratio/percentage participation of children (6+ to 11+) in primary schools from 1967 to 1980.

Within the same period, the percentage participation of children between 12+ to 14+ years in the lower secondary schools programme, has shown a greater percentage increase. In 1967, 344,364 or 51.7 per cent of children within this age cohort were enrolled. This rose to 85.0 per cent in 1980, making an increase of 33.3 percentage points, compared to an increase of 3.6 percentage points for the primary enrolment within the same period. This, in part, is mainly due to the high participation rates of children in the primary schools in the past, and the restrictive selection policy for secondary education enforced before 1965. There was also a

**Table 1. Enrolment ratio or percentage participation of children in primary schools – Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Year* | *Male & Female (1)* | *Male (2)* | *Female (3)* | *% Difference (2 - 3)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1967 | 90.6 | 94.0 | 87.2 | 6.8 |
| 1968 | 91.7 | 94.7 | 88.7 | 6.0 |
| 1970 | 88.2 | 91.6 | 84.8 | 6.8 |
| 1972 | 91.6 | 94.0 | 89.1 | 4.9 |
| 1974 | 93.7 | 95.1 | 92.3 | 2.8 |
| 1975 | 95.6 | 97.2 | 94.9 | 2.3 |
| 1976 | 97.0 | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1978 | 97.3 | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1980 | 94.2 | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |

*Source:* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1937 to 1980.

**Table 2. Enrolment ratio or percentage participation of children in lower secondary schools – Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Year* | *Male & Female* | *Male* | *Female* | *% Difference* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1967 | 51.7 | 61.5 | 41.7 | 19.8 |
| 1968 | 53.8 | 63.3 | 44.1 | 19.2 |
| 1970 | 52.2 | 60.6 | 43.6 | 17.0 |
| 1972 | 60.8 | 69.4 | 51.9 | 17.5 |
| 1974 | 63.5 | 69.5 | 57.3 | 12.2 |
| 1975 | 66.8 | 72.3 | 61.0 | 11.3 |
| 1976 | 70.9 | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1978 | 78.4 | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1980 | 85.0 | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |

*Source:* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1967 to 1980.

temporary reversal in the upward trend of the percentage participation in 1970 for reasons explained above. Table 2 shows the enrolment ratio or percentage participation of children (12+ to 14+) in lower secondary schools from 1967 to 1980.

The greater percentage increase of lower secondary school enrolment vis-a-vis the primary school enrolment, is also characterized by a greater percentage gain by females. In 1967, 61.5 per cent males and 41.7 per cent females of 12+ to 14+ years were enrolled in lower secondary schools. In 1975, the corresponding percentage participation were 72.3 per cent and 61.0 per cent. While the males gained 10.8 percentage points, or 17.6 per cent increase, the females gained 19.3 percentage points or a massive 46.3 per cent overall increase within the same period. Thus the gap in percentage participation between sexes for lower secondary schools is being gradually and progressively narrowed.

While Tables 1 and 2 show satisfactory gains in percentage participation, especially for enrolment in lower secondary level and for female children, there are indications of significant wastage or drop-out between the primary and the secondary levels of education. Although the percentage participation in the lower secondary level has improved tremendously from a low 51.7 per cent in 1967 to around 85.0 per cent in 1980, there is still a considerable difference between percentage participation for the two levels of education. This difference represents the drop-out during the transition between the primary and the secondary levels of education.

**Continuation rates.** Another indicator of the drop-out problem is the continuation rate. Table 3 shows the continuation rates for primary school children as they advanced from grades I to VI for 1969 to 1980. While the drop-out rate is generally small, a marginally greater number of pupils appear to drop out at grades V to VI especially for 1969 to 1971. A probable reason may be because a national test on achievement is conducted for grade V pupils. Those who have performed poorly in this test may be expected to be more inclined towards withdrawing prematurely from school.

The average drop-out rate ranged from 3.7 per cent per annum in 1969 to 0.6 per cent per annum in 1980. The data shows that the problem of drop-out at the primary level is not very serious and conditions are improving. It also means that about 88 per cent of children (6+) enrolled at grade I for the years 1967, 1968 and 1969 were still in school in the sixth year and 17 per cent had dropped out before the age of twelve. Translated into absolute figures, the number is significantly large. For example, in 1967, 248,444 children (6+) were enrolled at grade I. In 1972, 214,279

were still enrolled at grade VI. Thus 34,165 children (11+ years) had dropped out of the school system.

**Table 3. Continuation rates in the primary schools of children (6+ to 11+) from grades II to VI – Peninsular Malaysia 1969 to 1980**

| *Year* | *Grade I-II* | *Grade II-III* | *Grade III-IV* | *Grade IV-V* | *Grade V-VI* | *Average (grades I-VI)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1969 | 98.5 | 98.1 | 96.6 | 95.9 | 92.4 | 96.3 |
| 1971 | 99.2 | 97.6 | 97.9 | 96.8 | 95.2 | 97.3 |
| 1973 | 98.2 | 98.4 | 98.7 | 98.5 | 97.5 | 98.3 |
| 1975 | 100.0 | 99.4 | 99.1 | 99.1 | 98.6 | 99.2 |
| 1977 | 99.1 | 99.6 | 99.3 | 98.9 | 98.3 | 99.0 |
| 1979 | 99.1 | 99.4 | 98.8 | 99.0 | 99.8 | 99.2 |
| 1980 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 99.3 | 99.4 | 98.5 | 99.4 |

*Source:* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1937 to 1980

**Table 4. Transition and continuation rates in the secondary schools of children (12+ to 14+) from grades VII to IX – Peninsular Malaysia.**

| *Year* | *Primary to Lower Secondary (1)* | *Grade VII-VIII (2)* | *Grade VIII-IX (3)* | *Average (4)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1969 | 62.1 | 91.6 | 92.4 | 92.0 |
| 1971 | 65.3 | 94.6 | 95.8 | 95.2 |
| 1973 | 73.0 | 95.5 | 96.2 | 95.6 |
| 1975 | 81.6 | 96.5 | 97.0 | 96.7 |
| 1977 | 78.9 | 95.6 | 97.5 | 96.6 |
| 1979 | 83.1 | 95.8 | 96.9 | 96.8 |
| 1980 | 81.3 | 95.1 | 96.7 | 95.9 |

Table 4 shows the continuation rates for children (12+ to 14+ years) in the lower secondary schools from 1969 to 1980. The drop-out rates at the lower secondary level, although small, are significantly higher than the drop-out rates at the primary level. They ranged from a high 8.0 per cent per annum in 1969 to 3.2 per cent in 1979.

As at the primary level, the situation has improved considerably and the drop-out rate now hovers around 3 per cent per annum.

A more serious problem exists during the transition between the primary and the secondary levels of education. Only 62.1 per cent of children enrolled at Grade VI in 1968 were enrolled at grade VII in 1969. This represents a drop-out rate of 37.9 per cent for children 11+ years for that year. This adverse situation, as in participation and continuation rates, has also improved, so that the transition rate between the primary and the secondary levels of education in 1979 was 83.1 per cent. Even then, a drop-out rate of 16.9 per cent at this stage of the children's education represents a significant amount of wastage as well as inefficiency because lower secondary education in 1979 was not only universal but free.

It is generally held that in developing countries, the percentage participation of girls compared to boys would be lower. Conversely their drop-out rate would also be higher. Among the more important factors often cited are social, cultural and economic values which often discriminate the girls from the boys. Tables 1 and 2 appear to support the view that proportionately more boys are enrolled in schools. While the difference is small in the primary school, an average of 4.8 per cent difference between 1967 to 1975, it is more serious at the lower secondary level, where the average difference is 16.4 per cent for the same period. This difference in percentage participation is gradually being narrowed, especially at the lower secondary level, which had decreased from 19.8 per cent in 1967 to 11.3 per cent in 1975.

Tables 5 and 6 show the average continuation rates of children by sex in the primary and lower secondary schools from 1967 to 1975. While it is generally true that proportionately more girls drop-out of the primary school, the difference is very small and is also gradually diminishing. For example, the mean difference for the period 1967 to 1975 is only 1.3 per cent and in 1974 it was only 0.1 per cent.

At the lower secondary level the picture is a little more complex. During the transition between the primary and the lower secondary levels of education, more girls tended to drop-out. The difference between the average continuation rate during the transition for the same period is 9.8 per cent. It is pertinent to note that like percentage participation, the gap appears to be narrowing, but

**Table 5. Average continuation rates by sex of children in the primary schools from 1968 to 1975 – Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Year* | *Average per year from Grades I to VI* | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Boys* | *Girls* | *Difference* |
| 1968 | 97.7 | 96.0 | 1.7 |
| 1969 | 97.3 | 95.2 | 2.1 |
| 1970 | 98.2 | 94.6 | 3.6 |
| 1971 | 97.4 | 97.2 | 0.2 |
| 1972 | 98.7 | 97.1 | 1.6 |
| 1973 | 98.2 | 98.0 | 0.2 |
| 1974 | 98.5 | 98.4 | 0.1 |
| 1975 | 99.6 | 98.9 | 0.7 |
| | 98.2 | 96.9 | 1.3 |

**Table 6. Average continuation rates by sex of children in the lower secondary schools from 1968 to 1975 – Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Year* | *Transition from Primary to Secondary* | | | *Average per year Grades VII to X* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Boys* | *Girls* | *Difference* | *Boys* | *Girls* | *Difference* |
| 1968 | 70.0 | 59.6 | 10.4 | 91.5 | 93.7 | 2.7 |
| 1969 | 67.0 | 56.3 | 10.7 | 91.1 | 93.4 | 2.3 |
| 1970 | 73.0 | 59.2 | 13.8 | 89.5 | 89.5 | 0.0 |
| 1971 | 69.3 | 60.5 | 8.8 | 94.3 | 96.4 | 2.1 |
| 1972 | 74.1 | 63.5 | 10.6 | 95.4 | 96.5 | 1.1 |
| 1973 | 76.9 | 68.4 | 8.5 | 94.8 | 97.4 | 2.6 |
| 1974 | 77.3 | 69.7 | 7.6 | 95.0 | 98.7 | 3.7 |
| 1975 | 85.2 | 77.6 | 7.6 | 96.2 | 97.5 | 1.3 |
| Mean | 74.2 | 64.4 | 9.8 | 93.5 | 95.4 | 1.9 |

slowly. It is also interesting to note that for girls who were enrolled in the lower secondary schools during the same period, thei continuation rates were consistently higher, although marginally, than

that of the boys. For example, there is a difference of 1.9 percentage points in favour of the girls between the average continuation rates for the period.

**The genesis of action projects**

The problem of drop-out amongst primary school children has always been small as evidenced by the high enrolment ratios and continuation rates even in the immediate post war years. Prior to 1961, only about 35 per cent of grade VI children were selected for admission into fully aided lower secondary schools. Since abolishing the Malayan Secondary School Entrance Examination in 1964 and the introduction of nine-year universal basic education in 1965, lower secondary enrolment has steadily increased. The drop-out rate among lower secondary children is also small, although substantially higher than that in the primary school. What is more serious is the drop-out rate during the transition between the primary and the lower secondary levels of education.

The prevalence and persistence of the drop-out problem, especially among the rural poor, did not go unnoticed. The Federal Inspectorate's Report 1968 highlighted the gross inadequacies of rural Malay Primary Schools in Peninsular Malaysia. Among the factors singled out for discussion were:

a) under-enrolment and uneconomic sized schools;

b) children attending those schools were from poor families;

c) poor quality school administrators and teachers;

d) high incidence of multiple class teaching;

e) poor physical facilities and teaching aids;

f) poor supporting services in supervision and inadequate inputs of expert professional advice and guidance; and

g) the low morale of the teaching staff.

The preliminary survey of 243 primary schools carried out in 1971 by the Educational Planning and Research Division (EPRD), Ministry of Education, reported that more than 70 per cent of vernacular[3] primary schools had enrolments of less than 400 pupils. In terms of physical facilities, teacher quality, teaching aids and per capita pupil expenditure incurred by schools to enhance teaching

3 – Vernacular primary schools refer to Malay, Chinese and Tamil Medium schools.

programmes, the urban and larger schools appeared to enjoy considerable advantages over the rural and small vernacular schools.

In July 1971, the EPRD was directed by the Minister of Education to carry out a comprehensive study of the extent and causes of educational wastage. The intention was to obtain relevant data and information for policy decisions directed towards the reduction of wastage especially among the rural poor. Special attention was to be given to institutional or other modifiable factors which might improve the educational chances (retention and attainment) of this sector of the population which was especially disadvantaged. The study was carried out involving 22,447 (5 per cent) youths born in 1956 and 1960 and living in Peninsular Malaysia in 1970. These sample youths were drawn from 450 strata – fairly small regions into which the population had been divided and which were internally homogeneous with respect to the size of the localities, land utilization, and proximity to a secondary school.

The 1973 drop-out study. The following list consists of brief statements of selected major findings and recommendations from the Report of the Committee on the study of School and Society (Drop-out Study) 1973. Much factual detail and reasoning behind the recommendations are omitted:[4]

a) In mid-1972, 89 per cent of age 11+ youths and 46 per cent of age 15+ youths were enrolled in school.

b) About one fifth of an age-group drops out at the end of primary school.

c) There is a strong relationship between poverty and school leaving: about one-tenth of the poorest children as contrasted with nine-tenths of the most prosperous are enrolled in school at age 15+.

d) Adults who have no schooling are least likely to have jobs. The more schooling one has, the more likely one is to be employed. Among employed adults, each increase in educational qualification, sharply improves the likelihood of having a skilled rather than an unskilled occupation.

e) Only eight per cent of the heads of households of youths in the sample had any secondary schooling; 70 per cent of youths born

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[4] – Abstract, Report of the Committee on the Study of School and Society (Drop-out Study) 1973 p. 68-74.

in 1956 entered secondary school. The rapid expansion of education in West Malaysia in one generation created a situation where large numbers of school children do not receive the informal pre-school training which literate parents typically provide.

f) Total enrolment rates among Malay and Chinese youths were virtually the same; drop-out rates are higher among Indian youths.

g) In urban areas, a far higher proportion of Malays enrolled in school than either Chinese or Indians; among the rural poor a slightly higher proportion of Chinese are enrolled.

h) Malay youths are, on the average, more highly motivated to succeed in school than either Chinese or Indian youths. Chinese youths, on the average, enjoy higher socio-economic status and urban residence, which are conducive to school retention. The higher motivation of the Malays off-sets the more favoured backgrounds of the Chinese, resulting in comparable total rates of enrolment for the two communities. Indian youths are less motivated than Malays and the poorest of the three communities. Their rate of enrolment is lowest.

i) Youths who have unfavourable attitudes towards science, secular education and innovation, and youths who have little interest in national and world affairs, are most likely to drop-out of school. These attitudes are most common among the poor of each of the three communities. These attitudes are among the reasons explaining why the poor are more likely to drop-out of school than the well-to-do.

j) State expenditures on education favour the well-to-do:

i) It is disproportionately the children from prosperous families who continue their education through upper secondary and post-secondary levels.

ii) The higher levels of education are more costly to the State than the lower levels. The State subsidy of a University student is twenty times the subsidy of a primary school pupil.

iii) Pupils who complete secondary school or the University, will earn a far higher income than those with only

primary school education. Secondary school graduates earn four times as much as persons with only primary school qualification. University graduates earn eight times as much.

iv) Primary school pupils would not be economically productive if they were not in school. Most upper secondary and university pupils would be employed if they were not in school. This is a cost to society, of higher levels of education.

v) The unschooled are, by far, the least likely to have jobs during their adulthood, due to their withdrawal from the labour force. Primary education is the most important level increasing the likelihood of life-time productivity.

k) Over three-fourths of Malaysian children enrol in a vernacular primary school. 83 per cent of Malays, 75 per cent of Chinese, and 51 per cent of Indians enrol in vernacular primary schools.

l) Most of the children of the poor attend vernacular schools. The well-to-do of each community, particularly in urban areas, are more likely to send their children to English medium schools.

m) Larger educational investments are made in the English medium than the vernacular media primary schools. On the average, as contrasted with all three vernacular media primary schools, English medium schools are larger; have more of every type of educational facility, e.g. libraries, audio-visual equipment, craft rooms; have more qualified and younger teachers who have higher morale; and make higher non-teaching expenditures per pupil per year (three times as high as Malay and Tamil media schools).

n) In mid-1972, among age 11+ youths, the enrolment rate in English medium primary schools was 97 per cent, in Malay medium it was 88 per cent, in Chinese medium it was 87 per cent, and in Tamil medium it was 66 per cent. Within the English medium primary schools, slightly more Malays than Chinese, and more Chinese than Indians, were still enrolled.

o) Six per cent of children completing English medium primary schools, fail to enter secondary school. Over one-fourth of the children completing vernacular primary schools terminate their

schooling at that point while 91 per cent of te children who start Standard I in an English medium primary school enter secondary school. Fifty-eight per cent of those who start in a vernacular primary school enter secondary school.

p) Among youths who do enrol in a secondary school, by age 15+ in English medium secondary schools, 73 per cent are still enrolled; in Malay medium secondary schools 60 per cent are still enrolled; in Chinese medium secondary schools 50 per cent are still enrolled.

q) Academic achievement levels and average daily attendance are higher in English medium than vernacular media primary schools. Truancy is lower in English medium schools.

r) Children from the more prosperous families of each community, enjoying the greatest initial familial advantages, are receiving the best education. More is spent per pupil per year in the English medium schools attended disproportionately by the well-to-do urban population, and they have the most qualified teachers. The outputs of these better endowed schools – attendance, achievement, as well as continuation rates – are accordingly better.

s) Much of the verbal and intellectual development of the child upon which school success depends, occurs during pre-school years. Poor and illiterate parents, and isolated rural environments, create an educational disadvantage prior to school entry.

t) National examinations focus public attention on the pupils who are successful in the mastery of the curriculum specified for the grade level examined. This emphasis leads to the neglect of the pupils whose achievement is below grade level.

u) Schools attended exclusively or predominantly by economically and educationally disadvantaged pupils have difficulty attracting and retaining qualified teachers; have depressed academic standards; reinforce the values and attitudes which are prevalent among the rural poor and which are not conducive to educational attainment; and fail to offer the stimulation which children from diverse backgrounds provide to one another and which more capable pupils provide for those who are more disadvantaged.

v) Ninety-five per cent of the population lives within ten miles of a secondary school.

w) Ninety-five per cent of fifteen-year-olds report that they can travel to a secondary school from their home in fifteen minutes or less using currently available transportation.

x) Per pupil administrative and fixed costs decline with increased school size up to enrolments of about 1,000 pupils.

y) Per pupil costs of many educational facilities and services – libraries, audio-visual devices, athletic equipment – decline with increased school size.

z) Large educational complexes provide teachers with a substantial number of professional colleagues, reducing the occupational and personal isolation which teachers in small rural schools experience.

**Intervention:**

The Malaysian Cabinet at a meeting held on 8th May 1973 appointed a Committee of Officials to examine and submit its views on the recommendations of the Drop-out Report and implications for implementation. The Officials Committee translated the five general recommendations of the Drop-out Report into numerous action guidelines and grouped them into four categories as follows:

a) Reallocation of educational resources;
b) Compensatory educational services;
c) The role of examinations; and
d) Educational complexes for small towns and rural areas.

The Committee also recommended that a special unit be set up in the Ministry of Education with the main function of monitoring and co-ordinating the implementation of the action guidelines embodied in the Report. A summary of the details of the recommended action sequences are as follows:

a) **Reallocation of educational resources**

i) The Committee accepts the Drop-out Report's emphasis upon increasing Governmental investment in primary education, but not by diversion of funds from upper secondary or tertiary levels of education.

ii) More physical facilities be provided to primary schools, especially those in the rural areas.

iii) A larger number of qualified and experienced teachers be sent to rural areas.

iv) Medical attention and other health programmes such as health education, school feeding programmes and other health services, be stepped up through Government sponsorship.

v) Library facilities for most schools should be further improved and provisions must be made for special rooms which could be utilized as libraries.

vi) Existing aid in the form of textbooks and other financial aids have to be further extended.

vii) As regards the allocation of teachers to schools, a new overall formula should be worked out.

viii) Highest educational priority should be given to the upgrading of educational services which are to be provided to the disadvantaged, especially those who are in the rural areas.

ix) A study be made to set up national building criteria for maintaining the standards and designs of school buildings and physical educational amenities.

x) Accommodation, commensurate with the status of teachers, must be provided for those teachers serving in the rural areas.

b) Compensatory educational services

i) The Ministry of Education, possibly in collaboration with local universities, conduct local research and experimentations to identify the areas for providing stimulating formal and non-formal educational environment for the disadvantaged children.

ii) The Ministry of Education, in conjunction with other Ministries, review the objectives, teaching content, methods, forms and strategies of pre-school and primary education in order to provide all children, particularly the rural children, with full possibilities of overall development.

iii) The conditions of sub-standard primary schools, both in terms of the physical facilities and educational programmes, are to be improved. These programmes must be suited to the special needs of children from unfavourable environments.

iv) The common-content, common-approach and common-emphasis curriculum, particularly at the primary level, is in need of review and re-definition.

v) Health education and rural school health services be increased and intensified as part of compensatory education.

vi) An integrated plan be formulated with the objectives, to increase the competencies of primary school teachers; to improve the primary curriculum and the present organisation for teaching and learning in schools; and to ensure that pre-school and primary education is placed on sound philosophical and psychological principles.

vii) Appropriate parent and community educational programmes be devised to develop an out-of-school environment which will be supportive for the children's formal education in schools.

viii) Special consideration be given to the allocation of teachers for compensatory educational programmes and services, such as remedial teaching, school guidance and library services.

ix) Supervision and professional assistance to rural teachers be intensified.

x) An annual library grant, over and above the per capita grant, be given.

xi) School guidance services should be extended to all secondary and primary schools.

xii) School welfare officers are to be appointed, who will assist school guidance teachers and have concern for the child outside school hours, undertaking all responsibilities that will enable the child to realise his maximum potential in school.

c) **The role of examinations**

i) Teachers undergoing pre-service training be given a course in examination techniques.

ii) Teachers are to be given pre-service and in-service training in remedial work.

iii) There should be a monthly assessment of pupils' progress.

iv) The Standard Three Diagnostic Examination should be used solely, and at all times, for diagnostic purposes.

v) All weak pupils should be assisted through remedial programmes.

vi) Teachers should concern themselves with detecting the weaknesses of pupils, and taking the necessary steps to remedy these weaknesses.

d) **Educational complexes for small towns and rural areas**

i) The establishment of school complexes embodying a number of schools accessible to children within specified areas.

ii) Specially trained officers be appointed as development officers for attachment to State Education Offices.

iii) Posting of more trained teachers to rural schools.

iv) Increased financial allocations for schools serving small towns and surrounding rural areas.

v) Establishment of hostels where the proposed school complexes comprise a number of primary schools. An 'Ibu Asrama' (Hostel Mother) be appointed for each hostel to serve as guardian to the young hostel boarders.

vi) Amalgamation of primary and lower secondary schools when necessary, in small towns and sparsely populated villages.

vii) Provision of special facilities within each school complex, such as reading rooms, libraries, medical services, hot meal schemes, pre-school units.

viii) Better supervision by the State Education Office and more frequent inspection by the Inspectorate.

ix) A pupil-centred curriculum be developed for use in schools in the proposed school complexes.

x) A more liberal provision for free textbooks and financial aids for needy pupils in such schools.

xi) The physical facilities for those disadvantaged schools which cannot possibly be amalgamated, should be improved.

xii) The Ministry of Education should establish standards to ensure that school canteens sell nutritious food, under hygienic conditions, at reasonable prices, and carry out regular checks on the canteens.

e) Conclusion

A Special Unit be set up in the Ministry of Education for the main function of monitoring and co-ordinating the implementation of the recommendations embodied in the Report.

**Intervention actions**

Intervention measures, both pedagogical and non-pedagogical, to check the drop-out rates amongst the primary and lower secondary school children in Peninsular Malaysia preceeded the recommendations of both the Drop-out Report and the Report of the Committee of Officials. As problems arose in the teaching and learning processes, they were identified, and the different implementing Divisions of the Ministry concerned would then conceptualize the problem and draw up remedial projects to overcome them. Most of the projects were generally related to the problem of both quantitative and qualitative development, while a number of them have a more direct bearing on the drop-out problem. Among the more important of the latter group of action projects and their implementation agencies were the following:

a) Curriculum Development Centre

i) Language Project

ii) Mathematics and Science Project

iii) Prototype Production Project
iv) Compensatory Education Project
v) Integrated Primary Curriculum Project
vi) Social Science Project

b) Schools Division

i) Hostels In Day Schools Project
ii) Fully Residential School Project
iii) Supplementary Feeding Programme
iv) Library Project

c) Scholarship and Training Division

i) Federal Minor Scholarships
ii) State Minor Scholarships
iii) Food Subsidy for Hostelites

d) Educational Media Service Division

i) Educational Television Programme
ii) Audio-Visual Aids
iii) Schools Radio Broadcasts

Intervention measures before the Drop-out Report and the Report of the Officials were many and varied. They were generally ad hoc in nature, and represent efforts of the different implementation Divisions to solve implementation problems and other educational issues high on the priority list. While many of the action projects were related to ameliorating the problem of educational wastage, including drop-out, they were generally not directed specifically towards overcoming it. The Drop-out Report 1973 focussed public attention on the seriousness of the problem, and consequently, both social and political pressures were brought to bear upon it. The appointment of the Committee of Officials to review and examine the implications of implementing the incorporation of the recommended action guidelines of that Committee into the successive Five Year Educational Development Plans, indicate the degree of resolve and commitment of the Government and people, to overcoming the problem.

In accordance with the recommendations of the Committee of Officials, a special unit was set up at the Educational Planning and Research Division (EPRD), to co-ordinate implementation of the action guidelines. As the action guidelines covered broad areas; viz reallocation of educational resources, compensatory educational services, the role of examinations and educational complexes for small towns and rural areas, implementation of action projects, involved practically all the Divisions of the Ministry of Education, the organization and structure of which is shown in Supplementary Figures I. Three working groups or sub-units were set up to examine the action guidelines recommended by the Committee of Officials, and to draw up immediate, intermediate, and long-term action plans for implementation. The members of each sub-unit were comprised of representatives from implementing agencies and headed by a Director. The three sub-units, their areas of concern and their respective chairmen were as follows:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| i) | Sub-Unit A | : | School facilities,<br>Finance,<br>Health Programmes |
| | Chairman | : | Director of Schools |
| ii) | Sub-Unit B | : | Teachers,<br>School Guidance |
| | Chairman | : | State Director of Education,<br>Trengganu |
| iii) | Sub-Unit C | : | Curriculum and Textbooks |
| | Chairman | : | Director of Curriculum Development |

The action plans of the three sub-units were co-ordinated and integrated before being presented to the Education Planning Committee (EPC), the highest decision making body in the Ministry of Education, which gave approval for subsequent implementation of projects. The special unit at the EPRD functioned as a co-ordinating body in the whole planning and implementation process. Besides monitoring and co-ordinating activities, carried out by the different implementing agencies, it also carried out evaluation and provided feedback information to the EPC, for relevant and immediate decision making at the highest level. The operational model for planning and implementing intervention action proposals through the EPC are as in Supplementary Figures II and III.

The Drop-out Report and the Report of the Committee of Officials, made it possible for the Ministry of Education to view the problem systematically. A systems approach was used to structure integrated plans to be carried out on an immediate, intermediate, and long term basis. Not all the action plans were new. Many of the intervention measures carried out on an ad hoc basis before the advent of the Drop-out and Officials Reports, were incorporated. They were systematised in an overall integrated programme in a concerted effort to overcome the problem of drop-out.

All the action programmes implemented fall under the ambit of preventive measures, for they are directed towards improving school retention rates, and to enhance life chances, especially for the rural poor. There is also provision for an educational "second chance" for drop-outs through Further Education Classes (FEC), conducted in regular schools after school hours. The Lower Certificate of Education (LCE) Examinations is a selective examination conducted at the end of grade IX. At present about 60 per cent of students at the end of grade IX are selected to continue in upper secondary schools. As the FEC prepares students out of school for public examinations like the Lower Certificate of Education (grade IX), the Malaysian Certificate of Education (grade XI) and the Higher School Certificate (grade XIII), it lies outside the scope of this report.

As stated earlier, educational development in the last twenty years in Peninsular Malaysia is characterized by both quantitative and qualitative development. Activities oriented towards qualitative development are wide ranging and include the following areas:

i) Improvement of physical facilities and allocation of other resources;
ii) Curriculum and textbook development;
iii) Teacher education and supervision;
iv) Planning, research and evaluation;
v) Subsidies and student welfare; and
vi) Supporting services.

These activities include both pedagogical and non-pedagogical strategies. They are structured to upgrade quality education and in varying degrees, especially after 1973, are directed towards improving

retention rates as well as to enhance life chances, especially among the poor from the rural areas.

It is impossible in this report to describe all the activities directed towards overcoming the problem of drop-out in schools which have been carried out in Peninsular Malaysia. The action guidelines listed above attest to the large number of activities carried out in phases since 1973. Among all these activities, three may be considered to have a more important direct bearing towards overcoming the drop-out problem in schools, and are singled out for discussion. They are:

i) The Supplementary Feeding Scheme;

ii) The Textbook Loan Scheme; and

iii) School Hostels.

**The Supplementary Feeding Scheme (SFS).** Studies carried out by the EPRD and Malaysian Institute of Medical Research in the early 1960s had found that:

a) between 15-20 per cent of school children go to school without breakfast (morning session) or lunch (afternoon session), and 15- 35 per cent suffered from disguised hunger;

b) more than 35 per cent of school children showed signs of malnutrition; and

c) malnutrition and its effects, together with infection of diseases, gave rise to problems with respect to physical growth, learning and adaptive behaviour.

In the 1960s, there was a limited supplementary feeding programme carried out by voluntary organisations like the Malaysian Council for Child Welfare, the Central Welfare Council and the Catholic Welfare service, Malaysia. These services involved 98,910 children in 468 schools in 1972 when they were discontinued. In 1974, Selangor State, in conjunction with the Applied Food and Nutrition Programme (AFNP), initiated a pilot SFS. In 1976 the SFS was adopted by the National AFNP Committee, chaired by the Prime Minister, as an integral component of the National AFNP. Since then, the SFS has been extended to cover practically all districts in Malaysia.

The aim of the SFS is to provide supplementary food to

primary school children, especially those from low income families, in order to improve their general health and normal physical growth, in line with the objectives of the NEP. The objectives of SFS are as follows:

a) to provide needy primary school children with additional nutritious food to improve their physical growth and enhance their physical well-being;

b) to put into practice, directly and indirectly, health education and nutrition;

c) to support the Applied Food and Nutrition Programme and activities and projects through active participation.

The SFS, which started off as a joint project of the Ministry of Education and the Prime Ministers Department has, since 1979, been completely taken over by the Ministry of Education. The Schools Division implements the scheme, with the co-operation of the various State Education Departments in selected schools. Supplementary food, based on approved menus, are prepared in various ways, according to situations and practicability. They are prepared through either appointed teachers of the school concerned; or appointed non-teaching staff of the school; or parents and teachers; or volunteer organisations; or hired cooks; or food contracters.

Table 7 shows the number of schools, children and financial allocation involved in the SFS from 1976 to 1981.

**Table 7. Supplementary Feeding Scheme (SFS) – Peninsular Malaysia, 1976 – 1981**

| | *1976* | *1977* | *1978* | *1979* | *1980* | *1981* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. No. of Schools | 474 | 1,630 | 2,188 | 2,000 | 4,328 | 4,352 |
| 2. No. of Children involved | 49,727 | 132,380 | 300,000 | 421,875 | 545,800 | 502,200 |
| 3. No. of Days | 60 | 140 | 200 | 160 | 150 | 150 |
| 4. Total Allocation (Malaysian $) | 298,362 | 2,779,980 | 12,000,000 | 13,500,000 | 16,374,000 | 18,832,000 |

Feedback information from schools involved in the programme indicated that generally, school attendance and achievement by participant pupils have improved.

**Textbook Loan Scheme (TBLS).** The Malaysian Cabinet at a meeting in October 1973, supported a declaration made earlier by the Prime Minister that in view of inflation, lower income groups in the public sector be granted financial aid, while those in the private sector be given aid in kind. One of the aids in kind is the Textbook Loan Scheme, (TBLS) which provides free textbooks or subsidized textbooks to lighten the financial burden of poor parents with school-going children. An initial allocation of M$40 millions was set aside for the project.

An inter-ministerial Technical Committee for Implementation was set up on 6th February 1974, to study the financial and other implications of the TBLS, and to formulate implementation policies and procedures. A series of consultative meetings were convened, where State Directors of Education and other agencies connected with the implementation were invited to give their opinions and views. At the same time, relevant information concerning the number of children according to levels who require aid in textbook, was gathered. On 24th September, 1974 the implementation plan for TBLS was presented to the Cabinet which gave its approval and blessing. On 9th October 1974, the financial allocation was raised to M$62 million.

The TBLS was launched in 1975 with the aims of providing free textbooks, on loan, to needy children, especially those from rural and depressed areas, in order to upgrade quality education and to provide equal educational opportunities; and reducing the financial burden of poor parents who have school-going children.

The TBLS is implemented by the Textbook Bureau of the Ministry of Education, with the assistance of the State Directors of Education and the schools. The organisational set up for implementing the scheme and the agencies involved are shown in Figure 2.

Table 8 shows the number of children benefiting from the TBLS and the financial expenditures involved in the TBLS from 1975 to 1981.

**School hostels.** Hostel facilities are provided in two types of schools, viz ordinary primary and secondary day schools, and fully residential secondary schools (FRSS). FRSS may be considered to be special schools, and cater to promising students, the majority of whom are from rural areas and low-income families. The criteria for

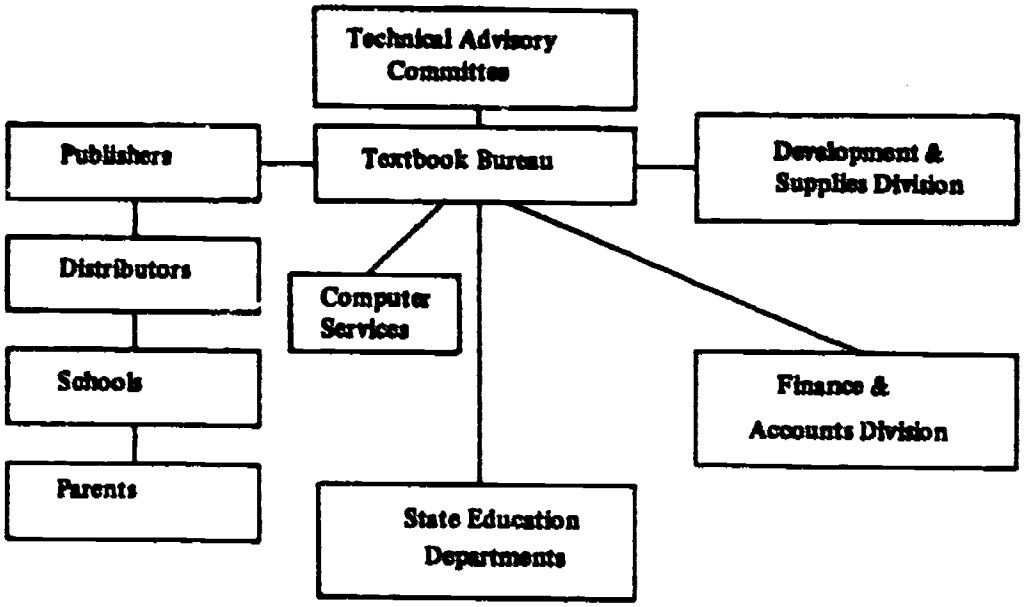



**Figure 2. Organizational set-up implementing the textbook loan scheme – Peninsular Malaysia**

**Table 8. Textbook loan scheme Malaysia – 1975-1980**

| *Year* | *Number of School Children* | *Expenditure in $(M)* |
|---|---|---|
| 1975 | 2,011,005 | 59,176,610 |
| 1976 | 2,111,877 | 18,374,423 |
| 1977 | 2,128,465 | 15,694,877 |
| 1978 | 2,172,085 | 26,982,873 |
| 1979 | 2,209,550 | 51,847,397 |
| 1980 | 2,354,528 | 24,737,572 |
| Total | | 196,809,754 |

selection into FRSS is based on academic excellence, family financial burden and location of residence. The main aim of the FRSS programme, is to provide a conducive atmosphere in terms of school effects and living environment, to realize better the potentials of promising students from poor families in the rural areas. Hostels in ordinary schools also have the same general aim, but cater to children who live far away from schools regardless of their academic

performance. As high performance students are less inclined to drop-out of schools prematurely, only hostels in ordinary day schools will be discussed.

School hostels which aim at providing a more equal educational opportunity for all have as their objectives, the provision of subsidized food and accommodation to school children from poor families living far away from schools; and the provision of a more conducive learning and living environment, to school children from poor families in the rural areas.

As primary schools are found even in a remote rural areas, while secondary schools are generally located in more accessible and urban areas, most of the hostels are located in secondary schools.

Hostels in ordinary day schools have been in existence for a long time, but since the Drop-out Report, they have been integrated into the overall programme, to prevent the problem of children from poor families in the rural areas dropping out prematurely from schools. This project is implemented by 162 schools[5] in Peninsular Malaysia and co-ordinated by a special unit in the Schools Division, in co-operation with the State Education Departments. In October 1980, there were 259 permanent and rented buildings providing accommodation for 27,059 students as shown in Table 9.

**Table 9. Hostels in day schools 1980, Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Sex* | *Number of Hostels* | *Number of Hostelites* |
|---|---|---|
| Permanent hostels | | |
| Boys | 114 | 12,721 |
| Girls | 90 | 10,268 |
| Rented Hostels | | |
| Boys | 28 | 1,591 |
| Girls | 27 | 1,479 |
| Total | 259 | 27,059 |

5 The figure 162 does not include hostel schools in the state of Kedah.

The development plan for this project has provisions to build 28 new hostels in 1981, 29 in 1982 and another 58 form 1983 to 1985. By 1985, it is expected to provide hostel accommodation for 25,201 boys and 19,186 girls in Peninsular Malaysia.

## Conclusion

The preceding discussions have demonstrated that drop-out has been a problem besetting educational development in Peninsular Malaysia, especially in the late 1960s and early 1970s. While the problem was negligible at the primary level, wastage at the lower secondary level and especially during the transition between the primary and the secondary levels was serious enough to cause private and public concern. It has also demonstrated that through ad hoc, as well as systematic and integrated intervention measures, the problem has largely been overcome.

While the impact and effect of the total integrated effort to stem the drop-out problem is clearly reflected by improvements in enrolment ratios and continuation rates since 1967 to 1980, the relative contributions of each of the different activities towards overcoming the problem is less clear. The problem is very complex. Firstly, it is extremely difficult to delineate activities which have been structured specifically to overcome the problem. This is because activities directed towards general quality improvement, be they pedagogical or non-pedagogical, also directly or indirectly help to overcome educational wastage. Secondly, quality improvement activities, implemented in phases over the period, are too many and varied.

Drop-out, as pointed out earlier, is not entirely an educational problem. The concern of the Government over the Drop-out Report 1973, and the wide spread publicity given to it through the mass media subsequently, would be expected to have changed considerably the attitudes of parents, pupils and teachers, towards education. Changes and trends as a result of social and economic development over the period, further compound the complexity of the problem.

The Malaysian experience has demonstrated that the problem of educational wastage through drop-out can be overcome. The effort calls for a concerted effort by both the Government and the people, and a commitment, not only to systematically analyse the problem, but also to carry out effectively, intervention measures.

This is only the pre-requisite, for the implementation of intervention measures brings along with it a train of other problems, including priority setting and competing needs. It also calls for a pooling of scarce trained personnel and other resources, and an organisational structure to formulate the problem, to structure intervention measures, and co-ordinate effectively the implementation of such activities. The choice of action then reflects the determination and resolve of both the Government and the people for solving the drop-out problem.

## List of recommendations

### Recommendation I

Both efficiency (maximizing the marginal economic returns) and equity (equalizing public investment in the education of the poor with investment in the education of the well-to-do) require reallocation of State educational investments from upper-secondary and post-secondary levels to primary school levels. The high rate or private return from secondary and post-secondary education make the private costs and income foregone while schooling, a highly profitable personal investment for those who qualify. Tuition charges should replace State subsidies of higher education. Tuition remission or State loans should be available for the most needy who qualify. The public funds saved, should be reallocated to primary and preschool education, serving a wider cross-section of the population.

### Recommendation II

To more nearly equalize the educational opportunities of the rural poor with their more favoured urban peers, annual per pupil expenditures on the schooling of the former, must be at least as large. The State should reverse its current disproportionate support of those already most advantaged. The full costs of all educational services below Form III (including the private funding of services at assisted schools), should be raised by the State and allocated so as to provide equalized per capita expenditures in all State assisted schools.

### Recommendation III

Compensatory educational services should be provided to help remedy early educational disadvantage. Economic poverty and rural

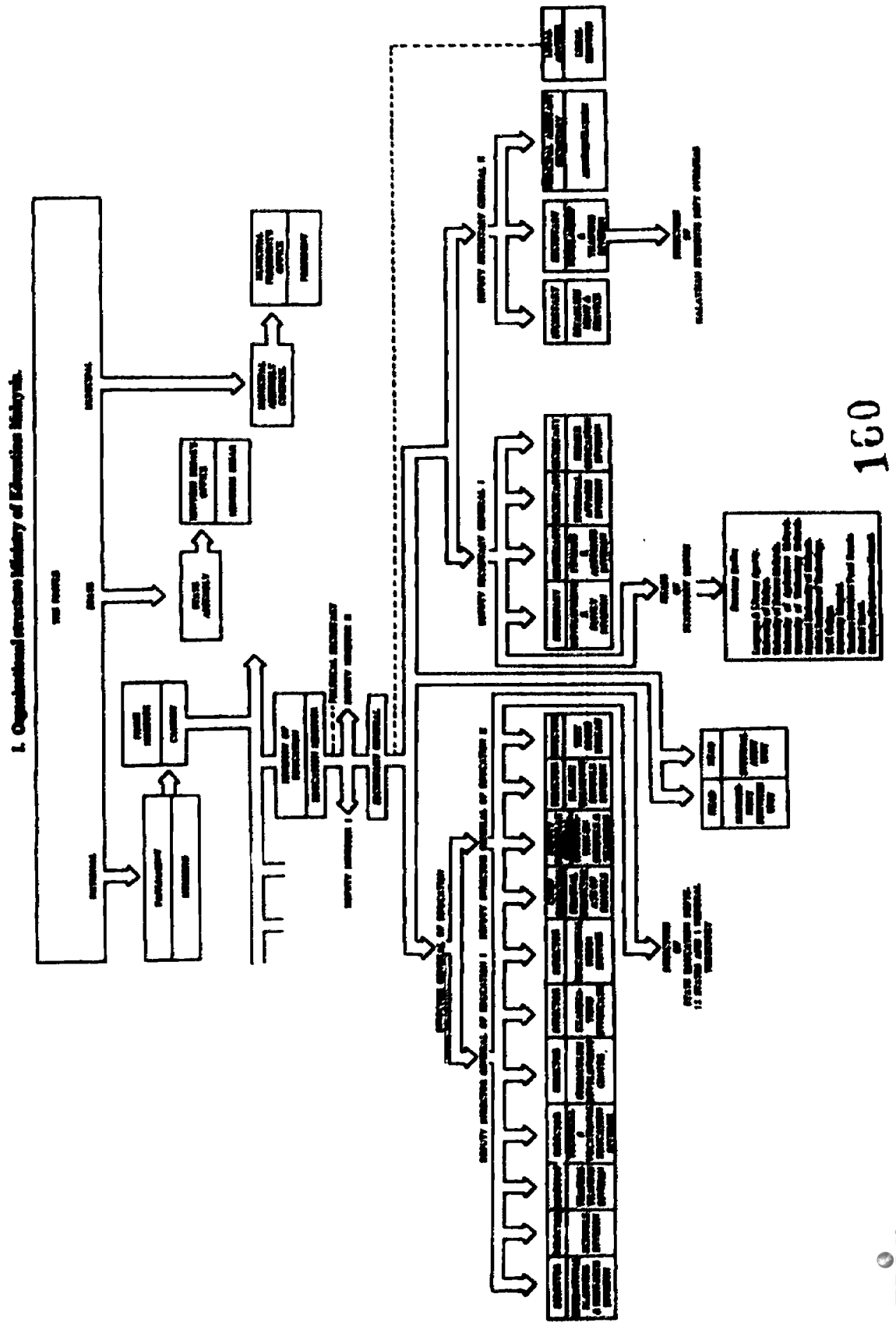
location are relevant criteria for the allocation of compensatory services. Compensatory services should be concentrated at the preschool and lower primary school levels, in combination with adult – parent education. Funding of compensatory services should be over and above the equalization of basic educational services already recommended. These should be ear-marked categorical funds not to be pooled with general education funds, but reserved for compensatory programmes for poor children.

### Recommendation IV

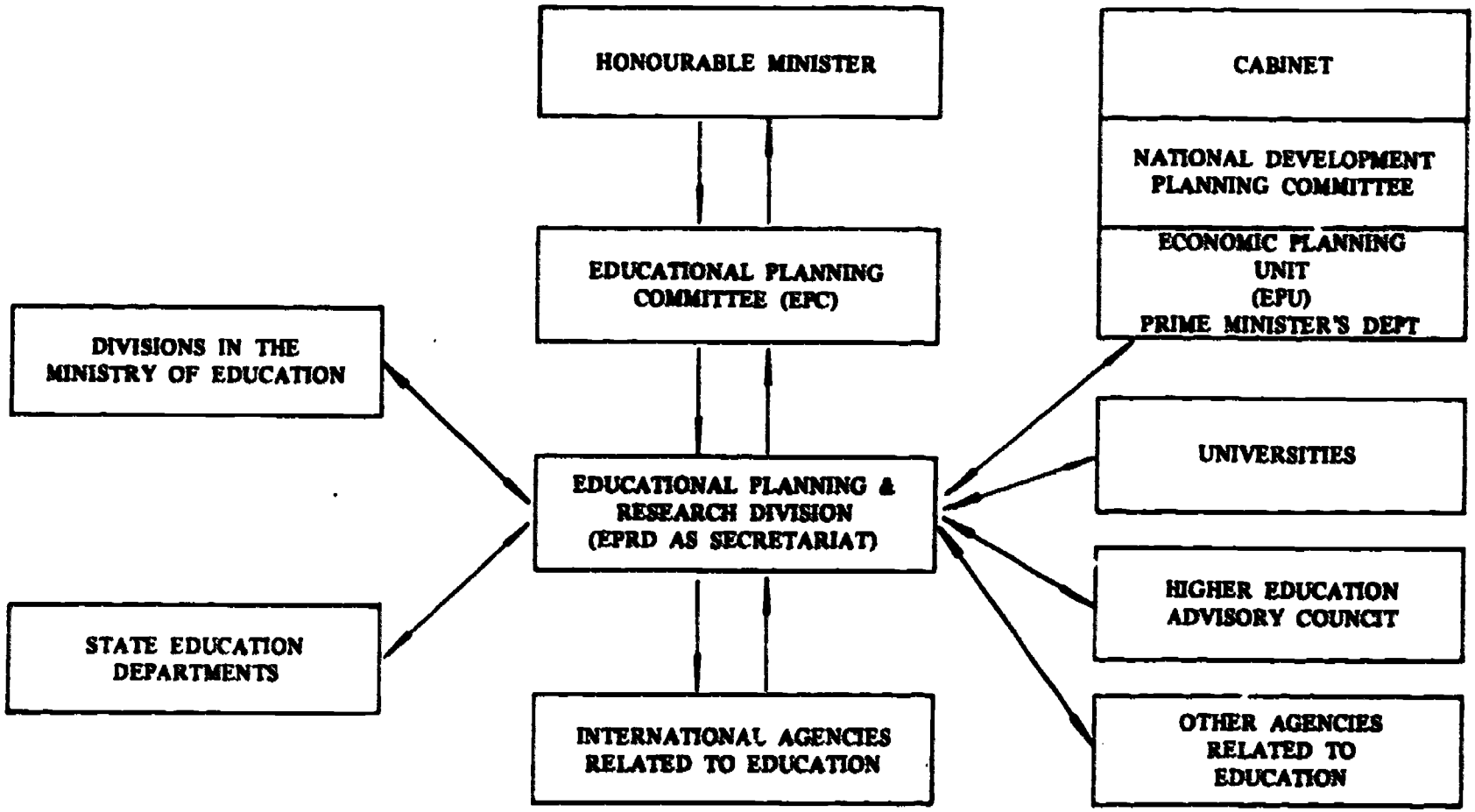
Examinations at Standard III and Standard V should measure rudimentary literacy. All enrolled pupils should sit for these examinations. Priority and publicity should be given to the minimization of illiteracy rather than to the proportions of pupils with distinguished marks.

### Recommendation V

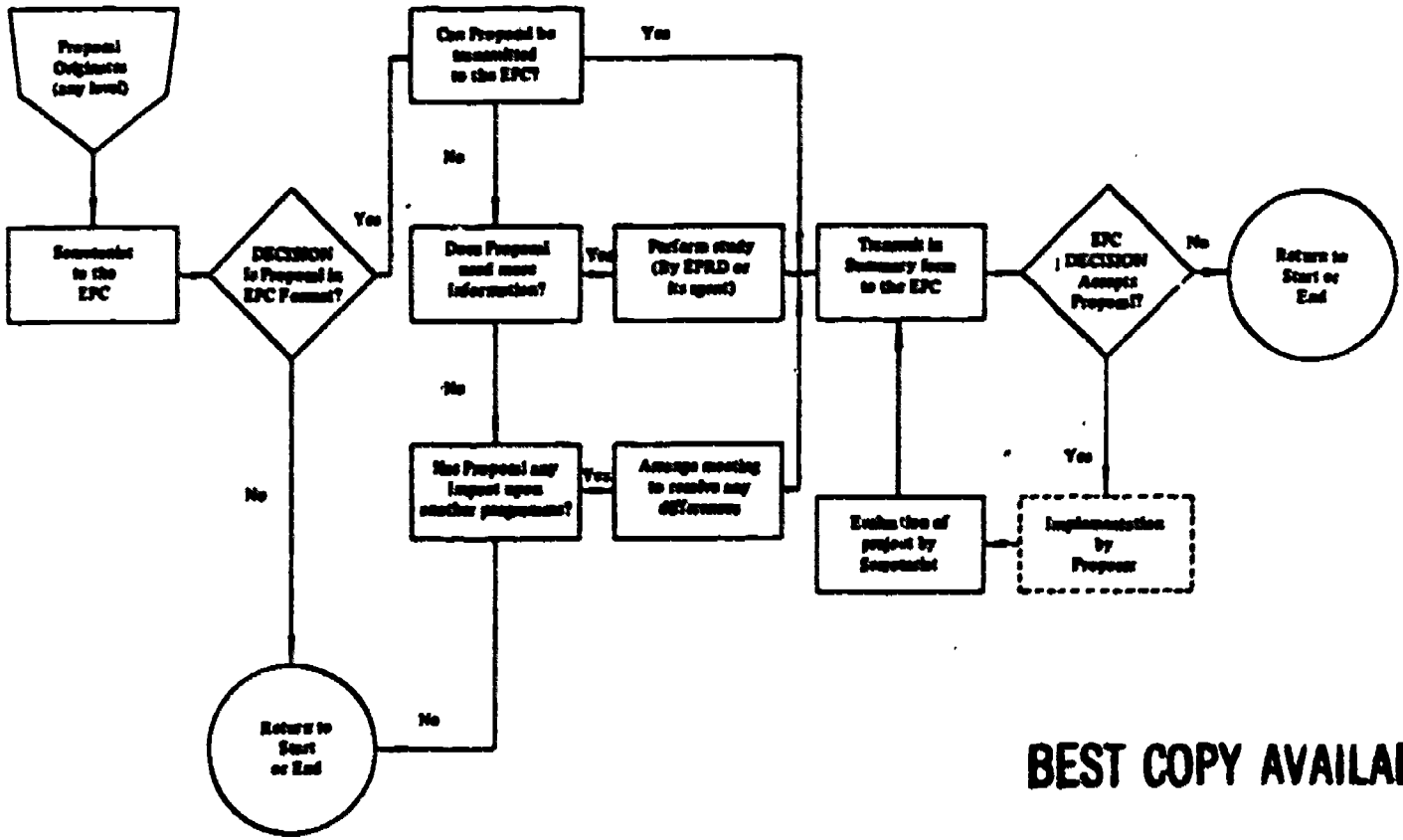
Educational complexes of substantial size should be developed to service small towns and surrounding rural areas. Transportation services should be improved and absorbed as an educational cost to permit the numerous educational advantages accruing from consolidation.



## II. Operational model of educational planning at the macro level



## III. Flow chart of procedure for proposals to the EPC

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## SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

### I. Enrolment and percentage participation of children in primary schools – Peninsular Malaysia

| *Year* | *Male & Female* | *Male* | *Female* | *per cent Difference* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1967 | 1,315,590 (90.6) | 693,720 (94.0) | 621,861 (87.2) | 6.8 |
| 1968 | 1,363,641 (91.7) | 715,940 (94.7) | 647,701 (88.7) | 6.0 |
| 1969 | 1,389,145 (91.2) | 727,423 (94.1) | 661,722 (88.1) | 6.0 |
| 1970 | 1,421,469 (88.2) | 748,571 (91.6) | 672,898 (84.8) | 6.8 |
| 1971 | 1,457,698 (91.4) | 759,630 (93.6) | 698,068 (89.2) | 4.4 |
| 1972 | 1,492,780 (91.6) | 779,832 (94.0) | 712,948 (89.1) | 4.9 |
| 1973 | 1,531,493 (90.6) | 794,444 (92.4) | 737,049 (88.9) | 3.5 |
| 1974 | 1,547,331 (93.7) | 799,282 (95.1) | 748,049 (92.3) | 2.8 |
| 1975 | 1,586,909 (95.6) | 817,289 (97.2) | 769,620 (94.9) | 2.3 |
| 1976 | 1,602,635 (97.0) | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1977 | (97.1) | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1978 | (97.3) | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1979 | 1,648,517 (95.9) | N.A. | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1980 | 1,764,000 (94.2) | 845,361 N.A. | 803,156 N.A. | N.A. |
| MEAN 1967-1975 | (91.6) | (94.0) | (89.2) | (4.8) |

*Source:* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1967 to 1980, Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

**II. Enrolment and percentage participation of children in lower secondary schools – Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Year* | *Male & Female* | *Male* | *Female* | *per cent Difference* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1967 | 344,364 (51.7) | 207,498 (61.5) | 136,866 (41.7) | 19.8 |
| 1968 | 364,207 (53.8) | 217,044 (63.3) | 147,163 (44.1) | 19.2 |
| 1969 | 379,782 (55.8) | 224,097 (64.9) | 155,685 (46.4) | 18.5 |
| 1970 | 378,535 (52.2) | 222,894 (60.6) | 155,641 (43.6) | 17.0 |
| 1971 | 403,491 (56.7) | 235,409 (63.3) | 168,082 (48.2) | 15.1 |
| 1972 | 438,013 (60.8) | 254,334 (69.4) | 183,679 (51.9) | 17.5 |
| 1973 | 469,176 (63.4) | 269,123 (71.5) | 200,053 (55.0) | 16.5 |
| 1974 | 518,113 (63.5) | 288,650 (69.5) | 229,650 (57.3) | 12.2 |
| 1975 | 561,471 (66.8) | 309,567 (72.3) | 251,904 (61.0) | 11.3 |
| 1976 | 589,446 (70.9) | N.A. | N.A. | |
| 1977 | 632,598 (75.0) | N.A. | N.A. | |
| 1978 | 655,774 (78.4) | N.A. | N.A. | |
| 1979 | 681,993 (82.8) | N.A. | N.A. | |
| 1980 | 689,053 (85.0) | 356,432 N.A. | 325,561 N.A. | |
| MEAN 1967-1975 | (58.3) | (66.3) | (49.9) | (16.4) |

*Source:* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1967 to 1980, Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

**III. Continuation rates in the primary schools of children (6+ to 11+) from grades I to VI – Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Year* | *Grade I-II* | *Grade II-III* | *Grade III-IV* | *Grade IV-V* | *Grade V-VI* | *Average I-VI* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1968 | 99.3 | 98.7 | 97.0 | 96.7 | 93.0 | 96.9 |
| 1969 | 98.5 | 98.1 | 96.6 | 95.9 | 92.4 | 96.3 |
| 1970 | 98.9 | 98.5 | 96.0 | 95.4 | 93.6 | 96.5 |
| 1971 | 99.2 | 97.6 | 97.9 | 96.8 | 95.2 | 97.3 |
| 1972 | 100.2 | 98.6 | 98.1 | 97.4 | 95.4 | 97.9 |
| 1973 | 98.2 | 98.4 | 98.7 | 98.5 | 97.5 | 98.3 |
| 1974 | 99.6 | 98.9 | 98.8 | 98.2 | 96.9 | 98.5 |
| 1975 | 100.0 | 99.4 | 99.1 | 99.1 | 98.6 | 99.2 |
| 1976 | 98.4 | 99.2 | 99.6 | 99.1 | 98.8 | 99.2 |
| 1977 | 99.1 | 99.6 | 99.3 | 98.9 | 98.3 | 99.0 |
| 1978 | 99.7 | 99.8 | 99.6 | 99.0 | 98.4 | 99.3 |
| 1979 | 99.1 | 99.4 | 98.8 | 99.0 | 99.8 | 99.2 |
| 1980 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 99.3 | 99.4 | 98.5 | 99.4 |
| MEAN | | | | | | 98.2 |

*Source.* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1967 to 1980, Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

**IV Transition and continuation rates in the secondary schools of children (12+ to 14+) from grades VII to IX – Peninsular Malaysia**

| *Year* | *Primary to Lower Secondary (1)* | *Grade VII to VIII (2)* | *Grade VIII to IX (3)* | *Average VII to IX (4)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1968 | 65.3 | 92.2 | 92.4 | 92.3 |
| 1969 | 62.1 | 91.6 | 92.4 | 92.0 |
| 1970 | 68.3 | 89.8 | 89.2 | 89.5 |
| 1971 | 65.3 | 94.6 | 95.8 | 95.2 |
| 1972 | 69.2 | 95.2 | 96.5 | 95.6 |
| 1973 | 73.0 | 95.5 | 96.2 | 95.6 |
| 1974 | 73.7 | 96.3 | 96.9 | 96.6 |
| 1975 | 81.6 | 96.5 | 97.0 | 96.7 |
| 1976 | 78.4 | 96.0 | 95.6 | 95.8 |
| 1977 | 78.9 | 95.6 | 97.5 | 96.6 |
| 1978 | 82.7 | 98.3 | 98.0 | 98.1 |
| 1979 | 83.1 | 95.8 | 96.9 | 96.8 |
| 1980 | 81.3 | 95.1 | 96.7 | 95.9 |
| MEAN | | | | 95.2 |

*Source:* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1967 to 1980, Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

## V. Continuation rates by sex in the primary schools Peninsular Malaysia 1968 to 1975

| Boys | | | | | | | | Girls | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| YEAR | GRADE I-II | GRADE II-III | GRADE III-IV | GRADE IV-V | GRADE V-VI | AVERAGE I-VI | per cent Difference | YEAR | GRADE I-II | GRADE II-III | GRADE III-IV | GRADE IV-V | GRADE V-VI | AVERAGE I-VI | per cent Difference |
| 1968 | 99.3 | 98.9 | 98.1 | 97.7 | 94.7 | 97.7 | +1.7 | 1968 | 99.2 | 98.5 | 95.9 | 95.6 | 90.9 | 96.0 | −1.7 |
| 1969 | 98.4 | 98.5 | 97.5 | 97.3 | 94.6 | 97.3 | +2.1 | 1969 | 98.6 | 97.7 | 95.7 | 94.3 | 89.8 | 95.2 | −2.1 |
| 1970 | 99.9 | −100.0 | 97.2 | 97.1 | 96.9 | 98.2 | +3.6 | 1970 | 97.8 | 96.9 | 94.8 | 93.6 | 89.9 | 94.6 | −3.6 |
| 1971 | 99.1 | 96.9 | 96.6 | 97.5 | 96.0 | 97.4 | +0.2 | 1971 | 99.2 | 98.3 | 98.1 | 96.0 | 94.3 | 97.2 | −0.2 |
| 1972 | 101.4 | 98.4 | 99.0 | 98.4 | 96.6 | 98.7 | +1.6 | 1972 | 99.0 | 98.9 | 97.2 | 96.2 | 94.0 | 97.1 | −1.6 |
| 1973 | 96.8 | 98.0 | 99.5 | 99.0 | 97.5 | 98.2 | +0.2 | 1973 | 98.1 | 98.8 | 97.8 | 97.8 | 97.5 | 98.0 | −0.2 |
| 1974 | 99.8 | 98.8 | 98.7 | 98.0 | 97.3 | 98.5 | +0.1 | 1974 | 99.4 | 98.9 | 98.8 | 98.4 | 96.5 | 98.4 | −0.1 |
| 1975 | 100.5 | 99.2 | 99.3 | 99.3 | 99.7 | 99.6 | +0.7 | 1975 | 99.5 | 99.6 | 98.9 | 98.9 | 97.4 | 98.9 | −0.7 |
| MEAN | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | −1.3 |

*Source* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1967 to 1980, Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

*Peninsular Malaysia*

## VI. Transition and continuation rates by sex in the lower secondary schools, Peninsular Malaysia 1968 to 1975

| Boys | | | | | Girls | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Year* | *TRANSITION from Primary to Secondary* | *Grade VII-VIII* | *Grade VIII-IX* | *AVERAGE Grade VII-IX* | *Year* | *TRANSITION from Primary to Secondary* | *Grade VII-VIII* | *Grade VIII-IX* | *AVERAGE Grade VII-IX* |
| 1968 | 70.0 | 91.8 | 91.1 | 91.5 | 1968 | 59.6 | 93.0 | 94.4 | 93.7 |
| 1969 | 67.0 | 91.1 | 91.0 | 91.1 | 1969 | 56.3 | 92.4 | 94.4 | 93.4 |
| 1970 | 73.0 | 90.0 | 89.0 | 89.5 | 1970 | 59.2 | 89.5 | 89.4 | 89.5 |
| 1971 | 69.3 | 94.0 | 94.6 | 94.3 | 1971 | 60.5 | 95.2 | 97.6 | 96.4 |
| 1972 | 74.1 | 95.2 | 95.5 | 95.4 | 1972 | 63.5 | 95.1 | 97.9 | 96.5 |
| 1973 | 76.9 | 94.7 | 94.8 | 94.8 | 1973 | 68.4 | 96.5 | 98.2 | 97.4 |
| 1974 | 77.3 | 95.4 | 94.5 | 95.0 | 1974 | 69.7 | 97.4 | 100.0 | 98.7 |
| 1975 | 85.2 | 95.8 | 96.5 | 96.2 | 1975 | 77.6 | 97.4 | 97.5 | 97.5 |
| MEAN | 74.2 | | | 93.5 | | 64.4 | | | 95.4 |

*Source:* Adapted from Educational Statistics of Malaysia 1967 to 1975, Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

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# SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIET NAM

*by Le Nang An*

## The Vietnamese education system

The system of Vietnamese general education is composed of nurseries and kindergartens, nine-year basic schools (with two levels, one for five years and the other for four years), and three-year secondary schools. There is also a system of complementary education for adult learners.

Under the colonial and feudal rule, the working masses and their children were deprived of their educational and cultural life. The small scale educational system was meant exclusively for the children of the upper-class homes, 90 per cent of the population were illiterate. The number of illiterate women and ethnic people amounted to 95 per cent or more, and even 100 per cent in many localities. Nowadays, almost all the school-age children are going to school. Those who have finished primary education are entitled to secondary education.

In 1979-80, there were 13,603,750 pupils and learners of all grades (excluding students of technical secondary schools, vocational schools, universities and colleges), a 25-fold increase as compared with 1939, the peak year of educational development under the colonial and feudal domination.

All systems of schools are under state management. All forms of school tuition fees have been abolished. A network of schools and classes extends to all villages and hamlets, with scholarships for needy students, and a free supply of textbooks that the pupils can share together. In several localities, nursery and kindergarten children are provided with a free school lunch.

In the former regimes, women were given less educational opportunities. According to the statistics recorded by the French administration before the August Revolution (1945), the peak year of educational development was 1939, and the rate of illiterate women was about 98 per cent. In the Franco-Vietnamese schools,

from primary to secondary, school girls made up 14.8 per cent, and only 3.1 per cent in the secondary schools. Today, they account for about 47 per cent in all general education schools. In the school year 1979-80, there were 5,554,175 school girls in the total enrolment of 11, 697,227.

Prior to the August Revolution, in all of the country, there were less than 13,000 ethnic pupils or 5.5 out of 1,000 could have access to education, almost all of them from upper class families. In 1979-80, the enrolment of ethnic pupils ran up to 1,031,557, an 80-fold increase as compared with the pre-revolution period. Vietnamese has become the official medium in the schools. Now it is widely used in the teaching of all subjects in all grades and departments. This is one of the decisive conditions for the vigorous development of general education and national culture.

To satisfy the requirements of educational development, a large teaching staff has been formed, which represents a considerable achievement. As compared with 5,500 (mainly teachers for primary schools) in all of Viet Nam right after the August Revolution, it stands now at 378,000 as Table 1 shows:

**Table 1. Teachers in Viet Nam**

| *Educational level* | *Number of teachers* |
|---|---|
| Nursery schools | 57,000 |
| Basic schools Grade I | 181,000 |
| Basic schools Grade II | 99,000 |
| Secondary schools | 31,000 |
| Adult Education | 10,000 |

The universalization of primary and secondary education is also a process of enhancement of efficiency, limitation of repetition and drop-out, and improvement of educational quality.

As far as repetition is concerned, the number of repeaters in primary and secondary schools throughout the land represents a major obstacle to universalization under fixed age-norms, according to statistics of the Planning Department under the Ministry of Education.

Over the past few years, the Government and people have annually spent a considerable additional sum on more than half a million repeaters. The rate of repetition in each level is about 5 per cent, and at Level I of the southern provinces about 8 per cent.

The Board for Research on Educational Universalization under the Ministry of Education, has conducted surveys in localities with fine records in educational development in districts of the provinces of Ha Tay, Vinh Phu, Nam Ha, Thai Binh, Hai Phong, and Nghe An. The surveys show that repetition poses a great problem to universalization.

### Late school entrance

Late starting also presents a hindrance to universalization of preparatory class, primary, and secondary education implemented under fixed age-norms. In many instances, most commonly in the rural areas, a number of school boys and girls have started their learning one or two years late, and during the process if they repeat once or twice, they frequently show a strong dislike for school, and eventually drop-out. Or they cannot finish primary and secondary grades on schedule when they begin to take part in production.

Surveys by the Board for Research on Educational Universalization show that the number of six-year olds attending preparatory class accounted for only 50-70 per cent of the six-year old population and 50 per cent of the total enrolment for preparatory classes. However, surveys conducted by the Teachers' Training College II, in ten farming co-operatives of Vinh Tuong district,

**Table 2. Percentages of late starters in ten farming co-operatives of Vinh Phu Province 1956-1961**

| *Years* | *5 year olds* | *6 year olds* | *7 year olds* | *8 year olds* | *9 year olds* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1956 | 3.4 | 27.9 | 34.0 | 25.8 | 8.7 |
| 1957 | 7.1 | 35.7 | 26.4 | 20.7 | 7.8 |
| 1958 | 6.8 | 32.2 | 32.2 | 22.7 | 6.8 |
| 1959 | 7.1 | 30.5 | 34.0 | 16.7 | 9.1 |
| 1960 | 16.0 | 30.8 | 29.8 | 13.4 | 5.6 |
| 1961 | 14.9 | 35.7 | 29.4 | 15.9 | 3.8 |

Vinh Phu province, show that the number of six-year olds attending preparatory classes makes up only 30-35 per cent of the six-year old population (Table 2), and only over 10 per cent of the total enrolment for preparatory classes. The rest are seven to nine year olds, and even ten year olds. The situation is even more serious in the mountainous provinces. The surveys in the districts of Hai Phong also show similar patterns.

All this can boil down to one point: the motivation of people to bring their six-year olds to preparatory classes remains a problem that calls for an active and immediate solution by the educational service.

Typical surveys conducted in a number of villages showed that a little more than 5 per cent of the children in the six year age-group were not sent to school because of prolonged illnesses or physical infirmities. The main cause of belated schooling, however, was found to be unsympathetic parental attitudes. There were parents who failed to see the necessity to send their children to school at the proper age. Other parents were reluctant to let their children attend distant schools. Moreover, in large families, a six-year old child may be needed at home as an extra hand (Supplementary Table XIII).

### Repeaters

A document prepared by the Planning Department, the Ministry of Education "Directions, Tasks and Plans for Educational Development in 1980-1981", notes that repeaters constituted a major obstacle to the efforts to make education available to recipients at proper ages. Up to the period under review, there used to be about half a million repeaters every year. The average rate was 5 per cent for all levels. In southern provinces the rate for the primary level was about 8 per cent.

Typical surveys in this regard revealed a fairly high rate of repeaters, even in well developed areas, with the largest number of first time repeaters at class (grade) I. The number of pupils who repeated two or three years from classes (grades) I to VII was also considerable. In certain mountain areas there were pupils who repeated five or even six times from classes (grades) I-VII. Some pupils spent as many as eight years on the first three forms. Delayed graduation had a demoralizing effect on pupils, while impeding the progress of education. Table 3 illustrates repetition for Thang

Long, a village in Dong Hung district, Thai Binh Province for the years 1963-72.

**Table 3. Repetition in Thang Long Village**

| *From Classes (grades) I to VII* | *Number of primary school pupils* | *Number of pupils completing Class (grade) IV without repetition* | *Number of pupils completing Class (grade) VII without repetition* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1963-70 (seven years) | 89 | 64 | 40 |
| 1964-71 (seven years) | 128 | 76 | 61 |
| 1965-72 (seven years) | 111 | 61 | 40 |
| 1966-1970 (four years) | 140 | 30 | |
| 1967-71 (four years) | 138 | 37 | |
| 1968-72 (four years) | 143 | 42 | |

Poor school facilities and low teacher quality have combined with other causes to give rise to the great numbers of repeaters. A quality survey over a five-year period, from 1975 to 1980, led to the following conclusions, which are worth noting:

Only from 45 to 50 per cent of the first and second-level pupils were qualified. In provinces where conditions were poor the rate was 30 per cent or lower still.

Experts also found out that because of poor quality only 45 to 50 per cent of the pupils were willing to continue their studies. About 10 per cent, for want of perseverance, became discouraged. With their permanent intention to drop-out, they constituted a real problem to both school and society.

Mention should also be made of material conditions during and since the war. While it is true that very great efforts have been exerted to ensure uninterrupted education, material and technical

means provided to schools have proved to be inadequate. This was another cause of poor quality.

During the war, great numbers of schools were destroyed. Classes were conducted mostly in makeshift constructions. The situation had not changed much by 1980-1981, when there were around 14 million pupils in kindergartens and general schools in the whole country.

For the 276,000 kindergarten, basic general and general secondary classes in 1980-1981, there were only 194,000 school rooms, half to them of thatch-and-bamboo. That left about 162,000 classes, or almost 70 per cent unhoused.

By the end of 1980, rooms were provided to only 59 per cent of the kindergarten classes, and 49 per cent of the basic general ones. Also at that time, most of the schools only consisted of classrooms, administrative offices and housing for school personnel. Few were provided with laboratories, playgrounds, libraries or gymnasiums.

Technical equipment could hardly meet the demand for development. For the basic general and secondary general levels, it barely covered 10 per cent of the minimum requirements. School rooms were too crowded and only half of the pupils were provided with desks.

The sharp increase in enrolment over the years and a recent shortage of paper have resulted in a severe shortage of books. As far as pupils were concerned, only 70 per cent of their demand was met. For teachers, both manuals and reference books were in short supply.

Despite great efforts in training, supplies of primary and junior high teachers fell respectively 39 per cent and 17 per cent short of targets as of the end of 1980. Teachers for languages, painting and music, and technical personnel were very hard to get. On the other hand, teacher quality was not up to the mark because of the haste in training. From 20 to 30 per cent of the teachers, mainly primary teachers, were rated by experts as unqualified.

Similarly, managerial skills were not rated highly by experts, who maintained that only about 20 or 30 per cent of the heads of primary and junior high schools were truly capable. The rest, promoted

from teaching jobs, were not experienced as administrators. All this combined to lower pupil quality.

## Magnitude and causes of drop-out

A major concern of educators is the fairly large number of drop-outs which was observed not only during the war but also over recent years.

From 1975 to 1980, about one million pupils gave up studies. The rate was particularly high in areas seriously hit by natural calamities. In Hau Giang Province, southern Viet Nam, the drop-out rate was 70 per cent from grades VI to IX (junior high level), 49 per cent for grade X, and 50 per cent for grade XII. The staying rate for the whole 12 year system was as low as 12 per cent in the same province.

The following drop-out data (Table 4) were compiled by the Department of Planning, Ministry of Education, for the last five years:

**Table 4. Drop-out rates 1975-1976** [1]

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Average rate at primary school | : | 3.81 per cent |
| *grade* | | *Per cent* |
| *I* | : | 5.26 |
| *II* | : | 2.74 |
| *III* | : | 2.33 |
| *IV* | : | 4.86 |
| Average rate at junior high schools | : | 4.38 per cent |
| *grade* | | *Per cent* |
| *V* | : | 2.88 |
| *VI* | : | 4.23 |
| *VII* | : | 3.43 |

The drop-out rate for the primary cycle was particularly high among primary school children in mountain provinces as Table 5 shows:

[1] See Supplementary Table XI for more detailed information. This table is based on the earlier school structure not on the new 12 year structure.

**Table 5. Drop-out in mountain provinces**

| *Province* | *Per cent* |
|---|---|
| Ha Tuyen | 9.50 |
| Binh Tri Thien | 7.80 |
| Hoang Lien Son | 4.70 |
| Kien Giang | 13.00 |
| Song Be | 11.00 |
| Cuu Long | 9.50 |
| Thuan Hai | 7.00 |

In 1977-78, the average drop-out rates at primary schools in northern Viet Nam was 7.74 per cent and in southern Viet Nam 9.79 per cent. At the junior high schools, it was 3.55 and 6.65 per cent for northern and southern Viet Nam respectively. The rate was particularly high in border provinces in northern and southern provinces hit by floods and storms. Primary school enrolment actually decreased by between 5-27 per cent in some of these provinces.

A more complete picture of the situation was given by data obtained on a national scale in 1978-1979, which, in fact, was the peak year. See Table 6 below:

**Table 6. Drop-out rate in Classes (grades) I-IX, 1978-1979**

| *Class/grade* | *I* | *II* | *III* | *IV* | *V* | *VI* | *VII* | *VIII* | *IX* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North | 6.4 | 6.8 | 3.7 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 6.4 | 7.3 | 19.5 | |
| South | 21.7 | 15.8 | 17.5 | 11.5 | 12.1 | 12.7 | 11.3 | 12.5 | 11.8 |

*Source:* Committee for Review of Educational Progress 1975-1980.

The large number of school drop-outs has been attributed to many causes. One is discouragement on the part of confirmed repeaters. This was particularly true with schools in the mountains where teaching quality was poor. In such schools the drop-out rate was as high as 45 or even 50 per cent.

Parental attitude was also found to be a contributive factor. Those parents whose children did well at school were generally willing to allow the latter to complete their education. On the other hand, parents of confirmed repeaters usually made their children, especially their daughters, leave school at the age of 13 or 14, particularly in short-handed families.

It is therefore hoped that a reduction in the number of repeaters and the prevention of belated schooling will help to bring down repetition rate in the 13-14 age-group. Children of this group will then be able to acquire a higher level of education.

Many children had to drop-out because their parents were unable to afford other related expenses even when no school fees were charged, or because they were needed to help out at home. This happened mostly to children at the age of 13 or 14 when they were big enough to work, and accounted for about 35 per cent of the number of drop-outs.

Unsuitable location of schools due to a widely scattered population was also a major obstacle, especially in mountain regions, where pupils usually have to go long distances.

A similar condition existed in lowland regions, but the situation was not as serious as on the highlands. Moreover, with the extension of primary education to all hamlets in 1960, distance is no longer a problem to pupils in lowland regions.

On the whole, about 10 per cent of the drop-out figure was accounted for by school inaccessibility. Another 5 per cent was attributable to war, natural disasters, prolonged illnesses, physical infirmities, sudden misfortunes, or illegal migration abroad (Supplementary Table XIII).

It is a basic policy of the Government to develop education on a large scale and at an accelerated rate to discharge better, the tasks of economic and social construction. This policy has received a warm response from the population and has brought about considerable progress. Advancement, however, has been limited by real difficulties – the many years of war and their aftermath, an undeveloped economy, an inadequate material basis, low training efficiency. etc., hence the great numbers of late beginners, repeaters, and drop-outs.

Sustained efforts, therefore, must be deployed to promote education, while dealing with each specific case of repetition and dropping out and to improve organizational structures to suit specific situations. Efforts have been made towards better quality and better organization.

**Actions to prevent drop-out**

a) **The "Good Teaching Good Study" Movement.** This movement, launched in October 1961, has been regarded as the most essential measure to improve quality.

- Teachers are required to prepare lessons in strict conformity with curricula, to conduct classes with all the zeal required by their profession, to correct papers with great care, and conduct examinations with strictness.
- Teachers must make lessons easy to understand and to apply. For this purpose they must incessantly educate themselves politically and professionally.
- There must be a sense of shared responsibility among teachers and between teachers and pupils, which is essential for socialist education. School-family relations must also be strengthened for better control of pupils' progress.
- The motto for teachers is "All For Our Beloved Pupils". Pupils are required to observe regular attendance, to be attentive, to understand their lessons thoroughly, to give equal attention to all subjects, to combine theory with practice, and to do equally well in scientific, moral, ethical and physical education.
- Pupils must respect their teachers and share with them the responsibility for socialist education. They must value friendship among themselves and must help one another to make progress.

b) **Co-operation with parents and mass organizations**

- The school, as the principal educator, will seek the co-operation of parents and mass organizations to see to it that children get the full benefit of education. As

an "educational adviser" the school will also make suggestions to parents on how best to bring up their children.

- Mass organizations such as the Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union, the Ho Chi Minh Young Pioneers Brigade, and others will do their share in extra curricular education under school guidance.

- Parents' Associations will motivate parents to provide full education and to set good examples to their children.

The movement for better quality has, in fact, given rise to many support actions over the past years, notably the campaigns among pupils for "A Thousand Good Deeds to Put Into Practice Uncle Ho's Teachings: Love of the Country and the People, Unity and Discipline, Good Studies and Work, Hygiene, Honesty and Courage" and for the honorary titles of "Uncle Ho's Good Nephew" and "Uncle Ho's Good Niece".

Members of the youth union and parents have tried to prove by concrete deeds that they are "Model Brother", "Model Sister" and "Model Parent" while motivating other adults to do likewise. Parents also strive for the "Model Family" title, which is granted to households of good internal harmony and good relations with neighbours.

The Teachers' Union, for its part, motivates its members to strive for the "Socialist Labour Team" title by acquiring higher efficiency through collective compilation of lessons and through the establishment of effective classroom procedures. Teachers are asked to follow closely the progress of each pupil, especially the weakest. Teachers also join parents in enforcing a rational timetable at home.

c) **Accelerated development in mountain regions.** The Government of Viet Nam has consistently worked for the full development of the mountain regions. For this end, it has given every chance to minority ethnic groups to catch up with the rest of the population in education and in other fields. The Ministry of Education, as early as in 1955, started formulating vernacular scripts, which are regarded as a principal instrument for mountain tribes to achieve full economic and cultural development and attain equality with the majority ethnic group.

According to this policy, the Vietnamese language, in its spoken and written form, is regarded as the official language for the whole country, the main mode of communication among the various nationalities. All citizens, therefore, are required to use it. Tribal languages, as tribal legacies, are preserved and used locally, along with the official language. Those tribes which have not invested a written form for their languages are helped to create their own scripts. Tribal scripts are taught along with the national script at primary schools in mountain areas, to provide bilingual skills to pupils. Where mountain tribes are fluent in the national language, it may be used as the principal language, while tribal languages will be taught as a secondary subject. In areas where the national language is not commonly spoken, the official language will be taught, with explanations made in the tribal languages, until proficiency with the official language is achieved.

d) **Teacher education.** Teacher education has been stepped up over the years despite difficulties in many fields. In southern Viet Nam, for instance, there was an increase of approximately 10,000 primary school teachers and of 13,684 teachers for junior high schools from 1976 to 1981 – an annual rate of 23 per cent, compared with an increase of 6 per cent in the northern provinces. Also in the south there were 6,616 more senior high teachers in the same period, or an annual increase of 8.4 per cent, compared with 6.4 per cent in the north. To cope with the pressing demand, training time has to be cut, to the detriment of proficiency. The following table shows the state of teacher education in 1979-1980:

**Table 7. Teachers by level and training 1979-80**

| | *Primary (First Level)* | *Junior High (Second Level)* | *Senior High (Third Level)* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total: | 217,473 | 125 672 | 30,492 |
| Women | 139,905 | 71,610 | 12,223 |
| Minority nationals | 12,341 | 357 | 945 |
| Below 30 years of age | 112,120 | 75,500 | 5,414 |
| Seniority 5 years | 82,401 | 52,854 | 10,969 |
| 15 years | 32,793 | 17,889 | 5,196 |
| Qualified | 13.7% | 32% | 73% |

The quality of the teaching personnel at teachers' schools also leaves much to be desired. About half of the number of the teachers in these schools are fresh in their jobs (from one to five years), and only 6 per cent have acquired post-university education. The Ministry of Education, therefore, has given teacher training a central position, and the Government has decreed an 8-month year for teachers at all levels. One of the remaining months is for vacation, and the three others are for complementary training. Teachers can further their education through in-service, full-time, or correspondence courses.

e) **Combination of state and private contributions:**

With the end of the war, there was a sharp increase in enrolment at all levels, as can be seen in Table 8:

**Table 8. Enrolment increases 1972-75**

| | *Enrolment* | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Year* | *Kindergarten* | *Pre-school education* | *At the three levels of the general school* |
| 1972-1973 | 268,810 | 940,557 | 4,675,727 |
| 1973-1974 | 311,680 | 871,037 | 5,067,680 |
| 1974-1975 | 405,937 | 1,237,233 | 5,248,055 |

The result was a serious shortage in school space. Schools in urban areas had to take in three, even four, shifts a day. There was an average of 60 pupils to a class, and school activities were chaotic as a consequence. To cope with the situation the Prime Minister, in November 1973, decreed the mobilization of all private and collective resources to improve the material basis of education. New schools were then built and old ones repaired with voluntary contributions by civilians, the army, public offices and mass organizations. Extra-curricular activities of teachers and pupils were also directed toward this end.

## Steps toward better organization and management

The following steps have been taken with good results:

a) Boarding schools: The first schools of this type were

opened as early as 1948, during the war against the French, to accommodate those who had left French-occupied areas for the free zone. Pupils were issued clothes and stationery, and teachers also lived in. Thanks to this arrangement, pupils who would otherwise have been forced to give up studies were able to go on with their education under reliable surveillance of their teachers, and parents were thus free to devote themselves to revolutionary work.

b) "Teachers to seek pupils": The putting into effect of this slogan has brought about good results, particularly in sparsely populated mountain regions, where drop-out rate was traditionally high. To remedy the situation, teachers have been assigned to remote hamlets to live with the inhabitants, and classes are held for every four or five pupils.

c) Boarding schools in remote regions: For these types of schools, study and living facilities are provided by the State while food is supplied by parents. Children enjoy permanent guidance in their studies as well as in their recreational and productive activities. Communal life has also promoted unity among the various nationalities, while preserving and enhancing customs peculiar to each. Teachers assigned to these schools are required to be familiar with local ways. Many have in fact become "Labour Heroes" because of their devotion and their success in public relations. At the same time, a number of the schools have been cited as models for the whole country, among them the kindergarten school at Trung Bi, a Muong village in Ha Son Binh province, which has provided primary education to all inhabitants, and the village school at Muong Te, an area inhabited by Thai and Muong nationals in Son La province, where all inhabitants – children and adults alike – are attending first-level courses. The primary school at La Pan Tan, a village inhabited at Hmong nationals in the northern district of Nghia Lo, is another good example of parent motivation, organization, and efficient teaching. As a result, 1974-1975 saw an increase of 4.8 per cent in primary enrolment and of 19 per cent in junior high enrolment, in the 12 mountain provinces in northern Viet Nam.

d) Semi-boarding schools: Schools of this type are designed to satisfy parents who do not wish to have their children stay away the whole week. Pupils, in this case, bring their own lunches and spend the whole day at school before going home in the evening.

e) Mixed classes: In areas where it is impossible to hold

classes separately because of inadequate attendance, mixed classes – grades I and II, grades III and IV, etc. – are organized. This, of course, makes teaching complicated but a resourceful teacher and good planning can do away with the problem.

f) Special classes: For children who begin school late (at 8, 9 or 10 years), special classes are held, which cover both the pre-school programme and the grade I curriculum in one year. This enables pupils to continue to move to grade II in the following year. 10-year olds are allowed to continue to grade II at general schools if they so wish, or will be inducted into complementary schools to complete primary education. Special classes give priority to older children and lay great stress on quality. Thanks to them, primary education was made compulsory in most of the provinces and in 90 per cent of the villages in the northern plains in late 1960, with school attendance by 90 per cent of the 6-11 age group. Then, in 1960-1961, 300,000 more drop-outs returned to school.

g) Teachers in-charge: A system has been instituted by which each class is placed under the special charge of a teacher, who is responsible for all its activities, and who is chosen for his zeal, his proficiency in organization, and skills in public relations. Teachers in-charge are required to know their pupils well in order to be able to better guide them in their studies. They must work in close co-operation with other teachers, the youth union and the young pioneers union, in related activities, especially in promoting the sense of collective mastery, in encouraging pupil initiative, in ensuring discipline etc. Teachers in-charge are required to co-operate closely with parents and other concerned parties in evaluating progress, in nominating candidates for commendations, in making decisions concerning upgrading or intensive vacation instructions, etc. Teachers in-charge thus play a very important role in parent motivation. They are also a great help to potential repeaters and drop-outs, and many of them have been commended for their sustained efforts and great success.

h) Parents' Associations are designed to strengthen school-family co-operation for better education. They operate through permanent committees composed of the most active members elected to represent all the classes at the beginning of every school year. The main functions of these committees are to assist school authorities in explaining educational policies to parents, enhancing

the latter's educational awareness and responsibility, guiding them in carrying out agreements with the school, giving them advice concerning their children's vocations, and assisting in job training. They have to also motivate parents to provide necessary conditions for their children's studies and establish a rational timetable at home, to mobilize material contributions, to help teachers in field work, and draw capable parents into extra-curricula activities, and to act as spokesmen on behalf of parents. In fact, school-family relations have been strengthened a great deal, thanks to the existence of Parents' Associations, which have been particularly successful in urging unwilling parents to allow their children to complete their education. Private contributions have played a very important role. During the war, when schools had to move from place to place, homes and barns were offered for classrooms. Owners would readily make necessary alterations for the convenience of teachers and pupils, or have their orchards cleared and their paved courtyards demolished for the construction of air raid shelters. For better precaution, classrooms were provided with heavily thatched ceilings and surrounded with solid walls of beaten earth, and trenches were built between the desks for quick evacuation. Casaulties, therefore, were limited to a minimum and parents could go about their business assured of the safety of their children.

This initiative on the part of the population was contributive to the steady development of education. Enrolment for all the three levels in 1967-1968 was 3,703,200, up by more than one million compared with 1964-1965, the first year of war. The average annual increase rate was 11.25 per cent. There were 23 pupils to every hundred inhabitants, and of the total number, 40 per cent were girls.

The war over, greater contributions were made for the restoration of damaged schools and the construction of new ones. In Vinh Bao district, Hai Phong, for instance, private contributions covered 85 per cent of all the construction costs. New schools, built with private and collective donations, appeared everywhere, even in remote mountain areas. On the whole, private contributions accounted for half of the construction investments made immediately after the war.

i) Care of war orphans: One direct consequence of the war is the great number of orphans, and their upbringing is the concern of

the whole population. These children are adopted by volunteers, and receive allowances in money or stationery from agricultural co-operatives or other production units. In addition to regular class attendance, they receive special tuition at home to make up for what they have missed.

All schools, in their annual plans, have special provisions regarding war orphans, and teachers in-charge will regularly make home visits to inquire into their living conditions and studies. School Councils, at the same time, assign special tutors to those who need intensive instruction, and libraries give priority to war orphans. Teachers who sponsor war orphans receive preferential treatment themselves. Those who take charge of three children or more are assigned fewer periods than others, or are exempted from communal activities. They are also paid for work done in their spare time. Teachers with outstanding services to war orphans are commended by the State.

### Steps to enable drop-outs to return to school

Belated schooling and dropping out remain a major problem, as revealed by a recent survey in the Mekong River delta.

- There was a relapse into illiteracy owing to lack of follow-up measures.
- The number of children without schooling kept increasing over the years and swelled the total number of illiterates.
- Late beginners were common, and differences in age in a class might vary from five to eight years.
- From 30 per cent to 40 per cent of the school-age children still remained at home.
- Premature termination of education was also common. The average rate was 19.60 per cent at the first level and 23.90 per cent at the second level.

This situation, as in the rest of the country, was due to lack of facilities and poor quality. There were not enough teachers, especially for primary classes. Teacher quality was low. Of the existing contingent 25 per cent or 30 per cent did not have proper training. Facilities were inadequate. One classroom would often be shared by

two to three classes, and a desk by two or three pupils. Books were scarce, so were teaching aids and stationery. What happened in the Mekong River delta, happened in other parts of the country, especially in the mountain regions and areas directly affected by war and natural calamities.

A programme was therefore advanced to induct most of the school-age children and help them through the third grade, thus providing them with a stepping-stone to higher grades through complementary education.

The programme consisted of the following steps:

- Relocation of primary schools to make them more accessible.
- The opening of more state-funded boarding schools at district level in remote mountain regions or sparsely populated areas in the lowlands, and the granting of more scholarships to war orphans and children of needy families.
- The introduction of an abridged primary curriculum, which concentrates on the most essential subjects (Vietnamese, arithmetic, basic notions of natural and social sciences, and manual labour), and which covers from 26 to 28 weeks only (schedules for this type of school may differ from one place to another to suit local conditions).
- Modifications to compress a normal three-year programme into two years to enable pupils to move up to higher grades in a normal way or through adult complementary education.
- Permission for remote areas to run private primary schools, under the supervision of the educational service. This is based on the principle of joint state-private endeavour.
- Continuation of research for more efficient methods to teach both tribal and national languages in mountain regions.
- Providing primary school teachers with the ability to teach mixed classes.

- Intensive effort to observe age limits and improve quality at the second level of the basic general school. Motivation is coupled with material incentive in the form of scholarships.
- In mountain or riverine areas, boarders may be divided into small groups and billeted in private homes. Land may also be allotted to parents to build dwellings for their children.
- The opening of special junior-high schools to teach reduced or selected subjects, with stress on Vietnamese, mathematics and biology (agricultural techniques and common notions of physics and chemistry may also be taught). Encouragement is given to schools which combine the ordinary junior-high curriculum with job training. Such schools are usually connected with productive units or technical centres, for assistance and guidance. This form of theoretical and practical education, initiated during the war and successfully applied for many years, has enabled a great number of former drop-outs to pick up their studies and complete the junior-high programme while acquiring a paying trade.
- Private junior-high schools are allowed wherever public schools are not available. However, teachers, programmes, etc., must be subject to strict supervision by the educational authorities. Pupils of these schools may transfer to public schools teaching abridged programmes, and may take national examinations for graduation from the basic general school.
- Drop-outs from 15 years of age upward who are not in a position to attend any of the previously mentioned schools may receive complementary education, which is given to adults through state-financed full-time courses or in-service courses. Full-time courses are available mainly at work-and-study schools, worker-peasant complementary schools, and schools for minority nationals, all of which take boarders.

**Conclusion:**

The many types of schools listed above, varied in form and practical purpose, have proved to be very beneficial to children who,

due to unfavourable circumstances, are unable to afford formal schooling, but who are willing to improve their education one way or another.

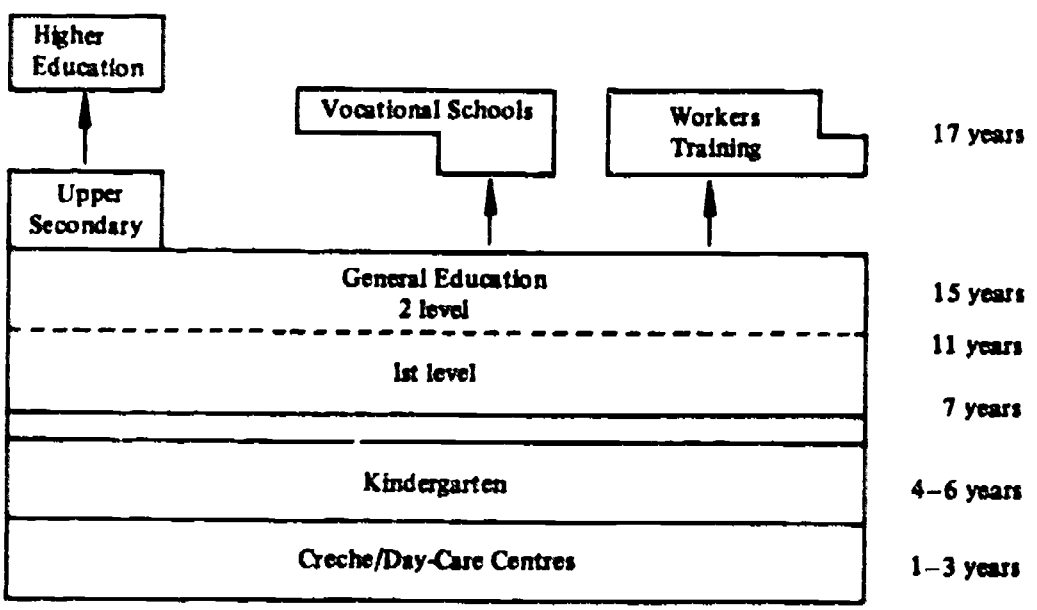
## SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

### I. Population by age groups (1979)

| *Age Groups* | *Total* | *Male* | *Female* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0–2 | 4,657,822 | 2,389,880 | 2,267,342 |
| 3–6 | 6,196,016 | 3,159,984 | 3,036,032 |
| 7–15 | 12,963,544 | 6,667,313 | 6,296,231 |
| 16–30 | 13,861,021 | 6,541,101 | 7,315,920 |
| 31–40 | 4,373,710 | 2,065,028 | 2,308,682 |
| 41–50 | 4,084,833 | 1,907,721 | 2,177,112 |
| 51–64 | 4,080,969 | 1,855,393 | 2,225,576 |
| 65–up | 2,523,851 | 990,162 | 1,533,689 |
| Total | 52,741,766 | 25,580,582 | 27,161,184 |

*Source:* 1 October 1979 Census.

### II. Structure of the educational system in Viet Nam




*Source:* Ministry of Education.

### III. Average pupils per 10 thousand inhabitants

| *Year* | *Thousands* |
|---|---|
| 1975 | 2.5 |
| 1976 | 2.6 |
| 1979 | 2.7 |

### Pupils in general education

*– millions –*

| *Year* | *Males* | *Females* | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1975 | 4.9 | 5.4 | 10.3 |
| 1976 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 10.8 |
| 1979 | 5.5 | 6.3 | 11.8 |

### Pupils in technical secondary schools

*– thousands –*

| *Year* | *Males* | *Females* | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1975 | 46 | 50 | 96 |
| 1976 | 59 | 55 | 114 |
| 1979 | 102 | 68 | 170 |

### Students in universities

*– thousands –*

| *Year* | *Males* | *Females* | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1975 | 66 | 26 | 92 |
| 1976 | 75 | 26 | 101 |
| 1979 | 122 | 37 | 159 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV.

## IV. Kindergartens

| | | *1976-1977* | *1977-1978* | *1978-1979* | *1979-1980* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Classrooms | | | | | |
| | (thousands) | 25.5 | 32.3 | 40.3 | 48.5 |
| Teachers | | | | | |
| | (thousands) | 27.1 | 39.2 | 48.3 | 56.6 |
| Children | (thousands) | 823 | 1102 | 1125 | 1477 |
| of which : | | | | | |
| | Females | 379 | 507 | 634 | 774 |
| | Males | 444 | 595 | 491 | 703 |
| Average number of Teacher per 1 classroom | | | | | |
| | (persons) | 1 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.2 |
| Average number of children per 1 classroom | | | | | |
| | (persons) | 32 | 34 | 27 | 30 |
| Average number of children per teacher | | | | | |
| | (persons) | 30 | 28 | 23 | 26 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV.

## V. Courses attendance

| *Year* | *Total* | *of which* | | | | *Average pupils per 10 thousands inhabitants* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Pupils in general Education* | *Pupils in Adult education* | *Pupils of Technical secondary school* | *Students in Universities* | |
| | *(thousands)* | *Thousands* | *Thousands* | *Thousands* | *Thousands* | *Persons* |
| 1975-76 | 12.106 | 10.320 | 1.598 | 96 | 92 | 2541 |
| 1976-77 | 12.739 | 10.831 | 1.693 | 114 | 101 | 2591 |
| 1977-78 | 13.206 | 11.158 | 1.788 | 125 | 135 | 2619 |
| 1978-79 | 14.099 | 11.930 | 1.877 | 138 | 154 | 2742 |
| 1979-80 | 14.165 | 11.804 | 2.032 | 170 | 159 | 2700 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV.

## VI. General education classrooms

| Year | Total (thousands) | of which | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | First level | Second level | Third level |
| 1975-76 | 258,8 | 195,8 | 52,4 | 10,6 |
| 1976-77 | 276,2 | 208,1 | 57,3 | 10,8 |
| 1977-78 | 282,9 | 209,0 | 62,4 | 11,5 |
| 1978-79 | 292,3 | 210,9 | 69,0 | 12,4 |
| 1979-80 | 302,1 | 215,8 | 73,1 | 13,2 |
| | | Index (1975-1976 = 100) % | | |
| 1976-77 | 106,7 | 106,3 | 109,4 | 102,1 |
| 1977-78 | 109,3 | 106,7 | 119,0 | 108,4 |
| 1978-79 | 112,9 | 107,7 | 131,6 | 116,9 |
| 1979-80 | 116,7 | 110,2 | 139,5 | 124,5 |
| | | Structure % | | |
| 1975-76 | 100 | 75,6 | 20,2 | 4,2 |
| 1976-77 | 100 | 75,3 | 20,7 | 4,0 |
| 1977-78 | 100 | 73,8 | 22,0 | 4,2 |
| 1978-79 | 100 | 72,1 | 23,6 | 4,3 |
| 1979-80 | 100 | 71,4 | 24,2 | 4,4 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV

## VII. Teachers in general education

| Year | Total | of which | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | First level | Second level | Third level |
| | | | (thousands) | |
| 1975-76 | 313,4 | 205,0 | 85,7 | 22,7 |
| 1976-77 | 336,5 | 217,1 | 94,3 | 25,1 |
| 1977-78 | 359,3 | 228,0 | 104,1 | 27,2 |
| 1978-79 | 363,8 | 228,7 | 107,1 | 28,0 |
| 1979-80 | 356,7 | 213,2 | 114,8 | 28,7 |
| | | Index (1975-1976 = 100) % | | |
| 1975-76 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1976-77 | 107,4 | 105,9 | 110,0 | 110,6 |
| 1977-78 | 114,6 | 111,3 | 121,5 | 119,8 |
| 1978-79 | 116,1 | 111,6 | 124,9 | 123,3 |
| 1979-80 | 113,8 | 104,0 | 133,9 | 126,4 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV.

## VIII. Pupils in general education

| *Year* | *Total* | *of which* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *First level* | *Second level* | *Third level* |
| | | | Thousands | |
| 1975-76 | 10.320 | 7404 | 2410 | 506 |
| 1976-77 | 10.831 | [illegible]3 | 2600 | 50[illegible] |
| 1977-78 | 11.158 | [illegible]7 | 2761 | 540 |
| 1978-79 | 11.930 | 8286 | 3040 | 604 |
| 1979-80 | 11.804 | 8026 | 3140 | 638 |
| | | Index (1975-1976 = 100) % | | |
| 1975-76 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1976-77 | 104,9 | 104,3 | 107,9 | 100,6 |
| 1977-78 | 108,1 | 106,1 | 114,5 | 106,7 |
| 1978-79 | 115,6 | 111,9 | 126,1 | 119,3 |
| 1979-80 | 114,3 | 108,4 | 130,2 | 126,1 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV.

## IX. School-girls in general education.

| *Year* | *Total* | *of which* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *First level* | *Second level* | *Third level* |
| | | | Thousands | |
| 1975-76 | 4910,6 | 3550,8 | 1140,8 | 219,0 |
| 1976-77 | 5059,0 | 3638,8 | 1198,8 | 221,4 |
| 1977-78 | 5166,8 | 3666,8 | 1263,1 | 237,6 |
| 1978-79 | 5289,7 | 3739,4 | 1298,0 | 252,3 |
| 1979-80 | 5557,4 | 3763,0 | 1487,9 | 306,5 |
| | | Index (1975-1976 = 100) % | | |
| 1975-76 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1976-77 | 103,0 | 102,4 | 105,0 | 101,1 |
| 1977-78 | 105,2 | 103,2 | 110,7 | 108,5 |
| 1978-79 | 107,7 | 105,4 | 113,7 | 115,2 |
| 1979-80 | 113,1 | 105,9 | 130,4 | 139,9 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV.

**X. Minority pupils in general education.**

| *Year* | *Total* | *of which* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *First level* | *Second level* | *Third level* |
| | | Thousands | | |
| 1975-76 | 1113,3 | 950,0 | 144,4 | 18,9 |
| 1976-77 | 1155,3 | 958,3 | 174,8 | 22,2 |
| 1977-78 | 1082,2 | 880,4 | 178,9 | 22,9 |
| 1978-79 | 1090,1 | 885,4 | 181,2 | 23,5 |
| 1979-80 | 1175,7 | 955,6 | 194,7 | 25,4 |
| | | Index (1975-1976 = 100) % | | |
| 1975-76 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1976-77 | 103,7 | 100,8 | 121,0 | 117,4 |
| 1977-78 | 97,2 | 92,6 | 123,8 | 121,1 |
| 1978-79 | 97,9 | 93,2 | 125,5 | 124,3 |
| 1979-80 | 105,6 | 100,5 | 134,8 | 134,4 |

*Source:* General Statistical Office SRV.

**XI. Average of drop-outs in first level and in second level education in the whole country -- as a percentage**

| *School year* | *First level education* | *Second level education* |
|---|---|---|
| 1976-1977 | 12,65 | 11,28 |
| 1977-1978 | 14,85 | 7,59 |
| 1978-1979 | 12,08 | 11,98 |
| 1979-1980 | 10,54 | 12,07 |
| 1980-1981 | 10,20 | 16,50 |
| | In 11 mountainous provinces | |
| 1976-1977 | 13,61 | 10,28 |
| 1977-1978 | 15,85 | 7,81 |
| 1978-1979 | 15,58 | 9,64 |
| 1979-1980 | 13,15 | 14,01 |
| 1980-1981 | 15,67 | 16,08 |
| | In 20 delta provinces (11 provinces of the Red River Delta 9 provinces of the Mekong Delta) | |
| 1976-1977 | 13,10 | 12,71 |
| 1977-1978 | 11,09 | 8,99 |
| 1978-1979 | 10,33 | 12,69 |
| 1979-1980 | 10,7 | 13,61 |
| 1980-1981 | 15,51 | 19,77 |

*Source:* Department of Planning – Ministry of Education SRV.

## XII. The average educational level of the 15-year-old populations of the villages in a district: An Thuy district – Hai Phong – School-year: 1972-73

| *Villages* | *15-year-old pop.* | *Rates of finishing primary edu. (per cent)* | *Average edu. level of 15-year-old pop. (Grade)* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ngu Doan | 153 | 87.0 | 6.3 |
| Tan Trao | 143 | 87.4 | 6.7 |
| Dai Ha | 114 | 80.7 | 5.4 |
| Thuy Huong | 85 | 92.9 | 6.3 |
| Thanh Son | 108 | 85.2 | 6.1 |
| Thuan Thien | 128 | 79.6 | 5.9 |
| Huu Bang | 93 | 88.9 | 6.1 |
| Ngu Phuc | 147 | 74.8 | 5.3 |
| Kien Quoc | 258 | 78.5 | 5.2 |
| Doan Xa | 168 | 58.8 | 4.5 |
| Dai Hop | 184 | 84.0 | 5.4 |
| Tu Son | 174 | 80.5 | 5.5 |
| Tan Phong | 124 | 79.0 | 5.69 |
| Hop Duc | 230 | 82.6 | 5.9 |
| Hoa Nghia | 128 | 82.9 | 5.9 |
| Minh Tan | 143 | 85.3 | 5.8 |
| Dong Phuong | 127 | 80.8 | 5.5 |
| Dai Dong | 99 | 76.7 | 5.95 |
| Hung Dao | 163 | 81.2 | 6.4 |
| Anh Dung | 79 | 77.2 | 5.3 |
| Da Phuc | 165 | 78.3 | 5.4 |
| An Thai | 150 | 79.8 | 5.5 |
| An Tho | 101 | 82.8 | 5.9 |
| My Duc | 214 | 75.2 | 4.78 |
| Chien Thang | 111 | 89.2 | 6.2 |
| Quoc Tuan | 268 | 87.3 | 5.9 |
| Tan Vien | 194 | 67.0 | 5.0 |
| Tan Dan | 206 | 87.8 | 6.3 |
| An Thang | 144 | 91.0 | 6.1 |
| Truong Son | 72 | 86.0 | 5.94 |
| Thai Son | 229 | 62.0 | 4.93 |
| An Tien | 181 | 89.5 | 6.1 |
| Truong Thanh | 114 | 70.9 | 5.57 |
| Truong Tho | 210 | 93.3 | 6.5 |
| Quang Trung | 142 | 69.0 | 5.07 |
| Quang Hung | 83 | 89.1 | 6.01 |
| Bat Trang | 226 | 91.2 | 6.2 |
| Total | 5763 | 81.95 | 5.74 |

*Source:* Results of the Surveys on Educational Universalization, conducted by Hai Phong Education Office.

**XIII**

| *Place* | *Number of 6-year-olds without schooling* | *Due to physical infirmities* | *Due to prolonged illnesses* | *Due to parents failure to see the necessity* | *Having to do baby-sitting at home* | *Because of distant schools* | *Because of financial difficulties* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hong Duong, Ha Tay | 45 | 1 | 4 | 35 | 5 | | |
| Yen Tien, Nam Ha | 93 | 3 | 11 | 60 | 19 | | |
| Hai Long, Nam Ha | 56 | 3 | 6 | 33 | 13 | 1 | |
| Co Am, Hai Phong | 73 | 1 | 8 | 60 | 2 | | 2 |
| Ngu Doan, Hai Phong | 31 | 7 | 15 | 12 | 15 | | 2 |
| Vinh Long, Hai Phong | 34 | 1 | 8 | 23 | 1 | | 1 |
| Dai Thang, Hai Phong | 47 | 1 | 7 | 31 | 7 | | 1 |

# SRI LANKA

*By S.M.D. Perera and R. Wijedasa*

## Magnitude and characteristics of the drop-out problem

The comprehensive phase of schooling in Sri Lanka is a sequential period, commencing from the lower kindergarten, at approximately five years of age up to grade X. For the purpose of this study, the upper grade has been restricted to grade VIII, to be in line with most past studies on this subject. Further, the period of 5-14 years of age is generally regarded as the compulsory stage of education, although it has not been made so by law. The comprehensive phase of schooling is therefore defined as the period 5 to 14 years of age, and the grade range I to VII. A drop-out will be regarded as a person who leaves school without having completed grade VIII.

**Non-participants in the educational system.** The enrolment at all levels in the school system has shown a considerable increase with the educational changes introduced over the years. The percentage of non-attendance of the 5-14 year group over the years shows a decrease (Supplementary Table I). For 1979 it was 22 per cent. The age group of 5-14 years comprises approximately 24 per cent of the total population of the island. The number of children who do not attend school at all is approximately 10-15 per cent of this age group. In 1981 this percentage was reduced to approximately 10 per cent.

The 1973 Consumer Finance Survey (Supplementary Tables II and III), provides a picture of the "non-schooling" situation in the country, in terms of geographical areas and ethnic stratifications. The estate sector represented the highest non-schooling percentage of 51.7, with the rural sector at 31 per cent. In terms of geographic zones, Zone 4 which includes the hill country and rural areas, again represented the highest non-schooling percentage of 36.7. In the ethnic breakdown, on the 1973 survey, the highest percentage without schooling, at 51.5 is with the Indian Tamil population, who are predominently in the estate sector. Next is sequence, are the Moor

group and the Kandyan Sinhala group. This data is further confirmed when the distribution of students in Government Schools by ethnic groups is considered (Supplementary Table IV).

In 1971, the data on the percentage population with "no schooling" in terms of age and sex indicated serious shortfalls among females, which increased with the age cohorts (Supplementary Table V). However, this situation is being remedied rapidly with the high enrolment of girls in the school system.

**Late entrants.** A study done by the Statistical Unit of the Ministry of Education, indicated that in 1979, 23 per cent did not enter school at the official age of school entry (5+ years). Ten per cent entered at 6+ or 7+ years and 5 per cent at 8+ years. A group of almost 8 per cent did not enter school at all. Of the total number of 334,970 pupils who entered kindergartens in 1980, 276,407 entered at age 5+, 42,394 pupils entered at the age of 6+, 11,535 entered at the age of 7+, and 4,635 pupils at 8+ and above. The late entrants made up almost 17.3 per cent of the total.

Supplementary Table VI, taken from the 1977 School Census, indicates the percentage entering schools late. Once again, the highest percentages in the late entrants come from districts which are predominantly rural or of the estate sector, and/or contain large concentrations of the particular ethnic groups referred to earlier. Late entry is a recognized feature of low socio-economic conditions of families and simultaneously parental attitudes towards schooling.

**Grade repeaters.** The data on grade repeaters for the years 1974-1979 (Supplementary Table VII), indicate a reduction in grade repetition at each grade over the period. The district breakdown of repeaters (1977) (Supplementary Table VIII) indicates the highest values in those districts with rural and estate concentrations, and concentrations of the same ethnic groups as before. It should be noted that the 1972 reforms did introduce automatic promotion into the education system. However, in practice, the reform has not been universally applied. The Ministry of Education data show that some 15 per cent of the pupils are slow learners due to accumulated learning difficulties. The current White Paper on Education outlining reforms to be introduced in the system, has proposed the following for the evaluation of learners at the primary level:

Assessment of pupil performance at the primary level will seek to promote the child's growth as a person acquiring skills and will be a part of the teaching activity. Frequent testing and multiplicity of tests will both be avoided. There will be general testing every term with provisions for learning of a topic for remedial action.

**Schooling participants.** Not only has the percentage participation improved between 1948-1980, but within the last few years, transition ratios within the system have also improved. For example, for *100* students entering grade *I*, Table 1 makes a comparison between 1974 and 1979.

**Table 1. Improvement of transition ratios 1974-1979**

| | *1974* | *1979* |
|---|---|---|
| Passed out of grade V | 52 | 73 |
| Passed out of grade IX and sat for grade X exam | 46 | 51 |
| Studied in grades XI, XII | 14 | 24 |
| Entered University | 2 | 2 |

*Source:* School Census 1974/1979.

The participation rates for the various age groups in 1979 are indicated in Table 2 for the whole country.

**Table 2. Participation ratios 1979**

| *Age Group* | *Total population (000s)* | *School-going population (000s)* | *Non-school going population (000s)* | *Participation Ratio (per cent)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5+ | 348.2 | 271.7 | 76.5 | 78 |
| 6+ | 360.9 | 310.9 | 50.0 | 86 |
| 7+ | 358.5 | 311.1 | 47.4 | 87 |
| 8+ | 346.4 | 307.7 | 38.7 | 89 |
| 9+ | 349.1 | 301.9 | 47.2 | 86 |
| 10 | 357.9 | 296.6 | 61.3 | 83 |
| 11 | 344.9 | 272.0 | 72.9 | 79 |
| 12+ | 345.3 | 234.6 | 110.7 | 68 |
| 13+ | 338.7 | 214.5 | 124.2 | 63 |
| 14+ | 327.0 | 188.9 | 138.1 | 58 |
| Total | 3,476.9 | 2,709.9 | 767.0 | 78 |

*Source:* School Census and Census of Population.

*The drop-out problem in primary education*

Over the last few years, 340,000 to 375,000 reached the age of 5 years, the age of entry to schools. However, only an average of 77 per cent entered school. The balance entered "late", and about 10 per cent never entered school.

A study in 1979 indicates the following:

- Total population at 5-14 years of age. 3.48 million.
- Population in Schools (5-14 years), 2.71 million.
- The balance of 0.76 million comprises:
  - Pupils entering at 6, 7 and 8 years of age – 126,000
  - Disabled children – 26,000
  - Children who never enter school – 250,000
  - Drop-outs – 367,000

The 1974 School Census indicated that, in general, it could be said that the estate areas, the Tamil speaking areas other than Jaffna, and the areas with a majority of Muslims, show a low participation rate. As would be expected, the largest participation is at the primary level. A gradual fall in the junior secondary level, and a sharp reduction at the senior secondary level, at ages of 15-19 years, are characteristics of the distribution. The social and religious customs, paucity of facilities in estate and remote rural areas, and low socio-economic status, have had their efforts on participation in the school system.

**Participation by sex.** Sexwise, more males participate in the school system at lower grades, while from grade VII and above, females predominate, and this tendency is on the increase in higher educational institutions.

**Table 3. Ratios of males and females**

| *Grades* | *Males* | *Females* |
|---|---|---|
| Kindergarten (Grade I) | 107 | 100 |
| Grade II | 106 | 100 |
| Grade V | 104 | 100 |
| Grade VIII | 97 | 100 |
| Grade XI | 89 | 100 |

*Source:* School Census 1979

For 1980, 1,211,493 females were enrolled in grades I to VIII, compared to 1,375,554 males; or 88 females participate for every 100 males in the compulsory stages of education. The female participation is approximately 65 per cent of the total female population in this age group. The School Census for 1980 also indicates that 50.8 per cent are males, while 48.2 per cent are females, in grades I to VIII. There is a 20 per cent drop in enrolment at grade V, and a 55 per cent drop at grade VIII, compared to the enrolment at the kindergarten grade.

At the level of the education region, male and female participation was almost comparable, with males participating at a slightly higher percentage in grades I-V. From grades VI to VIII female participation was higher in Colombo, Kalutara, Matara, Matale, Hambantota, Kurunegala, Anuradhapura, Polonnaruwa, Moneragala, Ratnapura and Kegalle regions. These generally comprise a majority of the Sinhala speaking areas. On the other hand, Nuwara-Eliya, Jaffna, Batticaloa, Mannar, Amparai, Trincomalee and Puttalam, showed a greater male participation in higher grades. These areas are the Tamil and Muslim predominating areas, where the religious and social customs do not favour females being out of their homes during the post adolescent stages of life.

The drop-outs. Drop-out and drop-out ratios from 1973/74 to 1978/79 are given in Supplementary Table IX. The ratios indicate an overall reduction of the drop-outs till 1979. Examining the drop-out ratios in the grades, however, it is noticed that from grade III, there is a gradual increase in the drop-outs. Even grade I records a drop-out, which means that after only one year of schooling, a substantial portion leaves the schools. A similar situation exists for grade II. High drop-out rates in the early grades are recorded in the Tamil and Muslim areas of the Eastern Coast of Sri Lanka, the estate areas and the rural agricultural districts.

Supplementary Table X gives an idea of the drop-outs, sexwise, in schools in 1979. More males drop-out from grade I to grade IX. However the proportion of drop-outs of males is higher in higher grades than in lower grades, when compared with the female drop-out rate. From grade VI onwards there is an increasing participation of females over males, in the school system. On the 1979/1980 data, the highest drop-out rates are in the Estate/Tamil/Muslim areas, followed by the agricultural regions, and the lowest drop-outs are

recorded in the more active commercial areas with a predominance of the urban populations. The districts of Colombo, Kegalle, Gampaha, Kalutara, Kandy, Galle, Matara, Jaffna and Kurunegala have a steady participation from grade I to grade VII and beyond to grade X, and also records the lowest drop-out rates. These are the main centres of commercial activity, with key towns, in Sri Lanka. It must be indicated, however, that pockets of low income population groups exist within districts with low overall drop-out rates, and these groups generally reflect higher drop-out rates.

**Special drop-out problems.** Four groups need special and detailed attention in regard to drop-outs:

a) Estate areas;

b) Urban low income or deprived areas;

c) Schools in remote rural areas; and

d) Schools in areas targeted for development.

a) *Estate areas.* A total of 580 estate schools have been taken over by the Government to date. The total student population in these schools is approximately 60,000. Practically all the estate schools have classes only up to grade V. Opportunities for further education, within the estate areas, are almost nil. The non-attendance in this age group is 35 per cent. The drop-outs before completing the end of the primary cycle i.e., grade V, is 44 per cent for the years 1976-1981. This is one of the highest for the entire island for the primary stage. Girls participate less than boys in all five grades. The non-attendance percentage areas (1981), where estates are located, are given in Supplementary Table XI.

b) *Urban low income or deprived areas.* The main urban complexes are Colombo-Kalutara, Galle, Kandy, and Jaffna.

The total urban population is 3.2 million and the largest is the Colombo-Kalutara complex with a population of 1.83 million. During the last nine decades the urabn population has increased tenfold.

The average growth rate of the Dry Zone urban population is more than of the Wet Zone where the major urban complexes are. This is a positive sign indicating that the efforts of the successive governments to improve the rural areas and draw in the population to these areas is paying off. The problem of rapid city development

is under control in Sri Lanka. However, the low income groups in the cities still persist. While the cities have some of the best schools, drawing in pupils from the different areas, the children of deprived and slum areas of the city would attend a school close by. Normally social groupings are observed in school selections and attendance. Schools attended by pupils from deprived groups will normally not have pupils from the more affluent strata of society. Pupils in these schools will show a high prevalance for dropping out. A drop-out rate of 50-60 per cent at the end of the primary cycle has been recorded in studies of deprived urban communities. They also record high absenteeism and grade repetition. Class sizes were large and community support for the school lacking. Facilities in those schools were also "poor". In the City of Colombo, almost a quarter of the population are of the "low income" groups and live in deprived or slum type communities.

c) *Schools in remote rural areas.* These schools are located in the distant rural communities or in small groupings of populations. The schools are often inaccessible by motorized transport. The schools would have approximately 100 pupils and are identified as small schools; 21 per cent of the schools in Sri Lanka are of this category. The populations in the areas are very sparse. Agriculture is often the main occupation. Due to their location and small size, these schools tend to get neglected. Facilities available to big schools are often not found, and classes are often only up to grade V. Pupils would automatically drop-out at grade V. As a senior school may be several miles away, pupils find it difficult to get to these better schools. Sending a pupil to a senior school might not be within the means of these poor folk. In the districts of Amparai, Vavuniya, Polonnaruwa, Batticaloa, Moneragala and Bandarawela, 33-45 per cent of the schools had no secondary schools within a distance of five miles. Studies indicated that high drop-out rates, higher than national averages, are observed in the small schools of the island

d) *Schools in areas targeted for agricultural development.* The Dry Zone of Sri Lanka, covering almost three-fourths of the land area of Sri Lanka, is sparsely populated, agricultural, and generally less developed. The greatest potential for natural resource development however lies in this area. The Dry Zone is characterized by several irrigation, development and colonization schemes. Successful schemes have always resulted in large population concentrations.

Schools develop in proportion to economic development. Here pupils often continue their education to higher grades. Economic prosperity results in reduced drop-outs and greater participation in the educational system. One of the biggest development schemes of recent times is one using the potentialities of the largest river in Sri Lanka, the Mahaweli, whose waters flow through the Dry Zone. Colonies are established in the districts Anuradhapura, Polonnaruwa, Amparai, Batticalao and Trincomalee and the schools are also being improved as a part of the scheme for the new settlements. In the schools established and developed, there is a greater interest in schooling, and with the growth of prosperity in the area the current drop-out rates are expected to be reduced. These improved schools however will be few in number, and confined to the principal rural towns within the development schemes.

**Why drop-outs.** Several studies on the drop-out problem have been done in Sri Lanka. Many of these studies have been indicated earlier in this paper. These studies give a picture of the "situation", although statistical data are not always available to support an in-depth analysis and comparative study, specially between the different regions of the country and different groups of communities as they exist now.

As has been indicated in almost all studies, the main reason for leaving school early is an economic one. It is quite often a lack of means to support a child in school or the child being needed by the parents to support the family by joining the parents in income earning operations. It is shown that 88 per cent of the drop-outs of a sample study came from families which had incomes less than Rs. 5,000 (US$250) per year. Parents of 63 per cent of the drop-outs had an annual income of less than Rs. 3,000 (US$150) per year. This is well below the national per capita GNP (US$260) as it stands now. Sixty per cent of the total population in this group have incomes of less than this figure. While the value of the mean and medium incomes have risen, the relative income share in real terms of the poorest segments (lowest 40 per cent of the population) has declined over the past few years. In another study, the clientele (drop-outs) have indicated that low family income was a major reason for dropping out or not attending school.

A study of income distribution in Sri Lanka, from 1953 to 1973, indicates the comparative incomes received by the different

groups of society. In 1973, the top 10 per cent received almost 30 per cent of the total income, while the bottom 50 per cent received only 21 per cent of the total income. However, in 1953, the top 10 per cent received almost 42 per cent of the income which has been reduced considerably over the years, while the bottom 70 per cent has improved their lot.

**Table 4. Comparative percentage of income received**

| *Strata* | *1953* | *1963* | *1973* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Top 10 per cent | 42.49 | 39.24 | 29.98 |
| 11-20 per cent | 14.16 | 16.01 | 15.91 |
| 21-50 per cent | 24.64 | 27.26 | 31.96 |
| Bottom 50 per cent | 18.71 | 17.49 | 21.05 |

*Source:* Reports: Sample Survey of Consumer Finances Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 1953-1973.

Generally the bottom 50 per cent came from rural folk, most of whom are engaged in agricultural occupations and village crafts. Of the total work force of 5.2 million in 1980, 49.2 per cent were workers in agriculture or related occupations whose wages or incomes, comparatively, were the lowest.

Sri Lanka has a proud record of the numerous social welfare facilities provided to the broad masses. Although the per capita G.N.P. is about US$260, the Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI), as measured by the Overseas Development Council of the United States, indicates the index for Sri Lanka at 83. Comparatively, India is 41, and Indonesia 50. Sri Lanka has a high literacy rate of 80, a low infant mortality rate of 48, and a high life expectancy of 64 years. While trends show a gradual betterment of the relative incomes of the lower strata of society, and the policies of successive governments have been all targeted to better the lot of the rural population as well as the urban deprived groups, yet, as it is, the conditions of the poor segments of society have not improved markedly. The purchasing power of the lowest 40 per cent of the population has decreased with the present rapid inflationary trends. This has effects on nutrition and health, specially of the vulnerable groups of the

population, including the young chi' 'ren. Low economic status and consequent effects on the health and well-being of the low income groups, would be reflected in non-school attendance or early dropping out from the school system.

Although education is "free" in the sense that school fees do not have to be paid in all Government schools, parents have to spend a fair amount of their income to educate a child in the formal school. This amount varies with the area, the grade, the course followed and the school. Students keep back from schools when their parents cannot support them financially. In the study indicated, a wide variation of the expenses incurred by parents in sending them to school has been reported. At grade I, a parent had to spend Rs.620 per year in a city school, and Rs.333 in an average school. In a rural school, it would be Rs.132 on an average. At grade V it would be Rs. 925 in a city school and Rs.707 or Rs.230 in an average or rural school. Higher up the grades, the expenses increase. Under these conditions, a child from a low income family will automatically be a drop-out. On the sample study, it is seen that 88 per cent of the drop-outs are from families of the low income groups. The low income groups are mainly in rural agricultural areas, estate populations, and urban deprived areas. The sample study on drop-outs also indicates that 91 per cent of the parents of drop-outs are labourers, cultivators or employed in a similar capacity. Of the work force of 5.5 million in Sri Lanka, 49.7 per cent are employed in agriculture, and consists of 35.3 per cent males and 13.6 per cent females. In the typical rural agricultural situation in the estate sector as well as the urban deprived areas, the young assist the parents in their vocations at a very early stage.

The majority of the parents of drop-outs are also of a low education level. Studies in 1971 indicate, of those who had no schooling 69.3 per cent are from families of agricultural occupations. Of those who completed their education at grade V only, 59.4 per cent are from the agricultural sector (Supplementary Table XII).

The census of population for 1971 indicates that in the age group of 10-14 years, 53,984 young children are employed. Most of them are drop-outs or are those who never attended school. Quite often, under the burden of managing a large family on a subsistance income, the attention of parents is moved away from schooling as a priority, to their family struggle to make ends meet. Families of

these low income groups are large and the young quite often stay back at home to look after the still younger ones. The levels of health are low. Forty-two per cent of the Sri Lankan pre-schoolers are of low nutrition level, suffering from second or third degree malnutrition. A further 35 per cent of the population at the lower end of this income scale failed to receive an adequate intake of calories. This situation is specially marked in the estate and rural areas of Sri Lanka.

Additional problems of infectious diseases such as respiratory and bowel diseases are common in these groups. Family planning is not much practiced and in general groups receiving less than Rs. 400 per month are considered a high risk group. With these problems, the children of some families are forced to keep away from school and if at all they go, it will be irregularly at first, and then they gradually drop out. One survey found that 60 per cent of the drop-outs had a very poor attendance record prior to dropping out. They also repeat grades; 21 per cent of the drop-outs studied had failed thrice in the grade, 31 per cent had failed twice, and 64 per cent had failed once. Eighty-two per cent of the drop-outs were over age for their class. Studies indicated earlier show the lack of time and parental indifference contribute to almost 20 per cent of the drop-outs. The physical facilities in the homes are sparse. Ninety-two per cent of the homes had only kerosene oil lamps as the means of illumination for study at night. In districts where the population density is low, schools in the rural areas are scattered widely. As indicated earlier, the majority of schools in the remote rural agricultural areas, which could include the coastal belt in the East and North Eastern areas with scattered fishing communities, are primary schools. Although for the whole island, the number of primary schools per thousand of the school-going population averages around 1.5 to 2.0, they are widely scattered in districts with large land areas. Further, the population density in these areas is low.

The secondary schools per unit of school-going population shows a wide variation. The availability of a secondary school within walking distance to certain students in these agricultural and estate areas would be much less than in the more urbanized areas. Ninety per cent of the schools in the rural areas are primary schools and 72 per cent of the urban schools are secondary schools. Thirty-six per cent of the schools in Sri Lanka have classes only up to grade V and in these rural and estate areas, the commonly available school will

be the primary school. For children of the low income bracket in urban areas, the schools available will often be a school with classes up to grade V or X. However, due to the special circumstances prevailing in the social groups, pupils who drop-out before completing the primary grades will average 40-60 per cent.

Quite often, teachers lack the ability or the time to provide counselling and guidance to pupils or parents. Generally one or two teachers serve in the primary schools and they also do not often have the time, or they may not consider it their function, to attend to potential drop-outs even if they could be detected well in time. Criticism has often been levelled at what is taught and the manner of teaching. If the school is in a remote area, there is little supervision or provision of in-service training to improve the educational component. The subject matter is often said to be unrelated to the socio-economic, cultural or local needs. What is taught does not often have a local vocational emphasis. If pupils and parents do not see a relevance of what they learn at school and the immediate needs of the community, they might find it a waste of time and effort and pupils leave school to assist their parents in their economic tasks.

Sir Lankans generally give a very high priority to education; 92 per cent of the parents of drop-outs too recognize the value of an education for the children. Academic qualifications as a means to obtaining a good "government job" was the need during the early part of this century and in the recent past. However, with high incomes for technical trades and the services sector, the value of formal schooling and the value of traditional academic qualifications are being questioned. Pupils today tend to leave school with a bare minimum of schooling and follow a technical training, and quite often obtain a job with a relatively high salary. The availability of jobs in the technical and service sectors in the Middle East on very high salaries has further induced the young to leave school early and follow that training for which there is a demand. Today the outflow of skills to the Middle Eastern countries has been such that the remittances sent by Sri Lankans from these countries is the second largest foreign exchange earner, next to tea.

### Actions to prevent drop-outs

**(A) Formal education.** In this section reference is made to actions taken in the formal education sector to prevent drop-outs.

The story goes as far back as the early 1940s where the reforms set in motion the democratization process of the education system. These reforms brought about increased enrolments and participation. Nevertheless the problem of the drop-outs was becoming serious and the period from 1950-1970 saw a series of actions taken to prevent or minimise its occurence. The pace of these actions began to gather momentum in the 1970s and the decade 1972-1982 saw a number of meaningful reforms in the education system. One important objective of these reforms was the prevention of drop-outs and the problem was attacked on a multi-dimensional basis. These reforms belong to two phases, i.e. 1972-1977 and from 1978 onwards. It must be stated that so far no comprehensive evaluation has been undertaken to assess the impact of these reforms on the drop-out problem. Changes in the general policy in education and the sudden stoppage of certain programmes also have affected a proper evaluation of them. The success or failure of some of those programmes are measured by the general trends in the drop-out problem as revealed by the statistics of the Statistical Branch of the Ministry of Education. Certain new programmes which have a direct bearing on the drop-out problem are discussed below:

**1972 reforms.** The following excerpt conveys the main spirit of the reforms of 1972:

"The present Education Plan gives first priority to the task of formulating a new structure for education in Sri Lanka, a structure that will be well fitted to the needs of the country over the years ahead. Concurrently, attempts will be made to raise the internal quality of the education system, through expanded programmes of curriculum development, teacher training etc., and through measures that would increase the efficiency with which the system operates. One indication of the poor efficiency existing at present is the heavy incidence of repetition especially in the early grades."

It would be correct to say that if the facilities available are used to the optimum extent, it would be illogical to allow pupils to repeat grades. Moreover keeping back a pupil in a grade may create psychological blocks in the path of his educational progress. Regarding early drop-outs, too, a systematic study has to be undertaken to ascertain how this can be reduced. Another issue that calls for special attention is the need to reduce the imbalances in the provision of educational facilities between rural and urban areas.

The broad objectives of these reforms may be summarized as follows:

– Working towards a better 'fit' between the education system and the needs of the country at all levels of education and in both general and technical education, by getting the structure and content of education to sponsor those outcomes of education needed for accelerated growth of the country's economy. This has to be done without violation of the broader objectives of education.

– Achieving greater internal quality and effectiveness within the education system by:

a) reducing repetitions and drop-outs while maintaining educational standards;

b) upgrading the skills of the personnel engaged in education, by training more and better teachers, both pre-service and in-service, and also by organizing training programmes to meet the needs of the administrative and management personnel; and

c) consolidating and extending quality improvement work of the last 10 years in respect of curriculum development, examination reforms etc.

– Furthering the equality of access to education:

a) by reducing area-wise imbalances in the provision of education facilities;

b) by effecting changes in the structure of the school system with a view to removing the disabilities suffered by some pupils.

Three important programmes launched in 1972, with a view to achieve the above objectives were: reconstruction of general education; occupationally oriented general education, and improving facilities in rural areas.

**Re-construction of the general education programme.** Under this scheme primary education comprised grades I to V. This is the stage at which children require guidance of a single class teacher rather than the services of a number of specialist teachers. An extensive network of primary schools situated close to the pupil's home was organized. Steps were taken to increase the population of children who participated in primary education. Accordingly, it was

hoped to increase the enrolment of children of the age range 6+ to 10+ years, and to minimize the practice of allowing pupils to repeat the same grades again. These measures were taken with a view to increase participation rates and to exercise a considerable saving from the point of view of teaching resources.

The primary education programme was enriched through the promotion of activity-based methods, in particular through the introduction of environmental studies and creative activities. It assisted the child in appreciating the riches of the local environment and in taking a delight in practical activities of various kinds. The teaching of basic skills in language and number was through the medium of practical activities. These changes were used to prepare children attitudinally so that they could undertake productive vocations that would contribute to the well-being of society.

**Occupationally oriented general education.** The highly academic approach associated with the curricula tended to remove pupils from the realities of the employment situation. They learned little about the productive possibilities of agriculture, horticulture and small scale industries, and partly for this reason, sought white collar work. In order to avoid these problems, and to assit young people to find ways of making their contribution to the well-being of society, major changes in the philosophy underlying general education were introduced. Education was closely related to the world of life and work.

Based on this philosophy, pre-occupational studies as a compulsory subject was introduced in the lower secondary grades. This new programme incorporated teaching sequences dealing with important local occupations/industries, such as fisheries, cash crops, agriculture, animal husbandry, horticulture, service occupations such as retail trade, cottage crafts industries such as the coir industry.

This programme occupied a prime place in the curriculum and was considered a key strategy through which the education system could assist the young generations to enter gainful employment in the areas of national need.

**Improving the facilities in rural areas.** This was another major area where action was taken to reduce the discrepancies of educational provision as between the rural and urban areas. As a result

of the wide variations in the educational provisions in the districts, drop-out rates in the educationally disadvantaged areas are high. These discrepancies show up in terms of a number of indications, such as in the proportions of graduate and specialist trained teachers, and in educational facilities such as laboratories and workshops. A number of steps were taken to remedy these discrepancies, such as the recruitment and training of specialist teachers for appointment in rural areas. Special instruction programmes were undertaken which would, in the long run, represent a major contribution towards a more equitable distribution of educational facilities.

Another step which has helped the strengthening of the educationally backward rural areas, was the improvement of small schools. The conditions in over 2000 small primary schools in poor, difficult rural areas were examined, reviewed, and a special development effort mounted. In view of the multi-dimensional nature of their problems, the small schools are being developed as part of general community development. The appreciable increase in the enrolments of many of these schools and the prevention of early drop-outs indicate to some extent the success of the programme.

**Reforms of 1978.** The reforms of 1978 represent another significant phase of educational development in the country. In 1977, a new Government was installed in office.

The Government manifested its abiding faith in education through major policy decisions affecting the structure, content and span of education. Policy implementation brought many problems in its wake, the immediate being the enhanced requirements in terms of teachers, learning space and materials.

The main policy decisions of this period could be summarised as follows:

a) The development of education with a view to facilitating the growth of the personality of the pupil in order to enable him/her to maintain his/her self respect and dignity.

b) The progressive reduction of the imbalance that exists between urban and rural schools.

The Government's concern over the reduction of the educational imbalance was ultimately aimed at preventing the drop-out problem. The reforms of 1972 were not totally successful in reducing

the drop-out problem. The new Government had to do some fresh thinking on this subject.

In keeping with the general policies mentioned above, a restructuring of the following programmes was carried out:

- lowering of the age of admission to schools;
- strengthening the integration of the primary curriculum;
- reorganizing secondary education

In 1978, the age of admission to school was reduced from six to five years, and the span of the primary cycle was increased by the addition of a new grade (grade I), known as the kindergarten, to cater to new entrants in the five to six year age group. The lowering of the age of admission brought in a further cohort of approximately 310,000 pupils.

The content of education in the primary grades provides for an integrated curriculum. The characteristic feature of the integration is the organization of learning experiences for children around eleven themes, developed in a spiral sequence, which increases in complexity from grade to grade.

**Re-organizing junior secondary education.** From 1972 to 1977 the junior secondary cycle, offered a common curriculum leading to the National Certificate of General Education (NCGE). All the pupils studied the same subjects except for the options allowed in the areas of pre-vocational and aesthetic studies. Paucity of resources in terms of competent teachers and equipment for such subjects as science, mathematics and pre-vocational studies, and ineffective supervision of instruction, left much to be desired in curriculum implementation. Further, some teachers and educationists were inclined to the view that the standard reached by the pupils sitting the NCGE examination was lower than the performance level required of GCE ("O" level) candidates. This dissatisfaction with the NCGE Examination led to its replacement by the GCE ("O" level) Examination and to the extension of the junior secondary cycle by a further year from the beginning of 1978.

The Junior Secondary Curriculum was re-designed for a five year grade span. The pre-vocational studies, with 83 subjects, were replaced with a lesser number of technical subjects for which trained teachers and workshops were generally available. The curricular

content of the other subject areas, particularly science, mathematics and social studies was revised to reflect new objectives and the extended grade span.

**Other measures.** In addition to the above reforms, two very vital and far reaching moves were made by the present Government to prevent and minimize the drop-out problem: (i) the take over, by the Government, of the estate schools; and (ii) the distribution of free school textbooks. It is too early to assess the effects of these moves, but knowing the genesis of the drop-out problem it could be said that these two moves would have a very salutary effect on the problem of drop-outs.

i) Estate schools are found in the tea growing areas located at elevations over 3,000 ft., and in the rubber growing areas at lower elevations. Though the State took over almost all the assisted schools in the inland in 1961, the estate schools were not included. Those estate schools were taken over by the State during 1978-1980. The State is now taking the necessary steps to improve the condition of estate schools.

ii) It has been noted above that one of the primary causes for early drop-out is the poor economic background of the pupils. This has caused hardships both to the parents and to the pupils in not being able to get the required textbooks and clothes and other accessories needed to go to school. A study conducted by the Regional Education Department, Gampaha in 1975, on the use of textbooks by pupils of the region, revealed:

a) There is a low usage of textbooks except for the textbooks on the first language and English. The others were used less than 50 per cent by the group.

b) In schools in urban areas, central colleges, and other developed schools, the use of textbooks was satisfactory, while in the rural schools it was very unsatisfactory.

The Government has now taken a very important step by supplying the required textbooks free, so that a child need not drop-out from the school system on account of not being able to get textbooks. Preliminary assessment of this move has shown that there has been a remarkable improvement in the participation rates of pupils as a result of this action. As mentioned earlier, these actions in preventing the drop-outs in the formal system are continuously

affecting the system, but its effects have not been properly assessed.

The structural and curricular reforms of 1972 and 1978, though responsible for reducing the number of drop-outs, have not helped sufficiently in solving the problem in its totality. Recent statistics show that the pupils from lower social and economic strata find that the forces causing drop-outs are too strong to withstand in spite of the improvements made by the reforms. This problem has to be looked at from another angle. Steps have to be taken also, to retrieve the drop-outs, by giving them a 'second chance' in the formal system itself. So far, few effective measures have been taken to do so. While effective preventive measures are being taken, avenues should be made open for the drop-outs to continue their studies if and when they desire to do so. This aspect of the problem is looked into in the current Education White Paper proposals and recommendations have been made to this effect.

**The reform proposals.** An Educational Reforms Committee was appointed in 1978, and was entrusted with the task of studying the present system and making necessary recommendations for improvement. The terms of reference of this committee were to examine the structures and objectives of education, and curricula, methodology, textbooks, extra curricular activities, and the relationship between the school and community, and make appropriate recommendations. The Committee, being aware of the educational wastage that is prevalent in the system, made several recommendations with a view to preventing or minimizing it.

It has recommended that the curriculum at the Junior Secondary Level be based on the need to consolidate the basic knowledge and skills acquired by the pupil at the primary level, lay the foundation for further education, and introduce the pupil gradually to the 'world of work' by providing for the acquisition of certain simple skills relevant to a range of vocations.

These simple skills are given by a new subject which will replace the technical subjects that are presently taught. The main aims of teaching this subject are: to introduce the pupils to the 'world of work' and inculcate positive attitudes towards it; to provide for domestic skills, as appropriate to the age groups; to help the pupils acquire some familiarity and proficiency in the use of common tools and appliances; to provide for certain pre-vocational skills and make pupils proficient in simple skills relevant to a range

of vocations; to provide for an activity-based subject to give the non-academically oriented pupil meaningful learning activities in which the pupil can excel.

Several linkages have been recommended whereby drop-outs of the formal system could re-enter it via non-formal programmes. One such recommendation is the forming of Technical Education Authorities (TEA) by the Tertiary Education Commission. The TEA will provide:

a) Technical, vocational training at the artisan and operator level; the craftsman level; the technician level;

b) Programmes for upgrading skills and for re-training; and

c) A vocational education stream corresponding to grades IX-XI in the school system, for students with an aptitude for vocational studies.

Vocational training courses at the artisan or operator level will be designed mainly for those who leave school early and seek vocational training. Each course will consist of units of employable skills and the duration will be determined according to the type of skills imparted. The minimum age of admission will be 14 years. On successful completion of a course, trainees will be awarded a certificate of competence which will be recognized at national level. Provision will also be made for individuals to offer related units at a later stage in their vocational career.

Crafts level training courses will cover a wide variety of trades in engineering, commerce, service occupations etc. Educational qualifications for admission to these courses will vary according to the field of training. The minimum, however, will be grade VIII. Full time craft courses will consist of two parts. The first part will provide basic technical education and training. The second part will be apprenticeship training. Corresponding part time courses will also be available to those in employment and unable to attend full time courses. Steps will also be taken to offer special full time and part time courses to skilled craftsman already in employment to enable them to obtain higher technical qualifications.

Full time and part time technician level courses in engineering, commerce and service occupations will be provided by the TEA for those who have successfully completed the General Certificate

of Education Examination, and for those who have left the general educational stream at an earlier stage, but have since obtained prescribed alternative qualifications.

TEA will organize three-year courses for the GCE Technical Stream, which will run parallel to grades IX, X and XI of the normal GCE courses conducted in schools. A scheme in guidance and counselling is also envisaged, whereby pupils and parents are advised on educational matters and job opportunities. An islandwide network of Open Schools will be organized to provide further education on a very wide scale. The Open School will provide a variety of short-term courses.

**(B) Non-formal education.** There is a paucity of avenues for drop-outs to enter the formal system via a 'second chance' education, although there has been a growing awareness of the need for diversified learning experiences and new strategies are being developed for this group. Many government agencies have responded to the ever increasing demand for training opportunities at various levels and in various fields. Likewise, the private sector organizations and voluntary agencies conduct similar programmes as part of their business and social welfare activities.

All these out-of-school programmes could be broadly divided into two categories. Those programmes which involve formal enrolment and registration are the formal out-of-school or non-formal programmes. These programmes have graded learning sequences spread over a specified period of time, and usually terminate with an examination with or without certification. The other is the set of programmes which are of very short duration, with no formal enrolment and registration. Institutions in the public, private and voluntary sectors conduct programmes of this type for their own staff and outside clientele groups.

**Government ministries and departments.** The government agencies which offer training programmes include the Ministry of Education, the National Apprenticeship Board, the Ministry of Labour, the Department of Small Industries, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Rural Development and the Social Services Department. The courses offered are mainly technical in nature, to meet the growing needs of the private and industrial sector, to improve agricultural and technical skills. These programmes cater to out-of-school youths.

The voluntary sector has been active in this field for a number of years. They are, in the main, welfare organizations, denominational, and non-denominational, that conduct programmes for out-of-school youth and other disadvantaged persons, leading to their employment or rehabilitation. The Sarvodaya Sramadana movement of Sri Lanka is the largest voluntary organization that conducts out-of-school and adult education programmes. The organization runs about ten Development Education Centres, and a network of village and urban development groups conducted by young people who had received their training and orientation at the Development Education Centres.

**Technical Education Unit.** In order to cater to the large numbers of drop-outs and 'push-outs' from the formal system, the Ministry of Education, through its Non-formal Education Branch, offers a technical training programme for them. The programme was conceived in 1973. One important feature of it was the linking of the facilities of the formal system to achieve the desired goals. Under-utilized school buildings, workshops, and equipment were mobilized to give technical training to school leavers.

In 1977, the Ministry of Education realized the potential of this programme to meet the rapidly growing demand for skilled personnel, and up-graded and expanded it to the present Technical Education Unit programme. The present programme consists of a full time Technical Education Unit programme and a part time Technical Education Unit programme, woven into a network of units designed to meet the needs of school leavers, school drop-outs and unemployed young adults of the country.

The objectives of the programme are:

- to train school leavers and school drop-outs for self employment;
- to impart skills to school leavers enabling them to secure employment in the public and private sectors;
- to reduce frustration among youth and thereby promote the maintenance of social harmony;
- to reduce migration of talent in technical work from the rural sector to the urban sector;
- to instill correct attitudes which would enable them to participate fully in development work;

- to promote the use of traditional technology and local raw materials wherever it is appropriate.

Each electorate is served with a full time Technical Education Unit (FTU) as a nucleus, and a number of part time units (PTU) are organized around it. These units are attached to schools, and the principals of these schools are heads of these units. Where the school principal is unable to devote sufficient time to this work, a senior teacher from the staff is appointed to be in charge of the unit under the overall supervision of the principal.

Units are approved by the Ministry on the recommendation of the Regional Director of Education. The Regional Director usually does this in consultation with the Member of Parliament of the area. He also takes into consideration the facilities available in the schools, the technical subjects taught in the school, resources available in the area, the local industries, crafts and the opportunities for employment.

A full time unit (FTU) conducts five training sessions a week. Each session is of three hours duration and is usually held after school hours, i.e., in the afternoon or during weekends. A PTU conducts training three days a week. Each session is three hours, and these too are usually held during the afternoon or weekends. Thus each course in a FTU has 15 hours of training a week or about 60 hours training a month, whereas a PTU has nine hours training a week or about 36 hours of training a month. Both training programmes have an equal number of training hours and the duration of a course in a FTU is six months and a PTU offers a ten months course.

Courses in a TU are selected by the school principal with the assistance of the Advisory Board, the school staff and others. The Non-formal Education Branch of the Ministry issues a list of courses to be conducted. This list consists of courses which meet the objectives of the programme. However the principal is given the option to start a course outside the list and is expected to give reasons for it. Since the main objective of the TU Programme is training for employment, he must substantiate his request with evidence that employment opportunities exist for the particular course he is requesting. Very often, school heads have made use of this facility and obtained approval for courses outside the list. The principle behind the approval of course guides is to allow TUs to conduct courses based

either on needs of the island or of a local area, allowing, as far as possible, initiative on the part of instructors, while at the same time maintaining the quality standization of the courses.

Instructors to provide the training are selected from among technical teachers in schools, master craftsmen, technically qualified personnel in the government or non-governmental sector. An instructor is recommended by a School Principal in charge of a TU, and appointed by the relevant Regional Director of Education. Guidance for such appointments are laid down by the Ministry of Education.

Training course guides are prepared by the instructors themselves, and are approved by the Ministry. Syllabuses for a few courses are supplied by the Ministry.

The equipment available in the school is normally used to conduct this training. Under the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) Aid Programme, additional equipment has been supplied to these units from 1978.

The courses are meant mainly for school leavers and school drop-outs in the middle school, i.e., grades VI-IX. But there is no restriction on admitting even others, with lower educational attainments, provided they have the knowledge necessary to follow courses. For each course, about 20 trainees are selected. All trainees must be over 15 years of age and must not be attending school. They must put in over 80 per cent attendance and pass the test at the end of the course. A certificate is issued by the TU to those who are successful.

The following Table gives details of the expansion of the Technical Education Unit programme from 1974 to date.

**Table 5. Expansion of the Technical Education Unit Programme Full Time Technical Education Unit (FTU)**

| *Year* | *No. of Centres* | *No. of Courses* | *No. of Trainees* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1977* | 1 | 3 | 67 |
| 1978 | 40 | 111 | 1990 |
| 1979 | 85 | 302 | 5870 |
| 1980 | 87 | 308 | 6010 |

* Organized in 1977.

**Table 6. Part Time Technical Education Units (PTU)**

| *Year* | *No. of Centres* | *No. of Courses* | *No. of Trainees* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1974 | 15 | 49 | 620 |
| 1975 | 102 | 290 | 6,526 |
| 1976 | 212 | 650 | 11,096 |
| 1977 | 304 | 671 | 15,730 |
| 1978 | 375 | 933 | 20,597 |
| 1979 | 626 | 1,428 | 26,984 |
| 1980 | 861 | 1,226 | 27,463 |

The programme has a wide coverage in terms of the numbers trained, types of courses offered, and distribution of training centres throughout the island.

When this programme was started the main objective of it was to train school leavers for self-employment. However, with the recent changes in the employment market, more attention was laid on the training of skilled workers and personnel for the service sector.

The programme had accepted the need to have a follow-up scheme to help the trainees to find employment after training. A scheme to give loans to trainees after the successful completion of a training course to set themselves up in self-employment has been negotiated with the major government banks. According to the statistics maintained in the non-formal education branch, approximately 40 per cent of trainees have found employment.

Literacy programmes. In addition to the Technical Education Unit programme, the Non-formal Education Branch of the Ministry of Education has an adult education programme. This programme is mainly concerned with continuing education and specific areas such as nutrition, health, population dynamics etc., are undertaken. One other important subject area is literacy. This programme is targeted on the very early school drop-outs or the non-school goers. Concentrations of this group are found often in the main towns or locations such as fishing communities.

The attempt is to draw in this group of youngsters away from the adult working environment in which they linger, to a school environment, under the guidance of trained staff. A functional form

of literacy is taught, where the learning they acquire could be related to the daily work they perform. Surveys were conducted in 1980, in several locations, to identify the problems, and in 1981 eleven pilot projects were launched. Each literacy centre is jointly organized by the Ministry of Education and a voluntary organization. Results indicate a positive response from the target groups. It is hoped to expand this programme further in the current year.

**Programme of the National Apprenticeship Board.** The National Apprenticeship Board (NAB) was established under the National Apprenticeship Act No.49 of 1971, with the following objectives:

- to formulate, implement and supervise a scheme of training to cover each category of apprentices;
- to establish apprenticeship standards in relation to each training, determine the period of training for each category of apprentices and the number, nature and content or the type and level of training to be undergone by each category;
- to determine the trade tests to be undergone by each category of apprentices and their proficiency, and issue certificates to those who qualify;
- to determine in consultation with the Minister, the amount of allowance payable to each category of apprentices;
- to determine the hours and conditions of work, leave entitlement, holidays and other conditions to be observed by each category;
- to do all such other acts or things as are necessary for or incidental to, the attainment of objectives herein before mentioned.

Applications for apprenticeship are called by a notification in the Government Gazette and/or newspapers. Eligible applicants are sent to the employers for interview and selection. At the start, the minimum age for admission was fixed at 18 years and educational qualifications varied from grade V upwards, depending upon the trade category.

On recruitment, all apprentices – and if they are minors, their parents/guardians – enter into a contract of apprenticeship with

the employers and the contract is registered with the Director of Apprenticeship.

There are nine levels of apprenticeship training provided by the Board. They are:

- Craft apprenticeship
- Technician apprenticeship
- Special apprenticeship
- Moratuwa Engineering Faculty undergraduate apprenticeship
- Craft (situational) apprenticeship
- Peradeniya Engineering Faculty undergraduate apprenticeship
- Artisan apprenticeship
- Sub-technician apprenticeship
- Special situational apprenticeship

Out of these nine levels of training, persons falling into the category of those with incomplete education are admitted to only 3 levels; namely craft apprenticeship, craft (situational) apprenticeship and artisan apprenticeship courses. Admissions to other courses are made from those with GCE "O" level or higher educational qualifications.

Craft apprentices receive practical training and related instruction in a specific categorized trade for a pre-determined period of time in a factory, an industrial establishment or a work place, and are trained to be a skilled craftsmen. The numbers of trades in this field have been increasing annually, and in 1980 it was 127 trades, including those in the special apprenticeship programme.

Apprentices receive practical training and related instructions as laid down in the relevant training standards of the Board. Training schedules are drawn up to indicate the movement of apprentices from one training to another, or from one employer to another, so that they will gain all the prescribed skills of the trade or vocational area. They will work with craftsmen, and their training will be supervised by a Training Officer employed by the establishment. Periodic inspections by Inspectors of Apprenticeship will ensure that training is conducted as scheduled.

Every apprentice is required to demonstrate that he has acquired the necessary skills by completing some type of theoretical and practical examination. Assessment for certification is done at the end of the period of training. For craft and special apprentices, practical assessment takes the form of performance tests i.e., making of some work pieces.

**Vocational training programmes of the Department of Labour.** The vocational training programmes of the Department of Labour had their origin about 23 years ago. They are aimed at training out-of-school and unemployed youth in employable skills, mainly in the engineering, manufactur. building construction, tailoring trades.

The Department of Labour has at present two permanent centres, five district training centres, and a network of mobile training centres. There are approximately two mobile centres in each of the 160 electorates in the country.

The courses available in these centres are electrical work, welding, fitting, machinery, auto-mechanical work, sheet metal work, radio repairs and electronics, tractor operation and maintenance, marine engine repair, foundry, pattern making, tool and dye making, boat building, carpentry and masonry. These courses are full time, and training is conducted five days a week for one year. The entry requirement in grade VIII of the school system, and trainees must be over 18 years. There is an admission test. The numbers that underwent training in 1979, 1980 and 1981 are given below:

**Table 7. Trainees and courses in the permanent training centres and district training centres**

| *Centre* | *Number trained* | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 |
| Orugodawatte | 340 | 340 | 366 |
| Nambapitiya | 210 | 210 | – |
| Maradana | 30 | 30 | 30 |

While the permanent centres and the district centres are mainly geared to meet the requirements of modern training in areas mentioned above, the mobile centre programme is geared to meet the localised demand of trainees in a narrow array of trades.

**Table 8. Courses in Mobile Training Centres**

| *Course* | *Duration* | *Number* | *Trained* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tailoring | 9 months | 3,480 | 3,380 |
| Carpentry | 9 months | 825 | 1,021 |
| Masonry | 6 months | 600 | 856 |
| Hair-dressing | 6 months | – | 03 |
| Other crafts | 6 month | 45 | 38 |
| Total | | 4,950 | 5,298 |

There are 319 centres spread over the country. Buildings available in the community are selected as training centres while the Department of Labour supplies the equipment.

The educational qualifications for admission is grade VIII and the age is between 18-30 years. There is an admission test. In the permanent training centres and district training centres, a quota of general education is imparted, while in the mobile centres, the training is mainly vocational.

The trainees are provided with a stipend of Rs.5 per day. In all the above training programmes, testing is done every three months. At the end of the course a certificate is awarded.

The programmes of the Department of Probation and Child Care Services. The Department of Probation and Child Care Services offers a correctional service to the juvenile delinquents. This consists of three main activities, namely:

- The non-institutional treatment of offenders
- The institutional treatment of juvenile delinquents
- The institutional treatment of pre-delinquent children

The institutional correctional service administered by the Department consists of five State Remand Homes (one of which is for girls), six N[illegible] Remand Homes, Five Certified Schools (one of which is for girls), and an Approved School for boys.

The Certified Schools and the Approved School provide suitable rehabilitative treatment under residential conditions to particular juveniles between the ages 12 to 16, whether delinquent or

in need of care and protection, or are exposed to moral or physical danger or who are beyond control. The maximum period of detention is three years. The certified school is, in essence, a therapeutic community and the following programme services are provided in these schools.

- An effort is made to give the maximum possible academic instruction within the three year period. The inmates who have obtained sufficient educational levels prior to their admission are sent to neighbouring schools for purposes of preparing for public examinations.

- Vocational training in a number of trades is provided. This is to facilitate their rehabilitation once they are discharged from the school. The selection for vocational training is primarily based on the aptitudes of the inmates, their preferences with possible consultation with parents, and on the employment prospects available in their home areas. The certified school at Makola provides training in agriculture, carpentry, masonry, motor mechanism, lathe work, spray painting, welding and tinkering. Sports and other social activities, such as scouting, drama, music, are also a part of the curriculum.

**Educational programme of the Sri Lanka Sarvodaya Shramadana Sangamaya.** This movement, first organized by a group of volunteers from among teachers and students in a city school to carry out a rural development project in a backward village, has grown in scope and dimensions over the years. Sarvodaya literally means awakening of all, and Shramadana means the donation of effort or labour. The ultimate objective of the movement is to being about the total awakening of all through a process of conscientisation, leading to self reliance and collective action.

The objectives of the movement are as follows:

a) By concrete development action, to awaken the masses of rural people to exploit their own development potential through self-help and self-reliance.

b) To bring about a general recognition of the importance of utilizing labour resources on a voluntary basis for the development of the nation.

c) To evolve in the country a grass-roots development leadership, drawing its strength from the peoples' traditional and cultural values and to gain knowledge and skills through action experiences.

d) To pave the way for a development theory and practice in which an integrated approach is made towards development of the individual, the community the nation and the world, based on universally accepted human values.

The methodology adopted by the movement is based on its Shramadana ideal of sharing time, thought and energy for the general well being. This process, carried out actively at the grass-roots level, has yielded excellent results, by creating the necessary psychological conditions necessary to develop and implement development programmes, enabling village leadership, especially among the groups of youth, to undertake responsibility for planning and enlisting the cooperation of other agencies with similar objectives. The second method adopted by the movement is the basic human needs approach. In this, minimum basic human needs are identified by action participation of representatives from the deprived sectors in the economy, and the organizational framework is developed to satisfy these identified basic human needs.

Two of the significant activities of the Movement are indicated below:

*The village development scheme.* This scheme has been designed to develop all aspects of human life in the community. It generally starts with the specific objective of completing a basic requirement in the village. Once the Shramadana Camps are organized, participants are exposed to the ideals and discipline of the movement.

It is presumed that the enlightened village is a pre-requisite for all development activities, and the community decides on a follow-up programme. Youth leaders are identified and are given training. The movement also helps in revitalizing the village economy by providing opportunities for skills training, linking village needs with Government extension services.

*Development education scheme.* The 14 Development Education Institutes scattered in various parts of the country provide the training in a number of fields. These take the form of pre-school

education, community, kitchen and health care programmes. Training youth for self-employment takes the form of agriculture oriented education, training in arts and crafts and the provision of knowledge and skills in appropriate technologies.

**Department of Rural Development.** There are 11,700 Rural Development Societies in the island organized by this department, which are typically village level organizations targeted on the improvement of the community. These societies undertake simple development programmes as well as social programmes. They also engage in self-employment projects.

**Women's Bureau of Sri Lanka.** Established under the Ministry of Plan Implemenation, its main objective is to mobilize rural women to play an active part in development. A variety of income generating activities are conducted in the main districts. Socio-economic development programmes are conducted in deprived communities. It conducts a joint programme of skills development for women with the Non-formal Branch of the Education Ministry.

## Conclusion

The participation in the school system, of students in the age group 5-14 years, is almost 78 per cent. By Asian standards, this is a fairly high percentage. During 1980/1981 the drop-out rate for the grades I-VIII has increased over the figure for 1979/1980.

Indicators point to the economic factor as the overriding reason for dropping out. The majority of the drop-outs are from families belonging to the economically lower 50 per cent of the workforce. The occupation of the majority of this group is agricultural in the rural areas, while in the urban areas they compose the low wage earning working categories. Since almost 80 per cent of the drop-outs will be from this category, the reasons for dropping out will be the economic and social conditions that are intrinsic to this strata of society.

More recent studies (1980/81) indicate an increase in the drop-out ratio. The reasons can only be surmised now. Over the years, the share of the national income of the lower 50 per cent of the population has been gradually on the increase. The social welfare policies implemented over the years, specially of education and health, have been targeted to benefit those of the low income social gro The

concentration of investment for rural development have attracted populations to these areas rather than to the cities. In spite of all these beneficial efforts and trends, Sri Lanka has not escaped the economic problems which Third World countries face at this point of time. Indications are that the purchasing power of the economically lower 40 per cent of the population has decreased. A closer look at the educational system itself in satisfying individual, social and national needs is needed. The White Paper proposals for educational reform are an attempt to meet the present requirements for adjustment and change. Wide inter-regional and intra-regional disparities exist, and the varying rates of school drop-outs as they are present now, have been indicated.

The changes and adjustments made in the formal system over the years, to meet national needs as well as needs of its participants are indicated. These changes, adjustments and also the facilities that are being progressively improved, have contributed to keeping students in the system and preventing them from dropping out early.

For those who leave the system or do not enter the system, the non-formal schemes of assistance come into operation. Several Government Departments and Non-Governmental Organizations conduct a variety of training programmes to assist this group of out-of-school youth, and retrieve them to the educational system.

The White Paper proposals for educational reform have indicated retrieval schemes in its proposed structures for the formal system. Most of these training programmes are targeted to develop particular employable skills within a short space of time.

There is an urgent need for co-ordination and investigation of training programmes, to avoid duplication of effort and to provide for the most effective and useful training. The White Paper Proposals have provided the base for the necessary co-ordination. The Non-formal Education Research and Development Centre (NERDTAC), being established by the Ministry of Education, will conduct investigations and research on the present delivery systems, to increase their efficiency.

## SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

### I. Non-attenders 1950-1979

| *Year* | *Estimated No. of children of 5-14 years at mid year. ('000s)* | *No. of children of 5-14 years in March attending school ('000s)* | *No. of children 5-14 years, not attending schools ('000s)* | *Percentage of non-attendance* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1950 | 1833 | 1194 | 639 | 34.9 |
| 1958 | 2281 | 1737 | 544 | 23.8 |
| 1963 | 2778 | 1948 | 870 | 29.2 |
| 1968 | 3121 | 2216 | 905 | 29.0 |
| 1975 | 3468 | 2324 | 1144 | 32.9 |
| 1978 | 3470 | 2641 | 938 | 23.8 |
| 1979 | 3477 | 2710 | 767 | 22.0 |

*Source:* Statistics Section Education Ministry Sri Lanka.

### II. Percentages of total population in the "no schooling" education status

| *Sector* | | *Percentage with no schooling* |
|---|---|---|
| Urban | | 26.6 |
| Rural | | 31.0 |
| Estate | | 51.7 |
| Zone 1 | (Colombo, Kalutara, Galle, Matara excluding the housing units in the Colombo Municipality). | 26.2 |
| Zone 2 | (Hambantota, Monaragala, Ampara, Polonnaruwa, Anuradhapura, Puttalam) | 33.3 |
| Zone 3 | Jaffna, Mannar, Vavuniya, Trincomalee | 32.8 |
| Zone 4 | (Kandy, Matale, Nuwara-Eliya, Badulla, Ratnapura, Kegalle, Kurunegala) | 36.7 |
| Zone 5 | (Colombo Municipality) | 28.2 |
| All island | | 32.2 |
| | (approximately 12 per cent have to be deducted from the above percentages to account for the pre-school group). | |

*Source:* 1973 Consumer Finance Survey

## III. "No – schooling" by ethnic group

| *Ethnic Group* | *per cent without schooling (5-14 year group)* |
|---|---|
| Kandyan Sinhala | 33.6 |
| Low Country Sinhala | 30.9 |
| Ceylon Tamils | 33.5 |
| Indian Tamils | 51.5 |
| Moors | 37.4 |
| Malays | 22.4 |
| Burghers | 14.4 |
| Others | 25.0 |
| All communities | 32.0 |

(Approximately 12 per cent have to be deducted from above percentage to account for the pre-school group).

*Source:* 1973 Consumer Finance Survey

## IV. Distribution of students in government schools by ethnic groups (1976)

| *Ethnic Group* | *Percentage distribution of schools enrolments* | *Percentage distribution of the population* | *Aged over 10 with no schooling.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sinhala | 78.9 | 73.0 | 34.5 |
| Ceylon Tamils | 12.2 | 12.6 | 33.5 |
| Indian Tamils | 1.0 | 5.5 | 51.5 |
| Muslims | 7.4 | 7.1 | 37.4 |
| Malay | 0.2 | 0.2 | 22.4 |
| Burghers | 0.2 | 0.3 | 14.4 |
| Others | – | 0.2 | 32.2 |

*Source:* School Census 1976 and Census of population 1981

**V. Percentages of population with "no schooling" by age and sex (1971)**

| *Age* | *Total* | *Male* | *Female* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 15-19 | 13.9 | 12.2 | 15.6 |
| 20-24 | 15.0 | 11.5 | 18.3 |
| 25-29 | 18.0 | 12.5 | 23.4 |
| 30-34 | 20.3 | 13.8 | 27.1 |
| 35-39 | 28.1 | 17.8 | 38.6 |
| 40-44 | 27.6 | 17.0 | 39.6 |
| 45-49 | 32.3 | 20.2 | 47.0 |
| 50-54 | 34.6 | 21.8 | 50.2 |
| 55-59 | 39.6 | 25.7 | 56.0 |
| 60-64 | 42.9 | 28.5 | 61.1 |
| 65-69 | 45.3 | 30.9 | 62.0 |
| 70-74 | 50.7 | 35.4 | 70.3 |
| 70 and over | 6.3 | 43.8 | 77.6 |
| Total | 25.9 | 20.3 | 31.8 |

*Source:* 1971 Census

## VI. Percentage of late entry to school

| *District* | | *Percentage entering late* |
|---|---|---|
| Colombo South | – | 24.2 |
| Homagama | – | 15.2 |
| Colombo North | – | 15.4 |
| Kalutara | – | 17.3 |
| Kandy | – | 18.9 |
| Matale | – | 20.1 |
| Nuwara-Eliya | – | 28.2 |
| Galle | – | 17.3 |
| Matara | – | 17.5 |
| Tangalle | – | 24.1 |
| Jaffna | – | 13.4 |
| Mannar | – | 20.9 |
| Vavuniya | – | 27.4 |
| Batticaloa | – | 25.0 |
| Ampara | – | 23.7 |
| Trincomalee | – | 23.9 |
| Kalmunai | – | 34.1 |
| Kurunegala | – | 18.1 |
| Chilaw | – | 24.9 |
| Anuradhapura | – | 24.1 |
| Polonnaruwa | – | 22.8 |
| Bandarawela | – | 28.0 |
| Moneragala | – | 27.5 |
| Ratnapura | – | 15.3 |
| Kegalle | – | 18.1 |
| Sri Lanka | – | 20.6 |

*Source:* School Census 1977

## VII. Numbers and ratios of grade repeaters (1974-1979)

| Year | Grade I | per cent | Grade II | per cent | Grade III | per cent | Grade IV | per cent | Grade V | per cent | Grade VI | per cent | Grade VII | per cent | Grade VIII | per cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1974 | 57276 | 18.5 | 38611 | 20.9 | 56124 | 18.1 | 48701 | 15.7 | 36749 | 13.2 | 20569 | 8.5 | 12898 | 6.7 | 1010 | 0.5 |
| 1975 | 51855 | 15.5 | 38867 | 15.9 | 40046 | 10.8 | 45724 | 14.8 | 34298 | 12.9 | 20111 | 8.9 | 14439 | 7.2 | 11274 | 7.1 |
| 1976 | 50158 | 14.8 | 38493 | 12.3 | 36360 | 13.7 | 28065 | 15.1 | 30091 | 11.5 | 12815 | 5.9 | 8581 | 4.5 | 8007 | 4.6 |
| 1977 | 54387 | 15.6 | 40718 | 12.6 | 36826 | 12.0 | 26220 | 10.9 | 20068 | 11.8 | 13875 | 6.3 | 8957 | 4.6 | 8171 | 4.6 |
| 1978 | 46200 | 13.0 | 40487 | 12.2 | 38706 | 12.4 | 31174 | 11.4 | 19734 | 9.1 | 11269 | 7.7 | 8799 | 4.4 | 2448 | 4.7 |
| 1979 | 61972 | 14.8 | 48411 | 13.7 | 47494 | 14.4 | 37519 | 12.9 | 25924 | 10.6 | 16472 | 8.7 | 11356 | 8.7 | 11535 | 6.3 |
| 1980 | 39749 | 11.6 | 48765 | 12.3 | 43404 | 12.5 | 33824 | 11.7 | 23596 | 8.8 | 16021 | 6.0 | 10516 | 6.0 | 7832 | 6.4 |

*Source:* Education Ministry statistics 1979.

## VIII. Repetition rates (1977)

| *Educational Districts* | *GRADES* | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *I* | *II* | *III* | *IV* | *V* | *VI* | *VII* | *VIII* |
| Colombo South | 7.2 | 6.9 | 7.5 | 7.0 | 7.5 | 13.4 | 4.9 | 3.0 |
| Homagama | 6.7 | 7.3 | 9.1 | 7.3 | 5.7 | 9.7 | 2.6 | 2.8 |
| Colombo North | 7.3 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 5.1 | 6.0 | 7.0 | 3.5 | 3.7 |
| Kalutara | 7.3 | 6.9 | 7.6 | 6.5 | 6.3 | 9.3 | 3.8 | 3.6 |
| Kandy | 15.5 | 12.6 | 11.4 | 8.6 | 8.8 | 7.5 | 3.3 | 3.3 |
| Matale | 20.3 | 15.2 | 13.8 | 13.8 | 11.3 | 6.1 | 3.9 | 3.0 |
| Nuwara-Eliya | 21.8 | 15.6 | 15.2 | 13.4 | 13.8 | 13.6 | 9.7 | 8.7 |
| Galle | 15.1 | 11.8 | 13.0 | 10.9 | 9.7 | 12.0 | 5.0 | 5.5 |
| Matara | 17.3 | 14.7 | 13.9 | 11.7 | 11.4 | 11.5 | 6.0 | 4.8 |
| Tangalle | 15.6 | 15.1 | 13.1 | 10.3 | 10.3 | 8.7 | 4.0 | 3.5 |
| Jaffna | 12.5 | 10.8 | 11.3 | 7.8 | 8.5 | 10.7 | 4.5 | 4.2 |
| Mannar | 15.2 | 12.7 | 14.1 | 11.5 | 11.3 | 9.5 | 3.8 | 5.3 |
| Vavuniya | 17.0 | 12.0 | 12.7 | 11.7 | 10.6 | 3.9 | 2.3 | 2.6 |
| Batticaloa | 21.0 | 17.5 | 17.2 | 12.2 | 11.4 | 8.7 | 5.2 | 4.7 |
| Amparai | 17.7 | 14.8 | 17.8 | 13.8 | 13.6 | 9.0 | 3.9 | 3.3 |
| Trincomalee | 31.7 | 21.4 | 19.0 | 14.7 | 14.8 | 12.3 | 9.5 | 6.1 |
| Kalmunai | 21.7 | 19.6 | 18.8 | 14.1 | 10.6 | 11.2 | 6.2 | 7.4 |
| Kurunegala | 17.0 | 13.5 | 10.9 | 8.6 | 8.9 | 8.6 | 4.0 | 5.0 |
| Chilaw | 19.9 | 15.3 | 13.8 | 11.3 | 11.1 | 6.3 | 3.2 | 3.5 |
| Anuradhapura | 19.1 | 14.5 | 13.5 | 13.0 | 10.3 | 7.5 | 4.5 | 3.2 |
| Polonnaruwa | 14.5 | 0.6 | 12.5 | 10.5 | 10.1 | 5.3 | 2.2 | 1.6 |
| Bandarawela | 18.6 | 15.5 | 14.6 | 11.0 | 11.3 | 12.1 | 7.8 | 8.8 |
| Moneragala | 16.2 | 13.6 | 16.1 | 13.2 | 11.1 | 9.2 | 4.3 | 4.5 |
| Ratnapura | 15.4 | 12.8 | 12.7 | 10.4 | 9.4 | 9.8 | 5.6 | 4.4 |
| Kegalle | 16.3 | 11.9 | 11.3 | 9.4 | 10.1 | 8.8 | 4.5 | 3.8 |
| Sri Lanka | 15.3 | 12.2 | 11.8 | 9.6 | 9.3 | 9.5 | 4.5 | 4.5 |

*Source:* School Census

## IX. School drop-outs and school leavers (1974-1979)

| Year (1st March to Feb. 28 of the following year) | Grade I | | Grade II | | Grade III | | Grade IV | | Grade V | | Grade VI | | Grade VII | | Grade VIII | | Grades I to VIII | Grade IX and X School leavers | Grade XI & XII School leavers | Total school drop-outs school leavers |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | Ratio | No. | Ratio | No. | Ratio | No. | Ratio | No. | Ratio | No. | Ratio | No. | Ratio | No. | Ratio | | | | |
| 1973/74 | 12[illegible]4 | 3.9 | 7900 | 4.3 | 15263 | 9.8 | 21807 | 10.9 | 26751 | 13.2 | 23669 | 13.5 | 22719 | 11.8 | 28483 | 14.1 | 209668 | 109370 | 16727 | 3376 |
| 74/75 | 8016 | 2.3 | 14537 | 3.2 | 21669 | 11.2 | 34379 | 11.2 | 32818 | 13.4 | 28008 | 12.4 | 24153 | 12.0 | 18927 | 12.0 | 182308 | 126401 | 17190 | 32598 |
| 75/76 | 5618 | 1.7 | 10059 | 3.2 | 17201 | 6.5 | 17725 | 9.6 | 25007 | 9.6 | 18809 | 8.6 | 15486 | 8.0 | 12967 | 7.4 | 122937 | 120671 | 19423 | 26303 |
| 76/77 | 2706 | 1.3 | 7455 | 3.0 | 16592 | 8.2 | 30234 | 8.3 | 17295 | 11.7 | 16353 | 8.9 | 17986 | 7.7 | 9511 | 5.4 | 118050 | 140269 | 30335 | 28901 |
| 77/78 | 4186 | 1.2 | 6601 | 2.0 | 11872 | 3.7 | 10774 | 4.0 | 10353 | 4.7 | 5107 | 3.4 | 4545 | 2.3 | 3613 | 2.0 | 56830 | 25549 | 34824 | 11720 |
| 78/79 | 5259 | 1.3 | 4270 | 1.3 | 11130 | 3.4 | 12613 | 4.3 | 12112 | 4.9 | 10346 | 5.4 | 8469 | 6.5 | 9027 | 4.9 | 72926 | 89598 | 36331 | 1988 |

*Source:* Education Ministry – Statistics Division.

## X. Drop-outs and sex composition (1979)

| *Grade* | *Total Enrolment* | | | *Total Drop-outs Government Schools last 12 months* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Total* | *Male* | *Female* | *Female* | *Male* | *Total* |
| I | 343,122 | 177,738 | 165,384 | 2,388 | 2,871 | 5,259 |
| II | 396,711 | 204,306 | 192,405 | 1,939 | 2,331 | 4,270 |
| III | 348,031 | 178,540 | 169,491 | 5,204 | 5,926 | 11,130 |
| IV | 307,679 | 157,224 | 150,455 | 5,487 | 6,926 | 12,413 |
| V | 267,164 | 135,986 | 131,178 | 5,331 | 6,781 | 12,112 |
| VI | 222,431 | 112,773 | 109,658 | 4,556 | 5,790 | 10,346 |
| VII | 174,469 | 88,107 | 86,362 | 3,722 | 4,747 | 8,469 |
| VIII | 122,772 | 60,650 | 62,122 | 3,995 | 5,032 | 9,027 |
| IX | 168,337 | 82,654 | 85,683 | 1,587 | 2,019 | 3,464 |
| Total Gr. I to IX | 2,350,716 | 1,197,878 | 1,152,738 | 34,249 | 42,423 | 76,672 |

*Source:* Statistics Section, Ministry of Education.

## XI. Statistical survey of estate schools (June 1981)

| *District* | *No. of Schools* | *No. on roll (5-15 years)* | *No. of schools below 100 pupils* | *No. not attending* | *Percentage not attending* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Homagama | 05 | 352 | 05 | 80 | 22.7 |
| 2. Matara | 04 | 230 | 04 | 225 | 50.56 |
| 3. Galle | 07 | 650 | 03 | 396 | 37.85 |
| 4. Kandy East | 32 | 2810 | 12 | 1597 | 36.23 |
| 5. Kandy West | 57 | 4569 | 39 | 2375 | 34.20 |
| 6. Kalutara | 35 | 2950 | 36 | 1349 | 31.37 |
| 7. Bandarawela | 103 | 11790 | 53 | 7715 | 39.55 |
| 8. Ratnapura | 73 | 7983 | 37 | 4691 | 37.01 |
| 9. Matale | 19 | 1752 | 12 | 1174 | 40.12 |
| 10. Nuwara-Eliya | 199 | 23130 | 93 | 13157 | 36.25 |
| 11. Kurunegala | 02 | 73 | 02 | 52 | 41.60 |
| 12. Kegalle | 44 | 4607 | 28 | 1962 | 29.86 |
| Total | 580 | 60876 | 324 | 16768 | 36.09 |

*Source:* Schools Unit (Plantation Sector) Ministry of Education.

**XII. Distribution of those employed by occupation and educational attainment (1979)**

| | *White Collar Occupations Number ('000s)* | *per cent* | *Agricultural Occupations Number ('000s)* | *per cent* | *Other Occupations Number ('000s)* | *per cent* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 654.5 | 18.1 | 1,790.0 | 49.4 | 1,173.9 | 32.5 |
| No schooling | 2.4 | 4.1 | 41.4 | 69.3 | 15.9 | 26.6 |
| Grades I-V | 116.0 | 8.0 | 853.8 | 59.1 | 474.5 | 32.9 |
| Grade VI and above | 274.8 | 26.3 | 333.3 | 31.8 | 436.8 | 41.9 |
| GCE ("O" level) | 120.6 | 69.1 | 14.6 | 8.4 | 39.0 | 22.4 |
| GCE ("A" level) | 65.3 | 94.6 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 2.6 | 3.7 |
| Degree | 30.1 | 94.5 | 0.4 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 4.3 |
| Unspecified | 45.3 | 5.7 | 546.3 | 68.7 | 203.9 | 25.6 |

*Source:* Dept., of Census & Statistics Population Census.

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# THAILAND

*by Chinnapat Bhumirat*

## The problem

In Thailand there is compulsory education for six years, namely, from grade I to grade VI, or for children between 7-14 years of age. Thus, children who are in the specified age bracket, are supposed to be attending schools or at least have their names enrolled in school. For this reason there is no real data concerning the drop-outs and it is necessary to consider some other related statistics which can reflect the drop-out problem. The available statistics that might be useful are the attendance rates of students and the flow rates from grade IV to grade V.

Any particular areas which have a large number of students continuously absent from schools or which have low student attendance rates, may be considered as problem areas. It is possible that some students just have their names registered in schools, but they actually never attend the schools.

The flow rates from grade IV through grade V may also indicate the degree of the drop-out problem. Since compulsory education in Thailand used to be only four years from grade I through grade IV, then extended to grade VII in 1966 and scaled down to cover up to grade VI in 1978, there are a large number of parents who are still used to the old system, and prefer to send their children to schools for only four years. The consequence of this is the low rate of continuation from grade IV to grade V.

**Pattern and trends of drop-out.** A research study done by the Department of General Education in 1974 in Samut Songkram province found that 65.5 per cent of drop-outs had been repeaters before. The reasons for dropping out ranged from having to assist parents with house-work to student's health problems and death. (Table 1).

Rates of attendance of students were obtained in 1981 by the Educational Research Division, National Education Commission, in

**Table 1. Parents' interview on causes of drop-out**

| *Cause* | *Per cent* |
|---|---|
| 1. Assist parents with house-work | 32.7 |
| 2. Student's decision | 17.3 |
| 3. Financial difficulties | 13.4 |
| 4. Lack of parent support | 7.7 |
| 5. Student's health problem | 5.8 |
| 6. Death | 1.3 |
| 7. Unable to define causes | 21.8 |
| Total | 100.0 |

the "schoolir g mapping" research project. The research found that the attendance rates of students were fairly high, at about 93 per cent. There were a few provinces, Udorn Thani, Yasothorn, and Roi Et, that had exceptionally high attendance rates. Their attendance rates were about 98 per cent. On the other hand, there were a few provinces such as Prachin Buri, Nakhon Nayok, Surin, and Trat which had lower attendance rates of about 86-89 per cent. Other provinces not indicated here had their attendance rates about 90 per cent or higher.

When comparing attendance rates between different geographical regions, it was found that the central and eastern regions had lower attendance rates than the northeastern region as indicated in Table 2.

**Table 2. Averages of attendance rates of different geographical regions***

| *Geographical Region* | *Average* | *Standard Deviation* |
|---|---|---|
| Central and Eastern | 89.99 | 2.28 |
| Northeastern | 93.99 | 3.25 |
| Total | 92.60 | 3.49 |

* Averages of attendance rates of different provinces shown in Supplementary Table I.

Even though the overall attendance rates of Thailand could be considered high at about 93 per cent, there is still an educational problem since absence in school reduces efficiency and could intensify the drop-out problem.

The difference in attendance rates between different schools or different geographical regions might be the result of distance between home and school. The "school mapping" research project found that the central and eastern regions had a higher number of students who had to travel over 40 minutes from home to school, than did the northeastern region, as illustrated in Table 3.

**Table 3. Average percentage of students travelling over 40 Minutes from home to school***

| *Geographical region* | *Average* | *Standard deviation* |
|---|---|---|
| Central and Eastern | 11.36 | 3.36 |
| Northeastern | 7.00 | 3.72 |
| Total | 8.39 | 4.09 |

* Data at provincial level shown in Supplementary Table II

The figures in Table 2 and Table 3 show a negative relationship between the distance from home to school and the attendance rates. In areas where students have to travel a long way to school, the attendance rates are lower than areas where schools are located near the community. This relationship suggests that the attendance rates could be improved if more schools are provided in order to reduce the distance from home to school.

During the last ten years, the flow rates from grade IV to grade V have improved, especially in some provinces. The trends in the improvement during 1976 to 1980 are shown in Table 4.

The improvement of the flow rates from grade IV through grade V during 1976 to 1980 is generally satisfactory, since all provinces except Tak and Lampang showed significant improvement. Another set of statistics that shows the flow rates at the national level is the comparison between the number of grade IV graduates and the number of students entering grade V in the following year. Table 5 illustrates this trend during 1973 to 1977.

**Table 4. The flow rates from grade IV to grade V – 1976-1980**

| *Province* | *1976* | *1980* |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Kamphaeng Phet | .29 | .79 |
| 2. Tak | .52 | .49 |
| 3. Nakhon Sawan | .57 | .61 |
| 4. Phichit | .37 | .84 |
| 5. Phitsanulok | .50 | .64 |
| 6. Phetchaboon | .24 | .63 |
| 7. Sukhothai | .40 | .71 |
| 8. Uttaradit | .58 | .62 |
| 9. Chiangrai | .37 | .70 |
| 10. Chiangmai | .39 | .69 |
| 11. Nan | .48 | .67 |
| 12. Phrae | .58 | .68 |
| 13. Lampang | .49 | .49 |
| 14. Lampoon | .44 | .69 |
| 15. Mae Hong Sorn | .50 | .65 |
| 16. Kanchanaburi | .44 | 61 |
| 17. Chonburi | .47 | .93 |

**Table 5. Comparing grade IV graduates with entering Vth graders in the following year during 1973 to 1977**

| *Year* | *Grade IV Graduates* | *Entering grade V* | *Per cent* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1973 | 774,428 | 315,813 | 49.73 |
| 1974 | 779,692 | 320,900 | 41.16 |
| 1975 | 821,772 | 350,852 | 42.69 |
| 1976 | 902,110 | 394,696 | 43.75 |
| 1977 | 937,874 | 538,590 | 57.43 |

The flow rates in Table 5 show an improving trend, especially between 1976 and 1977. The improvement amounted to more than 10 per cent. However, these overall flow rates were still much below the target, since compulsory education in Thailand is six years and covering through grade VI. Thus, the real target for flow rates from grade IV to grade V should be 100 per cent in every community.

**Causes of drop-out.** The causes of the drop-out problem could be described under three aspects as follows:

1. *Geographical aspect.* The drop-out problem may be considered in terms of the amount of time students have to spend on travelling from home to school. On average about 8 per cent of students have to spend more than 40 minutes.

Also, in some areas, the geographical conditions cause difficulties for transportation. As presented in Tables 2 and 3, any particular areas that have a high number of students who are required to spend much time travelling from home to school, would have low attendance rates.

2. *Socio-economic aspect.* The socio-economic condition is closely related to the geographical condition. Areas of harsh geographical conditions usually have depressed economic conditions. This includes inadequate irrigation systems, and health and public services. Thus, areas having poor economic status usually have low attendance rates and flow rates, because children have to stay at home and assist the family with the house work or have to look for employment in order to earn a living or are too sickly to attend school regularly.

In a poor district, parents do not favour sending their children to school. They do not see any difference whether their children are educated or not. They prefer having their children stay at home to help when the parents need them. Thus, the values and attitudes of parents regarding education have still to be improved.

3. *Education-management aspect.* The first problem related to educational management is that of expanding compulsory education to cover up to grade VI. Since there are a large number of small primary schools located in rural areas, they have a lack of teachers. Many of these schools manage to provide only up to grade IV. This situation is the reverse of schools in urban and town areas, where there are highly qualified teachers and some teachers are even unable to find employment.

The second problem concerns the quality of education. Even though the quality of education may not have a direct effect on the drop-out problem, it could intensify the problem. For instance, when the quality of education is low, the number of repeaters could increase. It was found that the majority of drop-outs had been repeaters at least once.[1]

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[1] Supportive information regarding repeaters and drop-outs may be found in Supplementary Table V.

**Possible solutions.** Some possible solutions to the drop-out problem are:

i) Increasing educational opportunity by provision of school-busing for children in remote areas; provision of bicycles and necessary equipment for children in remote areas; building more roads between villages so students can travel to school more easily; using mobile schools; and building more schools where necessary.

ii) Improving educational resources by attention to staff, buildings and equipment. A sufficient number of qualified teachers must be provided especially in remote areas; some special incentives should be offered for teachers in remote areas; educational grants may be provided for local people in remote areas so that they would come back and teach in their own community. School buildings may be expanded to accommodate more students; and multipurpose buildings may be provided to be fully utilized by various school activities. School equipment could be improved by offering training courses for teachers on how to produce teaching equipment by using local materials and by the establishment of a school equipment centre in a district or between neighbouring schools.

iii) Improving the quality of education by in-service training; use of educational innovation where appropriate; development of a monitoring system for periodic evaluation; and finding ways to increase attendance rates by adjusting the school vacation so that the children can help their parents during the harvesting period.

iv) Improving parents' attitudes and values about education by informing them about the importance of education and giving them some concrete examples of the benefits. Also, a mobile public-relations service could be developed to serve at community level in remote areas where attendance rates are low.

## Projects to prevent drop-out and increase educational opportunity

There are two related and interesting projects to be presented:

1. The Alternate Intake for Small Primary Schools in Thailand
2. The School Bicycle Project

**Alternate intake for small primary schools.** The pilot study of this project began in 1978 with a goal to alleviate the problems of small primary schools in rural areas. The nature of the problem is

that people in rural areas like to live in scattered locations close to the rice fields or plantations. The nature of this type of housing makes the communities small and scattered. Thus, it is necessary to have many small primary schools to serve these communities. It is difficult to maintain these small primary schools because the expense involved is high. It is not efficient to have numerous small schools since the educational resources such as teachers and funds for school buildings are limited. Some districts are unable to provide a sufficient number of teachers, and in some cases, one teacher has to teach more than one class at the same time. This in turn reduces educational quality, and the educational attainment in small primary schools is low.

There are many possible solutions to the problem. One of them is to adjust the student-intake system. The project is called "the alternate intake for small primary schools". The project was designed to decrease the operation costs by reducing the number of classes. Instead of admitting first graders every year, the schools take in new students every other year, and combine a two-age group in the same class. A two-age group consists of students at norm age for grade I (7 years) and students who are up to one year below the norm age.

The consequence of this method causes the small primary schools to have only three classes and only three teachers instead of six classes (grade I to grade VI) and six teachers.

The objectives of this project are to reduce the number of classes to suit the number of available teachers; to search for a teaching technique to be used with two-age group children; to reduce operational costs, such as the salaries of the teachers, and the budget for school buildings; to improve educational quality; and to make it possible for small primary schools to provide education up to grade VI.

The alternate intake system is to admit two age groups of children into grade I every other year. The alternate intake system may be illustrated as in Table 6.

The alternate intake is conducted according to the following steps:

*1st year:* Accepting six-year old and seven-year old children instead of only seven-year olds in the ordinary way. However, during the first year, the school will still have the same number of classes.

**Table 6. A model for an alternate student-intake**

| *Year* | *Grade I* | *Grade II* | *Grade III* | *Grade IV* | *Grade V* | *Grade VI* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 2 | – | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 3 | ● | – | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 4 | – | ● | – | ● | ○ | ○ |
| 5 | ● | – | ● | – | ● | ○ |
| 6 | – | ● | – | ● | – | ● |

● = classes formed by the project

○ = ordinary classes

| *Year* | *Grade I* | *Grade II* | *Grade III* | *Grade IV* | *Grade V* | *Grade VI* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Ⓐ | Ⓐ | Ⓓ | Ⓓ | Ⓔ | Ⓔ |
| 2 | | | | | | |
| 3 | Ⓑ | Ⓑ | Ⓐ | Ⓐ | Ⓓ | Ⓓ |
| 4 | | | | | | |
| 5 | Ⓒ | Ⓒ | Ⓑ | Ⓑ | Ⓐ | Ⓐ |
| 6 | | | | | | |

*2nd year:* No student intake, thus, the school has only five classes (without grade I).

*3rd year:* Accepting six-year old and seven-year old children as in the first year. This causes the school to have five classes (all grades but grade II).

*4th year:* No student intake. The school has four classes (grades II, IV, V and VI).

*5th year:* Accepting grade I students as in the first and third year. The school has four classes (grades I, III, V and VI).

*6th year:* No student intake. This sixth year is the first year when the school has only three classes (grades II, IV and VI).

If the same process continues, the school would have only three classes in each year either grades I, III and V or grades II, IV and VI.

**The School Bicycle Project.** This project is also an alternative for mitigating problems of small primary schools in rural areas. Since compulsory education is six years, it is an obligation of the State to provide a sufficient number of schools to expand compulsory education up to six years. There are a large number of small primary schools in rural areas which have only a few students in each class (less than 100 students in a school). If these schools have to expand the number of classes to cover grade V and VI it would be costly and not very efficient. Thus, the students in these small primary schools, after finishing grade IV should attend some other large schools in the nearby district.

The objectives of this project are to reduce the budget for expanding compulsory education; to increase efficiency and quality of education, since some research studies indicated that educational attainment is higher in larger schools; and to increase educational opportunity and expand compulsory education to cover every part of the country.

After students complete grade IV in a small rural school, the State has to provide a bicycle to each one so that they have the means to attend grades V and VI in a more distant school. This strategy could save money, especially in the long run. For example, a small primary school which has about 15 grade IV graduates may plan to purchase 10-15 bicycles during the first two years (two students may share a bicycle). This would cost about 12,000-15,000 Baht (or about US$590-740), plus maintenance costs which would be low and could be absorbed by the community.

This programme might be inconvenient for students who have to travel a long way to school, and in case the traffic is heavy, it may be dangerous, especially for small children. Thus, this programme is recommended for areas which have good roads and light traffic. The

children should not travel more than six kilometres from home to school.

**Actions to prevent drop-out**

**Project to provide formal education.** This report describes three related projects, the Mobile School Project, the Special Education Project, and the Nuclear School Project.

(a) *Mobile School Project.* The objectives of this project are to provide educational opportunities for children in very small communities in remote areas, and to reduce the educational budget for building new schools.

Activities under this project are to find a temporary building to be used for teaching-learning activities, assign a teaching team to teach in a small community for up to one month, then move on to teach in another small community where there is no school, and develop a special curriculum to be used by this programme.

(b) *Special Education Project.* Objectives under this project are to provide educational opportunities for both physically and economically disadvantaged children to improve educational quality, and to reduce the educational budget for building new schools. Project activities are to build new schools for special education services, to expand some existing schools to serve disadvantaged children, and to specify areas to be served by special education schools.

(c) *Nuclear school project.* Objectives under this project are to make a nuclear school as an academic centre, to enable a nuclear school to expand compulsory education and reduce the drop-out problem, and to alleviate the transportation problem, because the nuclear school is located near a community.

**Projects to provide non-formal education.** This includes five related projects as follows:

i) Adult general education (Levels 1-5)
ii) Functional literacy programme
iii) Adult vocational education
iv) Mobile trade training school
v) Public library programme

i) *Adult general education (Levels 1-5)* has as its objectives to improve literacy rates and prevent relapse to illiteracy, to provide opportunities for those who need to further their education, to promote cultural activities and encourage family planning, to fully utilize educational resources, and to educate people so that they can adjust themselves in the environment properly.

The basic adult education curriculum consists of two parts. Each part takes six months to complete. The school meets three days a week (two periods/day). The courses offered are Thai, arithmetic, basic career, geography, history, and health education. This curriculum is used only in rural areas.

Adult education, Levels 1 and 2 (Level 1 = grade II, Level 2 = grade IV), takes six months to complete. The school meets five days a week (two periods/day). The courses offered are Thai, sociology, science, arithmetic, and health education. This curriculum is used in town and urban areas for adults who want to further their education.

Adult education Level 3 (Level 3 = grade VII), takes one and a half years to complete. The school meets five days a week (two periods/day). The courses offered are Thai, English, mathematics, science, sociology, and health. A student is allowed to take a pair of courses in one term as offered below:

a) mathematics 160 periods, and health 40 periods;

b) Thai 80 periods and English 120 periods; or

c) science 80 periods and sociology 120 periods,

Adult education Level 4 (Level 4 = grade X) takes one and a half years to complete. The school meets five days a week (two to three periods/day). The courses offered are similar to those at Level 3. A student is allowed to take a pair of courses in one term as offered below:

a) mathematics 258 periods and health 42 periods;

b) Thai 108 periods and sociology 192 periods; or

c) English 168 periods and science 132 periods.

Adult education Level 5 (Level 5 = grade XII) is offered in three categories, science, arts, and general studies. The curriculum

at this level is identical to grades XI and XII of formal education and takes two years to complete. The school meets six days a week (four periods/day).

ii) *The functional literacy programme*, objectives are to provide reading skill and arithmetic ability to people so that they can use them in daily life, to improve living conditions of villagers in remote areas, to reduce illiteracy, and to utilize fully educational resources.

This programme was designed on the basis of problems and needs of people in rural areas. The teaching-learning activities could be conducted at any convenient place, such as the Wat (temple) or at home.

The learners have to attend about 200 periods (about five to six months). The contents of courses offered are aimed at solving problems in the following areas: iob and employment, economic condition, health and family life, and moral aspects.

The programme is divided into four levels:

Level 1 is equivalent to grade II, and is of six months duration.

Level 2 is equivalent to grade IV, and is of six months duration.

Level 3 is equivalent to grade VII, and is of one and a half years duration.

Level 4 is equivalent to grade X, and is of one and a half years duration.

The courses offered for Levels 3 and 4 are mathematics, health, Thai, sociology, science and English.

iii) *The adult vocational education* programme has as its objectives to provide vocational training for people who left school early; to promote the use of free time; to upgrade workmanship by improving working knowledge and skills; and to utilize fully educational resources.

A survey has to be conducted to find the needs of people, then a suitable vocational training is provided. Each course being offered must be a short course and includes both theory and practice. The

learner must be 15 years of age or older and have basic knowledge, equivalent to grade IV. The attendance must be recorded and checked as in the formal schooling system.

The courses for adult vocational education must be short courses and practical in terms of application. The curriculum covers four areas: industrial arts, business, agricultural, and career education.

iv) *The mobile trade training schools* are able to move from one place to another. The specific training is offered according to the needs of local people. The training should take about five to six months, after which, the teaching team moves on to another community. Their objectives are to produce middle-skilled and semi-skilled manpower to fulfil the increasing demand; to reduce the gap between the Government and the local people in remote areas, because this programme is offered by the Government and the target group is people in remote areas; to improve the living conditions of rural people, and to offer a door-to-door type of education so that everybody will have an equal chance of getting the service.

The training course was designed to take about five to six months or about 300 periods. The curriculum covers various types of training. Thus the training should be suitable for the local needs. The subjects of training courses are: mechanics, electronics, radio repairs, refrigeration, tailoring (dress-making), hair-dressing, typing, cooking, accounting, etc.

v) *The public library programme* is to create 69 provincial libraries and 26 district libraries. The objectives of the programme are to support non-formal education; to encourage people to read and to build an interest in reading; to provide up-to-date news and knowledge to the people; to educate people so that they can understand their rights and responsibilities; to promote and support Thai culture, and to promote the use of free time.

## SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

### I. Averages of attendance rates at provincial level

| *Province* | *Attendance Rates as a percentage* |
|---|---|
| 1. Lob Buri | 91.32 |
| 2. Prachuab Khiri Khan | 91.33 |
| 3. Prachin Buri | 86.18 |
| 4. Nakhon Nayok | 87.23 |
| 5. Chachoengsao | 91.41 |
| 6. Chantha Buri | 91.72 |
| 7. Trat | 88.70 |
| 8. Rayong | 92.02 |
| 9. Udon Thani | 98.14 |
| 10. Khon Kaen | 94.48 |
| 11. Nong Khai | 93.87 |
| 12. Loei | 95.82 |
| 13. Ubon Ratchathani | 94.72 |
| 14. Yasothon | 98.06 |
| 15. Nakhon Phanom | 90.68 |
| 16. Roi Et | 97.80 |
| 17. Kalasin | 96.18 |
| 18. Nakhon Rachasima | 93.75 |
| 19. Buri Ram | 90.24 |
| 20. Chaiyaphum | 94.70 |
| 21. Si Sa Ket | 89.96 |
| 22. Surin | 87.00 |
| 23. Sakon Nakhon | 94.48 |

## II. Average per cent of students travelling for over 40 minutes from home to school

| *Province* | *percentage* |
|---|---|
| 1. Lob Buri | 10.03 |
| 2. Prachuab Khiri Khan | 15.27 |
| 3. Prachin Buri | 6.08 |
| 4. Nakhon Nayok | 9.13 |
| 5. Chachoengsao | 10.48 |
| 6. Chanta Buri | 14.14 |
| 7. Trat | – |
| 8. Rayong | 14.39 |
| 9. Udon Thani | 12.54 |
| 10. Khon Kaen | 3.39 |
| 11. Nong Khai | 6.32 |
| 12. Loei | 4.68 |
| 13. Ubon Ratchathani | 6.00 |
| 14. Yasothon | 9.48 |
| 15. Nakhon Phanom | 7.24 |
| 16. Roi Et | 2.57 |
| 17. Kalasin | 4.03 |
| 18. Nakhon Rachasima | 15.87 |
| 19. Buri Ram | 4.23 |
| 20. Chaiyaphum | 5.49 |
| 21. Si Sa Ket | 4.95 |
| 22. Surin | 10.90 |
| 23. Sakon Nakhon | 7.35 |

**III. Average percentage of promotion rates at provincial level**

| *Province* | *Grades I-II* | *Grades II-III* | *Grades III-IV* | *Grades IV-V* | *Grades V-VI* | *Completing Grade VI* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Lob Buri | 80 | 90 | 90 | 95 | 89 | 96 |
| 2. Prachuab Khiri Khan | 81 | 89 | 87 | 93 | 87 | 95 |
| 3. Prachin Buri | 79 | 86 | 87 | 97 | 87 | 95 |
| 4. Nakhon Nayok | 83 | 90 | 90 | 94 | 80 | 95 |
| 5. Chachoengsao | 78 | 89 | 89 | 95 | 90 | 92 |
| 6. Chanta Buri | 80 | 90 | 98 | 95 | 89 | 94 |
| 7. Trat | 80 | 90 | 89 | 94 | 88 | 94 |
| 8. Rayong | 87 | 92 | 99 | 97 | 91 | 98 |
| 9. Udon Thani | 86 | 93 | 94 | 94 | 96 | 97 |
| 10. Khon Kaen | 94 | 95 | 93 | 98 | 95 | 98 |
| 11. Nong Khai | 91 | 95 | 96 | 97 | 89 | 96 |
| 12. Loei | 89 | 93 | 94 | 99 | 91 | 93 |
| 13. Ubon Ratchathani | 92 | 95 | 94 | 95 | 95 | 97 |
| 14. Yasothon | 100 | 99 | 99 | 97 | 94 | 100 |
| 15. Nakorn Phanom | 84 | 90 | 95 | 94 | 95 | 96 |
| 16. Roi Et | 98 | 93 | 97 | 79 | 91 | 98 |
| 17. Kalasin | 95 | 97 | 97 | 96 | 94 | 96 |
| 18. Nakhon Phanom | 85 | 89 | 89 | 93 | 91 | 95 |
| 19. Buri Ram | 83 | 88 | 94 | 99 | 90 | 95 |
| 20. Chaiyaphum | 89 | 93 | 93 | 97 | 91 | 97 |
| 21. Si Sa Ket | 84 | 90 | 90 | 92 | 80 | 92 |
| 22. Surin | 77 | 85 | 86 | 97 | 88 | 95 |
| 23. Sakon Nakhon | 94 | 97 | 98 | 97 | 92 | 97 |

## IV. Admission ratios between number of students at primary level and the number of population between 7-14 years of age.

| | Province | Population between 7-14 | number of primary school students | per cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Kamphaeng Phet | 117,771 | 84,167 | 71.47 |
| 2. | Tak | 53,311 | 39,216 | 73.56 |
| 3. | Nakhon Sawan | 165,399 | 139,591 | 84.39 |
| 4. | Pichit | 88,284 | 72,860 | 82.53 |
| 5. | Pisanulok | 142,653 | 104,661 | 73.37 |
| 6. | Phetchabun | 157,177 | 120,989 | 76.98 |
| 7. | Sukhothai | 107,371 | 76,980 | 71.69 |
| 8. | Uttaradit | 61,877 | 63,195 | 102.13 |
| 9. | Chiang Mai | 170,081 | 124,207 | 73.03 |
| 10. | Chiang Rai | 173,871 | 131,406 | 75.58 |
| 11. | Nan | 76,855 | 57,936 | 75.38 |
| 12. | Lampang | 106,629 | 90,711 | 85.47 |
| 13. | Lampoon | 60,305 | 44,953 | 74.54 |
| 14. | Phrae | 81,421 | 62,816 | 77.15 |
| 15. | Payao | 84,857 | 68,841 | 81.13 |
| 16. | Mae Hong Son | 23,030 | 14,879 | 64.61 |
| 17. | Kanchanaburi | 77,961 | 84,262 | 108.08 |
| 18. | Chon Buri | 114,310 | 81,975 | 71.71 |
| 19. | Chachoengsao | 135,675 | 69,144 | 50.96 |
| 20. | Chantha Buri | 55,711 | 49,441 | 88.75 |
| 21. | Rayong | 65,718 | 55,852 | 84.99 |
| | Total | 2,120,673 | 1,637,226 | 77.21 |

## V. Number of drop-outs who had been repeaters before.

| Number of Students / School | drop-outs | Non-repeaters | | Repeaters | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | number | Per cent | 1 time | 2 times | 3 times | 4 times | 5 times | Total | per cent |
| 1. Ban Lad Yai | 9 | 2 | 22.2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | – | – | 7 | 77.8 |
| 2. Ban Talu Kasw | 13 | 3 | 23.1 | 4 | 5 | 1 | – | – | 10 | 76.9 |
| 3. Wat Katu Karam | 9 | 4 | 44.4 | 3 | 2 | – | – | – | 5 | 55.6 |
| 4. Wat Kor Yai | 9 | 3 | 33.3 | 4 | 2 | – | – | – | 6 | 66.7 |
| 5. Wat Rad Bamroong | 33 | 6 | 18.2 | 10 | 9 | 4 | – | – | 27 | 81.8 |
| 6. Wat Tham Sathit | 40 | 9 | 22.5 | 9 | 15 | 6 | 3 | 1 | 31 | 77.5 |
| 7. Wat Bang Nai | 29 | 22 | 75.9 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | – | 7 | 24.1 |
| Total | 142 | 49 | 35.5 | 35 | 38 | 15 | 4 | 1 | 93 | 65.5 |

(Surveyed by Department of General Education, Ministry of Education in Samut Songkram Province 1974).