

PART - I

CONCEPTUAL AND COMPARATIVE

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## CHAPTER - I

PATTERNS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN  
ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN SOME COUNTRIES

"Some people thought that if the responsibility was handed over to the people, they would probably be not able to shoulder it. But it is only by providing opportunity to the people that they can be trained to shoulder responsibilities. People were not to be merely consulted but effective power was to be entrusted to them....2

- Jawaharlal Nehru

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(The G.D.R.)
- o General deductions of the comparative study.
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Year	Percentage (%)
1960	40
1961	40
1962	40
1963	40
1964	40
1965	40
1966	40
1967	40
1968	40
1969	40
1970	40
1971	40
1972	40
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1992	40
1993	40
1994	40
1995	40
1996	40
1997	40
1998	40
1999	40
2000	40

A, C, D, H, J

"It is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with active participation and, if possible, on the initiative of community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously,

then by the use of techniques of arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active and enthusiastic response to this movement."

The term is used to describe the technique many Governments have used to reach their village people and it denotes the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of Government to improve Social, Economic, Educational and Cultural condition of communities. In India, and in other developing countries where rural habitations are predominant, community development means principally the over-all development of rural communities with the active cooperation of the people, the Government playing the role of an advisor, guide, a financial helper. The over-all development includes areas such as agriculture, education, transport and communication, health, sanitation, housing, women's and children's welfare, cottage and small-scale industries and so on. The Central objective is to ensure fullest development of the material and human resources in these areas, develop responsible and responsive village leadership and self-governing institutions and thereby raise the level of living of the village community.

Democratic decentralisation implies a local government at different levels such as district, block and village to which authority is developed in all the areas of community development so as to ensure local initiative, local interest,

and active participation of local communities in the process and programme of development of public life. The three-tier Panchayati Raj Institutions, that have come into being as a result of the Balwantrai Mehta Committee on Democratic Decentralisation (1959) reflect the idea and spirit of democratic decentralisation. In Gujarat, the democratic decentralised institutions of public administration at the district, taluka and village levels came into existence under the Gujarat Panchayat Act of 1961. In the matter of administration, it implied that the district adopted some 150 years ago as the unit of administration has become too large and unmanageable and therefore the size of the basic unit of administration was cut down to that of a block or a taluka which would have not more than 100 villages and a total population of not more than 90,000. Secondly, under the Community Development Administration, the field officers of all development departments (such as education, agriculture, health and sanitation, transport and communication, etc.) are brought together in a team and to work jointly and in a co-operative manner. In the administration of elementary education, democratic decentralisation means creation of strong statutory local bodies at the Block or the Taluka level, and transferring to it all responsibilities of local community development, including that of Universal, free and compulsory elementary education for children in the age group 6-14 as directed under Article 45 of the Constitution.

At the district level, the Jilla Parishad is created to supervise and co-ordinate the work of Block or Taluka Local bodies- the Panchayat Samiti, and at village level a Gram panchayat is created<sup>to</sup> generate local interest in local developments.

## 1.2 A Broad Review of Decentralisation of Authority to Local Government in Some Countries of the World.

In the preceding Section, we attempted to clarify the concepts of Community development and democratic decentralisation of authority. Both these concepts have relevance to local Government. In this Section, we will, therefore, review broadly the decentralisation of authority to local governments in some countries of the world.

A welfare State, as differentiated from a police State is wedded to such goals and programmes as can bring greatest possible good to all the sections of the society. In the case of the education of people, it assumes direct responsibility for educating all people at least at the primary stage so that cent per cent literacy results. 'Educated citizens' is the first condition for the modernisation of a traditional society, economic development of the country, survival of democracy, and even thriving of socialism. A State, whether it is a democracy or a communist country, therefore, attaches great value to educating masses. Only autocrat monarchs, colonial

powers, and dictators restrict their educational activities to classes and neglect masses, because they fear that education will turn their heads and some day they would revolt against them, and destroy them.

When a State assumes the responsibility for the education of its citizens, it sets up an organisation and administrative machinery to conduct and control education. Many countries of the world began with creating a central Education Department to administer education. In course of time, they also created local bodies at lower levels of government such as a region or a district or a city. Usually, the decision-making was centralised and the implementation of the decisions were left at the local level to local government. The local government was loosely defined as a public organisation authorised to decide and/or administer a limited range of public policies with a relatively small territory which is a sub-division of the national government or its region. The formal structure of local government is the most significant determinant of the style of local government. The functions that are allotted to local government depend upon the philosophy, objects and political character of the national government.

In a large number of countries, there operates federal centralised system. The decentralised system is local government. There are considerable variations among the nations of the world as to the objectives, forms and authority of local

governments. The leading democracies like the U.S.A., U.K. West Germany and even Japan allow broadest range of discretionary authority to local government; the socialist countries retain policy-making powers with the federal government but there is considerable decentralisation of the authority to the districts under the strict central government control. School districts - local government in education in the U.S.A. enjoy great autonomy and home rule. Swiss municipalities also have a wide area of local autonomy, while in Australia local actions are subject to review by the State Governor and the decisions of local bodies are effective only after their approval by the Governor. In Canada, a considerable local autonomy exists, but not as much as traditionally prevails in the U.S.A. or Switzerland. In West Germany, the State has considerable centralised powers, yet the over-all independence of local governments is considerable. Great Britain and Scandinavian Countries are non-federal countries. In these countries, though the Central Government has power of supervision over local governments and though local authorities can take only such actions as authorised by the Central Government, the local governments have fairly wide responsibilities and can make independent decisions about them.

In France, the basic unit of local government is the Commune (38,000 in number), and each is under the supervision of prefect or a province (90 in number) or under the immediate control of



a sub-prefect (more than 300 in number). Though there is considerable centralisation in France, there is a high degree of local interest at lower levels - prefect, sub-prefect and communes. The local units have a considerable area of discretion. The French pattern of local government prevails in other Mediterranean and Latin America countries, but in the form of many variations. In Spain and Italy, for instance, there is considerably more centralisation than in France. In Latin America, extensive supervision of local government is done by officials similar to the prefects of France.

In post-colonial countries of Asia and Africa, there is outwardly decentralisation of authority to local units of administration, yet the control of central government of local operation is close.

Such is the broad picture\* of democratic decentralisation in major countries of the world. This survey is of general nature. This study is concerned with democratic decentralisation in the administration of primary education in Gujarat State. Therefore, in the subsequent sections of this Chapter, we will like to examine how the decentralisation of authority

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\* Based on the article of Duane Lockard on Local Government in "International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences" Vol. IX, edited by David L. Sills (Macmillan and Free Press, 1968).

is practised in some important countries of the world so that we can know under what conditions democratic decentralisation in the administration of primary education can succeed or what are likely to be obstacles to the success of democratisation of school administration. In research in the field of educational administration, the comparative approach has established its place. The approach is based on the assumption that experiences of other countries have a direction to provide to approach our problems of educational administration, after having made due allowance for differences in historical background, the nature of the Society, the political, economic and cultural level of the people and the basic philosophy and policy of the State. Desai says, "Fore-warned is fore-armed, and a comparative study of the development of administration of primary education in the different countries of the world is probably one of the best methods of training administrators to successfully introduce and enforce programme of compulsory primary education in India". (1)

But it is not an easy matter to choose a few nations to illustrate how the authority to administer primary education came to be decentralised or the reasons why such a decentralisation was opposed and delayed and why ultimately the opposition frittered out and decentralisation succeeded to more or less extent. For the purpose of this investigation, it is proposed to restrict the scope of this Chapter to some

nine important Countries - the U.S.A. from the Americas, England, Federal Democratic Republic of Germany, German Democratic Republic and the Soviet Union from Europe, Arab Republic from the Islamic nations, and Japan, China and the Philippines to represent the Far-East. It is true that the selection of these countries is rather arbitrary But it is fairly representative and taken all in all, it would illustrate all the different aspects of the problem.

We would like to clarify an important facet of the comparative study. We are going to present in the subsequent Sections of this Chapter. In the actual treatment of the subjects, there will be three patterns. The treatment of the subject in the case of the U.S.A. would be in considerable details; in the case of the U.K. and Japan it will be in details but not as much as in the case of the U.S.A. and in other countries - the Federal Democratic Republic of Germany, the German Democratic Republic, Soviet Union, the Philippines, the Red China and Egypt it will be in outlines - main principles and development. The main reason for adopting these three types of treatment of the data is the fact that detailed data on the administration of primary education in the U.S.A. are available; the available data on England and Japan are also fairly detailed, but not as much as in the U.S.A.; the data on actual working of the local Education Authorities in the remaining countries are so sketchy and limited that a probe in depth of the role of local

bodies in these countries is not possible, at least for this investigator on account of inadequate library resources and poor documentation on education of other countries in Gujarat. The Embassies of these countries were approached by the investigators, but not much help came forth from them.

### 1.3 Democratic Decentralisation in the Administration of School Education in the U.S.A.

In the United States of America, the very administration of education began with a focus on local communities. This was on account of historical reasons. The early settlements in the U.S.A. during the period of 1607-1700 were small and close-knit because of the danger of raids from Red Indians and the possibility of attacks from wild beasts. "The towns settled by the early New Englanders were communities centred within an area of approximately six square miles; each was a focus of social life and a unit of government. Around a square used as a community grazing area and on which a stockade or fort might be located were grouped the various community buildings and homes of prominent residents. One of these buildings was the school". (2)

In the seventeenth century, most of the towns in America grew up as settlements of different communities which migrated from Europe. Each town made provision for its own school, because the early settlers had deep religious fervour for

educating their children. So that they could be saved from falling into the hands of the Satan. The Community in each town maintained the school building, employed the teacher and determined how the expenses of the school would be met. A few communities provided free education in their schools; but in the majority of towns, the school was maintained in part by public funds and in part by fees paid by parents or guardians. Thus in the sixteenth and seventeenth century, schools developed in American Colonies as a result of initiative and interest of local communities, and the management and financing of school education was entirely the concern and right of the local communities. This origin of the school system in the U.S.A. is very significant, because it initiated a strong tradition of local interest and local control of school education which grew into great strength in subsequent years. The State - the Colony came into the picture only after 1647. In 1647, the Massachusetts General Court passed the "Old Deluder Satan Law", which required all towns of 50 house-holders or more to maintain a school to teach reading and writing.(3). This Law also provided penalties against any town failing to make available to its children the basic educational facilities. It should be noted that the Law of 1647 did not legally establish a school system or appropriate funds to support school education. All throughout the Colonial period and until after the Civil War, the local communities continued to organise, finance and

control their schools without any restrictions from their States or colonies.

During the eighteenth century, several developments took place which led to the development of the school district system. With the receding of danger of raids from Red Indians and attacks from wild beasts, the social and economic bonds, which formerly linked the community into a close-knit group, began to be weak; communities began to move out into more remote sections where good land was easily available; new communities began to spring up within the legal confines of the town and away from the Centre of the town, peripetic teachers began to be employed and 'moving school' began to be experimented by Communities. These conditions ultimately gave rise to the school district system.

"New England came up with the 'district system'. Communities within the boundaries of the town but at a distance from its centre were allowed to organize themselves into a school district with authority to collect money for support of a school and to employ a teacher. Since the population in most of these outlying areas was too small to support the school through tuition alone, the tendency was in the direction of free schools financed by the Community as a whole." (4)

The establishment of the system of school system marked a beginning of local government in education. The giving of legality to constitution of school districts - to the member-

ship of school committees came with the Connecticut Law of 1766 and the Massachusetts Law of 1789 which gave school districts right "to elect trustees, levy school taxes and choose teacher according to their liking." (5).

As America grew in population as well as in wealth and spread across a Continent, the principle of local control of school education through the school district structure became basic to the national school system. The second quarter of the nineteenth century witnessed the battle for tax-supported, publicly controlled and directed, and non-sectarian common schools. The battle was won by 1850, and a system of tax-supported, secular public system emerged. In the years that followed, it grew from strength to strength.

There are now 26,983 school districts in the U.S.A. (6) They are of different size. The number of school districts also varies from State to State - the State of Nevada has the highest number as many as 2546 school districts, whereas the Havali State has only one and the New Hampshire has 17. School Districts are mostly in western and mid-west States. But there are other three kinds of units of school administration, viz., (1) the or township unit which predominates in all the New England States and appears to in good number in the states of Indiana, New Jersey and Pennsylvania; (ii) the Country school district or county-unit which abounds in

southern States and (iii) the city school system prevalent in the cities with a population over 25,000. During the past three decades, a very significant development in respect of school districts has been <sup>achieved</sup> ~~been~~ at reasonable cost. (8) This pertains to the trend towards increasing their size. "Most legislatures have prescribed procedures whereby people in small local districts may vote to merge their districts into larger administrative units. These procedures have resulted in greatly reducing the number of small districts, and in the establishment of larger administrative units which are capable of providing improved educational programmes. The school districts in the U.S.A. are varied and different, but they have a number of things in common :

- They are no more than geographical sub-divisions of each State;
- They constitute a type of local autonomous government;
- They function everywhere, in every community;
- States Control or interference is least - the State Department of Education remotely controls the school districts through supervision and guidance;
- They decide the most momentous of questions having to do with the education of children in a democracy;



"The main function of the Board is to establish harmony between the directions of the State Government and the needs, facilities and the likings of the society and the country in the matter of determination of programmes and policies of education. They are also to take into account the viewpoints of students, teachers and local people in this regard." (7)

- The size of the membership of the Local School Boards depends upon the density of the population in their area. The membership ranges from 10 to 40. The members are either elected by popular votes or chosen by the local community. The term of office of members is different in the different States, ranging from 5 to 7 years.
- They do not perform executive or administrative function - their function is mostly legislative which includes determination of educational policies, evaluation of programmes and so on;
- The decisions of the local boards are implemented by Superintendent of Schools who is elected by the members of the Board;
- They raise and appropriate funds to establish, maintain and develop their school system.

It will be seen from the general characteristics of Local Bodies in school education described above, that the ideal of associating local community with the administration of School education has been very well realised in the U.S.A. Perhaps no other country in the world can compete the U.S.A. in the extensive and deep application of the principle of democratic decentralisation in the administration of school education. A number of contributive factors can be identified,

the foremost of which are :

- The tradition of initiative in establishing schools by local communities that can be traced to early seventeenth century;
- The strong tradition of local financial support and of local control built over a period of time of last three centuries.
- The evolution of the School District System from the latter half of the eighteenth century.
- The concept and practice of county or township or School District has taken a firm root in the minds of people as the basic unit of school administration;
- Schools, since the colonial period, remaining close to the local people, resulted in community pride for them and created a deep sense of responsibility among the local residents;
- Generations of people are habituated to support local school financially;
- The restricted rule and remote control of the State over school districts or their equivalents and their schools, have become a firmly established practice and the national characteristics of American Communities to be sensitive to and vigilant about their freedom and autonomy have further strengthened the system.

Thus, democratic decentralisation in the administration of school education has been a feature in the United States right from the early seventeenth century. America's first schools were local creations growing out of the needs of the people and their European tradition of providing schooling for their children out of religious motive. The Constitution of the Original States (i.e. the earliest colonies) did not include specific provisions on education. States acquired legal authority over local schools through amendment. But, because of the local origin of schools and the almost fanatical fear of centralised government on the part of the early Americans, the State has been unable to create an educational structure having total control over its schools.

"Today the belief in strong control of education is dominant and there are few who will question the value of keeping the schools close to the people who use them. The people of the United States themselves control their schools, support them and within the limits which they have permitted the State to set, determine the kinds of schools they need and want. The one factor characterizing all schools in the United States is Local initiative and local control." (9)

We will now briefly review how the democratic decentralisation process works in the School Districts. More School Districts or local bodies in education are now created or they are modified from time to time by State Governments. The people of States fear excessive localism almost as much as over-authoritative Statism. They have therefore, put limits

on the local control of school authorities. In a sense, the local School District derives its control from the State legislature which, in turn, is at the bidding of the people in real sense. The legislature and the courts establish State School Law to govern the local educational districts. This fact is very significant in understanding the democratic base of school administration. In the United States, a kind of effective balance has been achieved over a period of time which does avoid splintering of educational structure and assure a degree of consistency in terms of acceptable standards, and local control, to assure adaptability to the needs of the people residing in the communities of the State.(10)

In the early colonial period, the decisions regarding local school were taken by the local community at the town meeting through popular vote. The constitution of a temporary committee of cities by the local community to assume the responsibility for administering the local school was the next phase of development. This temporary committee later on came to be a permanent committee or a board with its responsibilities more clearly defined. In course of time, the committee evolved into a Board of Education elected by the people under State and Local Laws.

Today in the U.S.A., there are definite trends and standards established about the membership of the school Boards. A few of them have relevance to the theme of our study. It is enjoined that the number of Board members should not be less than four and not more than nine, with terms of several members so overlapping that only a majority will go out of office at any one time. Further the number of members on a School Board is not considered as the best criterion of its efficacy. A rule usually followed is that a Board should be large enough to represent the differing points of view in the community, but small enough to work efficiently as a committee of the whole. Members may be elected by the people or appointed by Mayor, City Council or some other official body. Nearly 85 per cent (84.5 per cent) of the School Boards studied by the Research Division of the National Association are elected by people of their communities; 15.5 are appointed Boards. In villages 9 in 10 Boards are elected. Appointment is more frequently used ( 2 in 10) in city systems and in country or parish Boards (3 in 10) (11). Members of the School Board serve for four to nine years. Today, most School Boards in the U.S.A. are composed of business and professional men and women not engaged directly in teaching or educational administration. "Most authorities believe that the Boards should be constituted of individuals not directly associated with the profession of education and thereby able to look at school

matters from a less prejudiced position." (12) The organisation of a School Board Usually centres around a President, a Secretary or a Clerk and sometimes a treasurer. The President is usually the Board member, the Secretary frequently not. Both are commonly chosen by the Board (13) Membership of the School Boards carry no salary or other compensation. "Since the work is difficult and time-consuming only those who have a dedication to education and who can afford the time, tend to present themselves for election or appointment. In recent years, with the increase of leisure time and better economic status of a larger proportion of the population, more persons from middle income groups have been serving on these Boards" (14) A few specific qualifications are demanded of one who wishes to be a member of the School Board, viz., he is to be of the voting age, a resident of the district and a citizen of the United States. Local School districts do have power to set, beyond these basic qualifications, whatever standards they wish. The following excerpt gives a good idea about the age, sex, economic and educational background of members of school Boards in America. The data are based on 2,068 School Districts of which 1,460 were city or village Boards and 1,608 were non-city Boards with school Community predominantly rural. The city and village group included 349 Boards in villages below 2500 in population :

"In city (and village) schools systems, 90 per cent of the Board members are men; 10 per cent, women. Board members are middle-aged folks - the national median is 48.5 years. The median personal income level of all the Board members reported is 3,978 dollars. The medians of various groups ranged from 2,067 dollars in small rural boards to 7,516 dollars in the cities over 100,000 in population. Thirty per cent of the Board members studied are college graduates; 42 per cent graduated from high school; 28 per cent did not finish high school. This indicates that the School Board members come largely from the higher social levels of the Community." (15)

As stated earlier, the dominant practice in the United States for selecting School Board members <sup>was</sup> by popular election. There are some findings of a study on selection of Board members conducted by the Research Division of the N.E.A. are available, which interest us in our present study. They are :

- (1) The School Board is chosen either through special election, or through general election or the School Board election is combined with general election. In 59.3 per cent of the cases reported to the NEA Research Division, the School Board is chosen at a special election; in 38.6 per cent the school election is combined with general election and in 2.1 per cent both special and general elections are used. Special elections are most frequently used in cities under 100,000 population, and in small rural districts. Combinations with general election occur in a majority of the large city, county or rural Town Boards.

- (2) In case of elected School Boards, 85.7 per cent are elected to represent the school district as a whole; 10.7 per cent represent wards and boroughs; 3.6 per cent represent both the whole district and sub-divisions. The ward or sub-district plan is most common in county and parishd Board ( at least 4 in 10); next common is union high-school districts ( 2 in 10); next most common in large cities ( 1 in 10); and least common in villages and small rural districts.
- (3) Appointed City School Boards are most likely to be chosen by councilmen or aldermen (65.1 per cent), or by the Mayor (26.1 per cent). Only the county and township Boards in rural areas show a relatively large amount of appointment and this power is usually exercised by a special board.

Wherever elections are held, the element of political parties is bound to come. This is true every where, even in the U.S.A. But elections for membership of school Boards have been largely on non-party basis.

"A School election does approach the ideal of non-partisan election. Usually, there is only one legal requirement for being a candidate for a School Board, and that is to be a qualified elector in the district where the election takes place. Similarly, there is only one ethical requirement for a School Board member, and that is a sincere desire to serve the school. Motive for candidacy is very important. Democrats, Republicans, Socialists or Communists, as such, are not wanted on School Boards in this country. Neither New Dealers, nor labour leaders, nor capitalists, nor American First, as such, are needed to assume responsibility for public education in the United States".(16)



This is the broad pattern of thinking in the U.S.A. on non-partisan School Board elections. The findings of the Research Division of the N.E.A. support this conclusion. In one of its studies, it was found that 86 per cent of the cases, School Board elections used the non-partisan ballot; very little difference on this point was shown by the findings about either cities of various size or urban as compared with rural-school systems. (17)

This democratic devolution of control and authority of school education to school Boards in the U.S.A. has gone a long way in universalising primary education through the effective execution of compulsory primary education, in making the standards continuously high and providing community school children a varied and enriched school programme including transportation services, school lunch, health services and psychological and testing services.

By the middle of the nineteenth century, the American local administrative units and the States agreed to build up a tax-supported public school system which was compulsory, free and secular. Laws for making primary education began to be enacted by States. A beginning was made in compulsory primary education by the Connecticut Law of 1813, the Massachusetts Second Law of 1836, the Truancy Laws of Massachusetts of 1882 and of New York of 1853. The Truancy Laws did not apply to

all children and they were found to be difficult for enforcement. In 1874, New York substituted an entirely new Act for the Truancy Law and called it 'an Act to secure to children the benefits of elementary education'. This was the general law in the U.S.A. which required the parents of every child to send [ ] child to school between the ages of 8 and 14, and it also provided penalties for the employment of children in industries if they had not received prescribed standard of education." (18) The model it provided was soon copied by other States in the same as the Patel Act of 1918 on Compulsory education of the Bombay Province was copied by all the British provinces in India between 1918 and 1930.

The states in the U.S.A. enacted laws on Compulsory primary education. But the mere passing of such laws is of no use unless they are properly enforced and children of compulsory age are enrolled in the school and are retained till they complete primary education. The development of School Districts and School Boards and the Close association of local community with the administration of schools helped very much in this respect. The upper age limit for compulsory education has gone on steadily increasing in the U.S.A. "In 1891, the average upper limit was 14.5 years. The averages for 1914, 1928 and 1935 were 14.9, 16.00 and 16.1 respectively." (19) Now the upper limit is 18 and both elementary and secondary education is compulsory

and free in the U.S.A.

Even in the enforcement of school attendance, the American School Boards have moved a long way away from the earlier 'police' methods.

"The typical police officer is on his 'way out' as a modern attendance worker. Standards in the way of training are being demanded of those responsible for enforcement of compulsory attendance legislation.... Now there is being developed a group of people responsible for enforcing school-attendance legislation who do it not by the 'iron hand' but by so knowing youth that they 'sell' the school to them. This is done upon the basis of discovering why there have been non-attendance and then helping them eliminate that hindrance." (20)

The Statistics on primary education in the U.S.A. given on the next page show how the administration by local communities have gradually improved enrolment and retention. In 1870, the percentage of attendance of pupils enrolled was 59.3; in 1947 it became 86.4. In 1870 the average number of days pupil attended schools was 78.4 in the total days of 132.2 when schools were in session; in 1947, the average number of days of attendance was 152.3 in the total average schools days of 176.2.

In the U.S.A. the retention rate has been perceptably improving. This high achievement is due to several factors including the one relating to schools being brought very closer to local communities through a successful and effective process of democratic decentralisation. Table II gives

TABLE -1  
 ENFORCEMENT OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION  
 IN THE U.S.A.

	<u>1870</u>	<u>1880</u>	<u>1890</u>	<u>1900</u>	<u>1930</u>	<u>1947</u>
Percentage of population in the age-group 5-17 to total population.	31.3	30.0	29.6	28.3	25.7	20.4
Percentage of pupils enrolled to the total population in the age-group 5-17.	17.82	19.67	20.32	20.51	19.3	16.5
Percentage of attendance of pupils enrolled.	59.3	62.5	64.1	68.6	82.8	86.4
Average number of days the schools were in session.	132.2	130.3	134.7	144.3	172.7	176.2
Average number of days attended per enrolled pupil.	78.4	81.1	86.5	99.0	148.0	152.3
Expenditure (in dollars) per pupil enrolled.	9.25	7.21	11.04	13.87	89.84	143.77

Note : The Table compiled from the Statistical Abstract of United States, 1947, 1948, 1950.

figures of retention for grades from 5th to 12th, as there has been cent per cent retention in Grades 1 to IV for the last several decades.

This has resulted in speedy reduction of illiteracy which was 11.3 per cent in 1900, 4.8 in 1930, 2.4 in 1960 and almost nil now. The compulsory school education has raised the income of individuals. From the age 18 onwards, an average person who had less than 8 years of elementary education could expect an income of approximately 1.89 lakh dollars during his life time, who had 8 years of elementary schooling an income of \$ 2.47 lakh dollars, who had high school of 1 to 3 years an income of 2.84 dollars and who had 4 years of high school an income of 3.41 lakh dollars. (21). Thus, in the U.S.A. life time income of persons dependson years of schooling completed. Thus, the United States of America is an excellent example which shows how a long tradition of democratic decentralisation of school administration rooted firmly in the social and cultural fabric of community life yields rich dividend in universal, compulsory and free school education.

#### 1.4 Local Education Authorities in England

Modern period in the history of England is said to have begun about the year 1760 when <sup>the</sup> accession of George III took place. At this time, elementary education was provided by the Church, the Charitable enterprise or individuals, and the

TABLE - II

Retention Rates in the U.S.A. 5th Grade through College Entrance  
(1924-32 to 1959-67 )

School Year	Retention per 1000 pupils who entered 5th Grade										High sch-:Year of:First	
	5th Grade:	6th Grade:	7th Grade:	8th Grade:	9th Grade:	10th Grade:	11th Grade:	12th Grade:	duates.	high school college	gradua- students	tion.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
1924-25	1,000	911	998	741	612	470	384	344	302	1932	118	
1926-27	1,000	919	824	754	677	552	453	400	333	1934	129	
1928-29	1,000	939	847	805	736	624	498	432	378	1936	137	
1930-31	1,000	943	872	824	770	652	529	463	417	1938	148	
1932-33	1,000	935	889	831	786	664	570	510	455	1940	160	
1934-35	1,000	953	892	842	803	711	610	512	467	1942	129	
1936-37	1,000	954	895	849	838	704	554	425	393	1944	121	
1938-39	1,000	955	908	853	796	655	532	444	419	1946 (2)		
1940-41	1,000	968	910	836	781	697	566	507	481	1948 (2)		
1942-43	1,000	954	909	847	807	713	604	539	505	1950	205	
1944-45	1,000	952	929	858	848	748	650	549	522	1952	234	
1946-47	1,000	954	945	919	872	775	641	583	553	1954	283	
1948-49	1,000	984	956	929	863	795	606	619	581	1956	301	
1950-51	1,000	981	968	921	886	809	709	632	582	1958	308	
1952-53	1,000	974	965	936	904	835	746	667	621	1960	328	
1954-55	1,000	980	979	948	915	855	759	684	642	1962	343	
1956-57	1,000	985	984	948	930	871	790	728	676	1964	362	
1958-59	1,000	985	978	960	940	906	838	782	717	1966	394	
1959-60	1,000	990	983	976	966	928	853	785	721	1967	400	

(2) Retention Rates not calculated because of the influx of veterans in institutions, of higher education. (3) Preliminary data.

Source : U.S. Department of Educational Statistics, 1969, p.7

State neither conducted any elementary school of its own nor assisted those conducted by other private and religious agencies. The view that education is primarily a voluntary activity and that State had nothing to do with it prevailed widely in England and it continued to be commonly held till 1833 when the first parliamentary grant for education was sanctioned. Prominent thinkers like William Godwin argued that if the State assumed the responsibility for the education of the people, it would mean State interference which could be very pernicious, as it would check the growth of free public opinion, inject ideas and practices in education favourable to the political party in power, would bring about a dull uniformity in the education of people and result in an element of permanence. (22) So, till the State did not control and administer education, there did not arise questions such as State devolution of powers, compulsory, free primary education, tax-supported public schools and so on. The State in England accepted the responsibility of the education of people very reluctantly and that too after a great deal of battle of controversy. The tremendous social force created by the French revolution, a revival of deep religious fervour, kindling of humanitarian motives and an upsurge of radicalism and republicanism, a firm belief among some sections of thinkers that private effort would never be able to provide for the adequate and proper education of all the children of community appear

to be some of the forces that were responsible for the State's acceptance of responsibility for educating children of the masses in 1833. But till 1870, it did nothing more than aiding religious and other private agencies to carry on their own work of educating the children of masses. The attempts to establish a tax-supported system of public elementary schools came to naught. The period between 1833 and 1870 may be described as the best period for Voluntaryism. The Act of 1870 was the first direct legislation on compulsory elementary education in England. It marked a beginning of public school system and the administration of elementary education by local authorities. However, a strong opinion was built up during this period which favoured the establishment of rate-supported public schools, conserving all that was best in the voluntary or private schools. The Education Act of 1870 was based on this view. The Act provided that the whole country (excluding London which was treated separately) was divided into district - municipal boroughs and civil parishes. In every district, the existing provision of school accommodation was to be ascertained. If no deficiency was discovered, the district would be left alone. If a deficiency was discovered, the voluntary schools would be given a time-limit and special building grants to make up the deficiency. If the deficiency was not thus made up in any district, a School Board was to be elected with power to establish schools and levy rates for supporting them. The



School Boards were permitted to frame byelaws for compulsory attendance of children between 5 and 12 years of age. Education was not made free; but power was given to the School Boards to pay the fees of any necessitous child attending a public elementary school. (23).

The Act of 1870 was found to be defective in regard to making elementary education compulsory. It was, therefore, amended in 1876 and 1880 and the sections relating to compulsory education were strengthened. The Amendments also provided that in all areas where a School Board was not established, a School Attendance Committee could be appointed and the power of making the bye-laws for Compulsory School attendance was left to this Committee. One characteristic feature of the English law on elementary education was that it merely defined the lower age-limit and upper age-limit for compulsory education and left all other details to be provided for in bye-laws made by the local bodies under powers vested in them by the Acts. Thus, right from the beginning, the local authorities were given considerable powers in elementary education. It is this decentralisation of powers which helped England's School Boards to work effectively towards the success of compulsory education. In the eighties of the nineteenth century, economic conditions and attitude to compulsory education among English people were similar to what we have now in India in several rural backward habitations. Laundes has painted the conditions obtaining in England in eighties of

of the nineteenth century in relation to elementary schooling some what on these lines. (24) Bringing children to schools and inducing them to attend regularly when they got there was a difficult task. A large percentage of parents were poor because the wages were extremely low and there was no system of unemployment insurance. This poverty of parents compelled them to make their children work rather than send them to schools. Quite a few of the parents had no good faith in schooling. Many others were not unwilling to send them to schools, but as they had not realised the importance of education, the attendance of their children was very poor and irregular. Moreover, the attitude of the magistrates was not always helpful in the enforcement of Compulsion.

Between 1870 and 1900 universal, compulsory and free elementary education for children of the age-group 5-11 made considerable progress. On 1st January 1903, as pointed out by Birchenough on his study on 'Elementary Education in England and Wales, there were as many as 2,182 School Boards and 730 school attendance committees; they conducted 5,878 schools with accommodation for 29-58 lakhs children. The number of children on rolls of schools were 27.78 lakhs; the average attendance was 23.40 lakhs or 82.17 per cent; was the percentage of enrolment to population was about 19 per cent. (25) The progress of elementary education was largely due to the fact that the authority to make bye-laws for compulsory education was

delegated to School Boards. The Committee of Council on Education said in their Report for 1882 that there existed 4,7,84 sets of bye-laws and that they varied considerably in their provisions from one School Board to another. (26) Two great advantages that accrued from this devolution of powers were : (1) it was possible for a School Board to frame such bye-laws as were best suited to the social and economic condition of the area in its charge and (2) the devolution resulted in the establishment of a large number of School Boards and Attendance Committees. Desai comments that "even a small country like England felt it necessary to have as many as 3,351 authorities for enforcing compulsion. This large number of local authorities made it possible to place only a small area under jurisdiction of each local authority. This, in its turn, made it possible to secure local knowledge, local interest and local enthusiasm". (27)

Between 1900 and 1970 several important developments took place in the administration of primary education by local bodies. We have briefly noted them below to economise space:

- (1) The programme of expansion was almost complete by 1901, and this enabled her to undertake an intensive programme of improvement and enrichment of elementary schools in subsequent years;

- (2) The upper age-limit of compulsion was gradually from 12 years to 14 years in 1918, from 14 years to 15 under the Butler Act of 1944 and it will be raised to 16 in 1972-73.
- (3) A trend towards the creation of bigger administrative areas began. The Education Act of 1902 reduced the number of administrative units from 3,351 to 333. The numerous old institutions of School Boards and School Attendance Committees were swept away and replaced by 333 Local Education Authorities. They fell into two categories - Part II and Part III. The L.E.A.s of Part II were made responsible for (a) elementary education, (b) secondary education, (c) technical education, (d) making provision of scholarships, (e) the training of teachers, and (f) grant of fees to students in colleges or hostels ; the L.E.A.'s Part III were concerned with elementary schools only. The 'annexation of voluntary schools resulted. Under the Education Act 1944, the Part III authorities ceased to exist and the administrative counties and county boroughs became the Local Education Authorities. There are now 63 counties and 85 county boroughs. Of the 63 administrative areas, 35 directly control education throughout their areas; the remaining 28 have schemes of divisional administration (comprising of 151 ad hoc divisional executives.) Of these 28, seven only have divided their entire areas in this way, the other retaining direct control at least some part. A County Council's education powers may be delegated also to an excepted district, a special form of divisional executive so called because it is excepted from the County scheme of divisional administration. There are 56 excepted districts.
- (4) The provision of special services like medical inspection and treatment of school children, provision of free meals (with a grant on fifty-fifty basis) began in the first decade of the present century.
- (5) Every L.E.A. is required to appoint an Education Committee or Committees.
- (6) It is required by the Education Act that the members of the Education Committee must include persons of experience in education and those acquainted with local educational conditions. It is further enjoined that a majority of the members of the Education Committee must be the members of the parent L.E.A.

- (7) The Education Committee is empowered to appoint sub-committees if it so desires.
- (8) The day-to-day supervision of primary schools, whether county or voluntary, is carried out by local school managers appointed under the rules of management made by the L.E.A., the Divisional Executive or the Excepted District.
- (9) In certain broad fields, the financial discretion of individual L.E.A. is limited, but in several other respects, it is free to determine its own level of spending. An example, where discretion is limited is provided by expenditure on teachers because the employment of teachers by a L.E.A. is governed by the Quota System and the salaries of teachers are prescribed by national scales. An L.E.A. has complete financial discretion in the maintenance of school premises and supply of equipment and materials.
- (10) Arrangements exist for some expenditure to be shared on a national basis between all L.E.As. There are 'pooling' arrangements (on the basis of the strength of their respective school enrolment) which cover three main heads: (i) teacher training, (ii) advanced further education, and (iii) the education of no-area pupils. (who do not belong to the area of any particular L.E.A.)
- (11) (11) Major capital spending is controlled by the Department of Education and Science by means of their annual school buildings programme.
- (12) A large L.E.A. may spend \$ 20 million to £ 30 million. In 1964, total expenditure of the L.E.As was £1,089 million of which 53 per cent went on salaries and expenses of teachers and other employees, 13.5 per cent to capital spending, 8 per cent in assistance to students, 9 per cent in loan charges and grants to universities and 16.5 per cent on premises and other overheads. Primary education accounted for 29 per cent of total spending.

Note : The source for current information on the administration of primary education in England and Wales is Reports on Education published occasionally by the Department of Education and Science.

1.5 Democratisation of Administration of School  
Education in Japan.

Japan stands prominent among the Asiatic countries in speedy modernisation of the society, rapid industrialisation, fast economic growth, high tradition of military power and progressive educational developments. The history of the development of primary education in Japan is closer to the U.S.A., and the U.K. than the other countries we have included in this study. It achieved almost universal primary education and attained cent per cent literacy by the turn of the present century. Further, a strong and deep pervading current of nationalism and a firm conviction in the supremacy and divinity of their emperor served as a unifying and motivating factor. The Japanese people, like the American and English people, deeply believed in education. Therefore, there did not arise the problem of creating popular interest and enthusiasm in elementary education by its Central government or local governments. The problem of universal elementary education in Japan was almost solved by the turn of the present century. As in the U.S.A. and the U.K., the decades in the present century were devoted to qualitative improvement and enrichment of elementary education.

The modern period in the history of Japan is said to have begun with the Meiji Era in 1872. At this time, Feudalism was abolished. A strong central government was created. A Department of Education on Western lines was set-up at the Centre. A machinery for administering education was evolved. Several Social reforms were attempted. A kind of social and political revolution took place. Western civilization was adopted. The Order issued by the Japanese Emperor directed, among others, that there may not be a village with an ignorant family nor a family with an ignorant member." (27) This Imperial order did not introduce compulsion in education, but created a popular fervour that 28 per cent of children of the school-going age (40 per cent boys and 15 per cent girls) were at primary schools. The enrolment rose to 51 per cent in 1883 on account of the tempo created in the country for education of children. Industrial development sharpened the edge of this tempo. Compulsory education of four years was introduced in 1890.

The local authorities in education that existed were prefectures at the provincial level and municipalities at city level. The prefectures and the municipalities had their Boards of Education to administer school education. However, they were greatly controlled by the Central Ministry through the prefectural and local governments, which were, in fact, the agents of the Central Government in administering school

education. It was the Central Ministry of Education that wielded responsibility for and control of schools education at the local levels.

In 1890, the Compulsory aspect of school education was introduced. In the beginning, it was not strictly enforced. The Local Education Authorities preferred not to excite popular prejudice against schools on the part of those accustomed to count on the labour of their children at an early age. They relied on persuasion rather than coercion. Boys were, of course, sent more readily than girls. In 1873, 40 per cent of boys were enrolled against 15 per cent of girls of school-going age. In 1892, 72 per cent of boys and 37 per cent of girls were enrolled in schools. By the turn of the Century in 1902, the enrolment in primary schools rose to 91 per cent (96 per cent boys and 67 per cent girls). (28)

It should be noted that this great expansion in primary education was achieved through centralisation which functioned through prefectural boards and the latter had its own official agencies at the city, town or village level. The decision-making was all done by the Central Ministry of Education. The arm of the Ministry at the prefectural level was the Governor who was appointed by and under the Minister of Home Affairs and who was also the educational deputy of the Minister of Education having all responsibility and control of elementary



education. He executed all directives from the Ministry of education and ensured their obedience at the local administrative levels - the city, the town or the village. There were municipalities under Mayors at city levels and at village levels village Councils under Village heads. (29) The decision making and orders followed from the top to the bottom.

But this state of affairs came to an end after the World War II in which Japan was badly battered. The American Occupation Army under General McArthur took over the control of Japan and attempted to change intrinsically the political, administrative and educational systems. It sought to change particularly the administrative machinery of education because it believed that education was the most effective instrument for the internal transformation of the Japanese people and their goals and value system. In order to help the Military Regime to effect educational reconstruction, it appointed the U.S. Education Commission in 1948 which laid down guidelines to correct the prevailing centralisation and divest the Ministry of Education of its vast powers of control and decision-making, and to introduce democratic decentralisation in educational administration so it can reflect the will of the people. One very significant reform the Education Mission suggested was the creation of School Boards to administer school education at the prefectural as well as city and village levels. The recommendations of the Education Mission were placed before

the Japanese Educational Reform Commission which was the counterpart of the U.S. Educational Mission in Japan. The Japanese Commission accepted by and large the plan of reform of the U.S. Mission, but it was opposed vehemently by the Officials of the Japanese Education Ministry. It reveals how officers who were habituated to wield powers of control for a long time are reluctant to give them up easily. The Ministry opposed the idea of School Boards and devolution of authority to them to administer the school system. They argued, for instance that "national guidance and control were necessary in view of the post-war conditions; local citizens were not prepared to accept responsibility for education and their indifferences might permit education to fall into the hands of special interest groups; local control involving local financial responsibility would place too great a burden on individual communities; Boards of Education would be less experienced than the Ministry and more likely to reverse educational reforms; and educational standards would tend to go down." (30)

The occupation Authorities were however firm in their desire to effect the reform of democratic decentralisation in the administration of education and to see that School Boards were established. The Ministry of Education had, therefore, to yield. It reconciled itself to the idea of the creation of school Boards and devolution of authority to them. But then it presented a case, for appointed, rather than elected School

Boards.(31) But this was also turned down. In time, the Japanese Diet passed an Education Law in 1948, which provided for the setting up of School Boards at prefectural as well as the city levels. The Article I of the Law stated its aim in these words : "The primary objective of education by establishing School Boards is to execute educational administration based on the equitable popular will and actual local conditions with the realisation that education should be so conducted without submitting to undue control and schools should be responsible to people."

This new set-up of democratic decentralisation of school administration introduced under the 1948 Education Law has several welcome features :

- The School Boards are at two levels, at the prefectural level and at the local level;
- The prefectural Board has 7 members, 6 elected and 1 appointed; the local city, town or village board has 6 members, 4 elected and 2 appointed;
- In both the kinds of Boards, 1 member is appointed by the Local Assembly to act in a liaison capacity and to represent its interests;
- The Boards of both the kinds are Council-type, policymaking agencies, governing education, science and cultural affairs.

- The prefectural Boards have not only full responsibility for prefectural schools, but also toward Local Boards.

"The Prefectural Boards are empowered to certify teachers give technical and professional advice and guidance to Local Boards, establish and revise attendance districts for USS(xx) and plan and procure food-stuffs for the school lunch programme." (32)

- Boards at local levels are responsible for educational matters, including the establishment of schools, determining curriculum, choosing textbooks, buying instructional materials and providing inservice education for teachers.
- The major common duties of school Boards at both the levels are to select a Superintendent of Education from among those who hold certificates, appoint and dismiss school principals and teachers under their jurisdiction and prepare the education budget for their schools and submit it to the prefectural Assembly through the Governor or Mayor.
- Teachers are allowed to contest election for membership of the Board. But they have to resign their jobs if they get elected. Japan's experience in this field is not happy. A lot of trade unionism and teacher politics have come into the working of School Boards;
- Board members are remunerated for their services and reimbursed for their expenses.
- The Boards have no independent tax sources to call upon.
- The Prefectural Assembly can lower the budget and eliminate items.
- The School Superintendent often has to spend much time pleading for funds before the Assembly.
- Teacher consultants are provided to replace former school inspectors. The role of these consultants is limited to giving guidance and making recommendations to school principals and teachers, and they are prohibited from issuing orders and exercising control.

x In Japan, prefectures conduct schools, colleges and even universities.

xx Upper Secondary Schools.

It will, thus, be seen that in Japan the administration of School education has been considerably decentralised and it is brought closer to local communities. The school Boards have certain inherent handicaps. They have no independent tax resources. They have to depend upon Prefectural Assembly and Central Government for their financial resources. The Assembly's right to cut the budget gave it policy-making power over the local education system. Since the Boards have teacher members they demonstrate exaggerated notion about their role in the regular administration of the school system. In fact, a feeling is gaining ground that the Board should be viewed as an organ to establish overall policy, not to administer it. "The Board should interpret the needs and reactions of the Community to the professional staff and then rely on the technical knowledge and skill of the staff to carry out policy." (33)

Today, two types of national laws affect the administration of public school education. The one includes those statutes enacted specifically for the government of education, e.g. the Fundamental Law of Education, the Law concerning Organization and Function of Local Educational Administration, and the Law concerning the National Treasury's share of Compulsory Education expenses. The other type includes general statutes related to administration and finance, e.g. the Local Autonomy, Law and Local Grant Tax Law. The effects of the latter type of

legislation on public education are profound.(34).

While discussing the all-sided development of Japan with a group of Japanese professors in 1971, Shri Ishwarbhai Patel, the then Vice-Chancellor of the Sardar Patel University asked them what, in their considered opinion, is at the root of the comprehensive advancement of Japan, the reply of the Japanese professors was 'Universal School education'(52). The tremendous success of universal primary education is in no less measure due to the new process of democratisation of administration of school education begun under Japanese school Law of 1946.

#### 1.6 Centralised and Decentralised Administration of Primary Education in Germany

Germany was, perhaps, the first country in the world to have introduced compulsory primary education in early seventeenth century. The School Regulations issued by Weimer in 1619 provided for the maintenance of school registers containing the names of all boys and girls between the ages 6 and 12 years, "in order that such parents as refuse to send their children to school may be exhorted and, if necessary, compelled by the Secular authorities to perform the duties upon them."(34) The principle of compulsion for attendance to complete the full course of elementary education was adopted by benevolent monarchs like Ernest the Pious of Gotha in 1642 and by King Frederick William I in 1712 and 1719. Thus, in Germany, the

tradition of compulsory elementary education was established very early in its history. However, during the regimes of monarchs, the administration of elementary education remained largely with the Church. Only from the latter half of the seventeenth century to the end of eighteenth century the management and supervision of schools passed from the Church to the State. But it became highly centralised Germany could almost achieve universal, free, and compulsory primary education by the end of the nineteenth century. This happened partly because of the early beginning of compulsory education and partly because of industrialisation. In 1901, out of the total 61.04 lakhs of population of school going age 98.46 per cent were in schools.

(35) In 1905, in most of the 22 States of Germany, education was compulsory for boys and girls in the age-group 6-14. In 1919, the comprehensive provisions regarding compulsory education were included in the National Constitution. The Article 143 of the Reich Constitution of 1919 provided, "Education is Compulsory. In principle it is given in primary schools having a minimum curriculum of eight years duration, and in the continuation schools extending this programme and admitting pupils upto 18 years of age. Tuition in these schools, as well as all school supplies, is free" (36)

In the achievement of the goals of universal primary education in Germany at the turn of the present century, the dominant contributing factors were not local interest and

local initiative, as was the case in the U.S.A. or the U.K., but, the determined central directive, industrial revolution and deep rooted nationalism were, as in Japan, the driving forces. Administration of primary education was largely Centralised in the States and though local bodies were in existence, their role was not very pronounced. This position continues, more or less, even to this date, in West Germany. Thus, Germany is an example of a centralised administration with a minor delegation of authority at the local level.

The local authorities in education in West Germany today are the Municipalities in big and small cities and villages. All appointments of teachers are made in each constituent State by its State Education Ministry. The Schools are financed partly by the State Government and partly by the local body. For instance, in the State of Baden-Wuerttemberg, the building and equipment of primary schools are provided by Municipalities, while salaries of the teachers are borne by Municipalities to the extent of 30 per cent and by the State Government to the extent of 70 per cent. In the case of intermediate schools or upper primary schools, the building and equipment are provided by the Municipality while the salaries of the teachers are shared by the Municipalities and Government (37). Thus, in West Germany, the school education is the concern of the Kreise (the local districts) which consist of Land Kreises (rural districts) with several small municipalities and standtkreises (city districts) for a



population of 50,000 or more. The government of local districts is in the hands of elected representatives of local communities, they are not as autonomous as School Districts in the U.S.A. or the L.E.As. of Britain. For the functions of local administration and supervision, the government at local district levels receives their instruction from the State Ministry of Education (38)

The case of Germany as well as of Japan shows that it is possible to achieve universal elementary education in an industrial society with Central initiative, central control and financial support. After the goal of universalism is achieved local educational authorities can be called upon to serve as partner in the improvement and enrichment of school programme. At this stage, financial responsibility can be shared with local bodies.

So far we have reviewed the administration of school education in the four great democracies of the world- the U.S.A. the U.K., West Germany and Japan and examined the actual operation of democratic decentralisation in respect of the administration of school education with a fair degree of details. Among the Asiatic democracies, the Republic of Philippines has many things in primary education in common with India, and a brief review of its administration of primary education, especially its community development movement and the community

school movement would provide useful guidelines. Philippines has almost achieved universal, compulsory and free school education of six years duration. It is an example of high degree of centralised control and fiscal responsibilities in universal primary education, but considerable decentralisation does exist at individual school level. Unfortunately, detailed literature on the functioning of the school systems of administrative significance and implications is not available in the case of the Philippines. The same is true of the United Arab Republic in Africa and the Socialist Countries - the Soviet Unit, the German Democratic Republic and Red China which we have included in the present study. The discussion on these countries will therefore be indicative rather than conclusive.

#### 1.7 Community Schools in Philippines

The Philippines islands number about 7,100, although only 2,773 of them have been named so far. Their area is 115,600 sq. miles. The islands first came under the Spanish rule in the seventeenth century, then under the American rule in 1899 and became an independent country in 1946. The American rulers tried to establish a system of universal compulsory, free, public schools, and a democratic decentralised pattern of school administration based on their own practices at home. But owing to financial difficulties they were not able to make primary education compulsory and free. However, ~~they~~ succeeded

in creating councils of municipalities and municipal districts to administer primary education. They also introduced tax-supported secular public school system. The funds for primary schools came from a percentage of the land tax, one half of the cedula tax (a kind of poll tax) and additional funds sanctioned by the municipal council. The government paid for all American teachers and a number of philipino teachers.

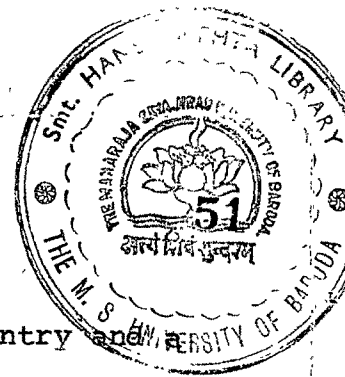
During the American regime, the local bodies in the Philippines were not much effective in the administration of primary education because the Americans tried to introduce their own model; the bulk of expenditure of primary education fell on local bodies which did not have adequate resources, ; very often the municipalities could not and would not provide adequate funds for primary education; the funds provided by the local education authorities varied from year to year and consequently it was not possible to maintain definite progress, and English was made medium of instruction even at the primary stage.

In 1935, the Filipino people got dominion States which ensured them the right to frame their own Constitution. The Constitution which they made marked a turning point in their history of education. The Constitution provided for building up an educational system free from American domination. It ordained that "Government shall maintain a complete and adequate system of public education and shall provide at least free

public primary instruction and citizenship training to adult citizens." (39). It was also decided to abandon the use of English as a medium of instruction at the primary stage and prepared plans to make Taglog the national language and a medium of instruction.

Between 1935 and 1941, a rapid expansion of primary education took place. The increase in pupil enrolment in primary schools amounted to 8 lakhs during this period. There were several reasons for this spurt in enrolment and attendance in primary schools. The local bodies generated popular enthusiasm. More voluntery agencies came forward to open schools. For instance, in one year only - in 1938 more than 4000 additional primary classes were opened and 80 per cent of the increased enrolment in the primary grades was in that year. (40) The local authorities succeeded very much in kindling the interest of local village people to provide and subsidise school building when they decided to have a school in their village. Villages after villages came forward to construct school building and the response was so great that the Philippine President was forced to announce that he would not be able to open new classes on financial grounds, even though the local people should provide sites and buildings for primary schools. (41)

The World War II came in the way of the further strengthening of this popular tide, for extending primary education. In



1946, the Philippines became an independent country and a Republic. Under the Republic, educational administration became centralised in character.

The present pattern of administration of primary education in the Philippines is as follows. The whole responsibility for financing primary education rests on the Central Government. There is an Education Department at the Centre which controls all education including primary education. At the head of the Education Department, there is the Director of Education, under whom there are Divisional Superintendents - one for each of the 49 Provinces and 6 Chartered cities. A Divisional Superintendent of Schools has large powers. He is the head of all the school work in the area. He appoints all 'municipal' teachers. He distributes school supplies and is responsible for school property. Under the Divisional Superintendent of Schools are supervising teachers and school principals. There are no independent local boards or local authorities in education.

As stated earlier, the Central Government pays the cost of all primary schools (Std. I to IV) & intermediate schools (Std. V-VI)-; the Local Education Authorities are required to provide school sites for all schools. The Chartered cities which are financially better placed are required to pay the cost of intermediate schools within their jurisdiction.

The Philippines has been able to achieve universal primary education through centralised responsibility and control and through concentrating its resources and efforts on primary education, leaving the development of secondary education and higher education largely to private enterprise. In 1969, 60 per cent of secondary schools and 90 per cent of colleges were private, whereas only 4 per cent of elementary schools were private(42)

In this, the system of grouping villages into suitable circles, putting each circle in the charge of headmaster-cum-supervisor teacher has also considerably helped. The achievement of the Philippines in universal primary education can be seen from the following statistics. In 1960, the illiteracy figures for men were only 25.8 and for women only 20.8 as against 58.5 per cent for men and 86.8 per cent for women in India; the female enrolment of 48 per cent as against 36 in India(1965); annual average rate of increase in enrolment at primary stage 3 per cent during 1950-55, 3.7 per cent during 1955-60 and 7.7 per cent during 1960-65; and retention ratio in Std. IV 69 per cent and in Std. VI 53 per cent. In 1970-71, the enrolment in grades I-IV of primary schools was 103 per cent (104.6 per cent for boys and 101.5 per cent for girls) and in grades V-VI it was 86.4 per cent (86.0 for boys and 86.8 for girls)(43)

Though the administration of primary education in the Philippines has become highly centralised since 1940, there is considerable community activity at the local level. The movements of community development and of community schools have made no less significant contribution to the progress of universal education. The objectives of community development in the Philippines have been identified as follows : (44)

- Improvement of economic conditions.
- Improvement of health and Sanitation.
- Enrichment of social and cultural life.
- Development of desirable attitudes and habits.
- Development of universal school education.
- Establishment of a social order which permits change and vertical mobility.

The late President Maggaysay of the Philippines said that "Community development is a movement to promote better living with the active support and upon the initiative of the Community and the process to involve people in the solution of their problems".

In the Philippines, the Community School Movement has shown how local initiative and local interest can magically transfer the education scene in rural habitations. There are Purok Councils, barrio councils, parent-teacher association and other functional agencies in which school people and laymen

have active and co-equal partnership in the planning and management of school affairs and forging out a more realistic and community needed - school programme. The people themselves participate in school programme. The community school operates with the belief in the use and application of democratic processes. It utilises the native mores, traditions, cultures and resources, native approach, grass-roots levels, as leverages in the uplift of community living and school offerings. (45)

The role of the community schools is very great in creating common-concerns- the road to democratic living and functioning. The Community School Movement has helped materially in raising the retention of primary schools which was as stated earlier, 69 in Grade IV and 53 in Grade VI per cent in 1959 and reducing illiteracy among people from 40 per cent in 1940 to 28.1 per cent (men 25.8 per cent and women 30.5 per cent) in 1960. (46)

The high success of development of rural education in the Philippines lends support to the association of local Community with the administration of schools.

#### 1.8 Administration of Primary Education in Egypt

Like most of the African Countries, the concept of Universal, Compulsory and free primary education developed late and after the World War II in the United Arab Republic. The principle of compulsion was first accepted in the Egyptian Constitution of 1923. The Article 19 of their Constitution provides for Compul-



sory education for both the sexes in all public elementary schools. However, the definite age-period for compulsory education was laid down later. The Law No.46 of 1933 provided the age-period of compulsion from 7 to 12 years. Later on this Law was amended so as to provide compulsion for the age-group of 6 to 12 years.

For many years, primary education in Egypt Continued to develop on inadequate lines. There were several reasons for this. Firstly, its administration was more centralised and the local administrative units had a very limited rule; second the local bodies were lukewarm in enforcing compulsion, especially in respect of girls; thirdly the operation of a two-ladder system of primary schools, one meant for privileged classes (which charged high fees) and the other for classes (which mostly functioned on a part-time basis) prevailed for a long time; fourthly the Government did not have, and was not prepared to spend, adequate funds for primary education; fifthly, for enrolling their children in part-time elementary schools parents were required to pay tuition fees; and sixthly, social and economic discriminations continued.

It was only after 1950 that the dual system of primary education of quality for classes and elementary education of superfluous character for masses could be considerably checked; the standard of teaching in elementary school could be raised and part-time schools could be reduced very largely. Though

local community participation in the administration of primary education did not increase significantly, however a change was noticeable in the attitude of the members of local bodies which resulted in increase in the enrolment of children in primary schools. There was 3.24 lakhs of children studying in primary schools in 1914; the number became 10.10 lakhs in 1945. From all private primary schools, fees have been abolished and they have been brought into the orbit of the public school system. In 1914, only 31,180 girls were enrolled in primary schools. The enrolment of girls rose to 4.51 lakhs in 1945. This was the result of the efforts of local bodies. The girls' enrolment fell to 3.36 lakhs in 1950 (47) It was due to the qualitative drive launched upon by Government. Since the end of World War II, the Central Government has been assuming in an increasing degree the financial responsibility of primary education. The former position where the Provincial Councils - the local bodies in Egypt - managed primary schools with the help of government grant changed. Since 1950 the Central Government meets all expenses in primary education. Thus in Egypt the local control of primary education though it is limited, has helped the spread of primary universal education.

#### 1.9 Controlled Administration of Primary Education in Communist Countries (Soviet Union, German Democratic Republic - East Germany and Red China)

We have so far discussed the democratic decentralisation of the administration of primary education in democratic countries.

We will now briefly review the administration of primary education in some typical communist countries, viz., Soviet Union, East Germany and Red China, with a view to examining the nature of democratic decentralisation in a socialist political set-up and how it contributed to the expansion and development of school education.

At the outset, we note a few common facts of communist administration of school education. In all Communist Countries it is the Central Communist Party of the Country that is in over-all control of all facts of national life and development. It controls all education at all levels. The major policy decisions on education, the Content of education, the type and structure of educational establishment, the principles of training etc. are issued in the form of laws enacted by the Central Government. In the Soviet Union, it is the Supreme. Soviet, in the East Germany it is the Socialist Unity Party, and in the Red China it is the Central Communist Party (CCP) which is the Central decision-making agency. These countries have their National Constitution which enunciates certain basic principles. Universal compulsory and free primary education forms an important directive in the Constitution.

The proposals on which the laws of education are based are initiated by the Central Committee of the Communist Countries.

There is no gainsaying the fact that the Centralised control and the decentralised implementation have greatly helped the expansion and development of education in Communist Countries. This is best seen in the Soviet Union.

In the Soviet Union, in 1897, among the people above the age of 9 years, only 28.4 per cent were literate; the education system was designed for the few; elementary education usually was unavailable to peasantry. The Communists took over the control of the country in 1917. Today the whole educational scene in all parts of the Soviet Union is completely changed. Within half a century educational miracle has occurred in Soviet Union. There is almost cent per cent literacy. In 1930, universal and Compulsory four year schooling was introduced for all children aged 8 years and over, and seven year compulsory schooling for those living in industrial towns, districts and workers' settlements. At the beginning of 1960-61, nearly 3.7 million of pupils attended general schools. Today, the Country's 202,000 schools have an enrolment of 4.9 crores (48). The soviet union is heading towards universal secondary education.

The Soviet educational system is based on the following democratic principles :

- State-supported system of education with no dependence on private enterprise or public charity;
- Equal opportunities for all peoples;
- Equality of sexes;
- A unified school system;

- Complete separation of school and other educational and training institutions from the Church; and  
C
- Close contacts between school and community.

Every school in the Soviet Union has a parents' Committee elected by the parents themselves at the beginning of each academic year. Educational questions are widely discussed by the Soviet public at all the administrative levels. The trade unions, the Young Communist League and other public organizations actively participate in the work of schools and other public organizations actively participate in the work of schools and other educational institutions. Thus, centralisation of decision-making but a great measure of local participation in the implementation of educational decisions strengthened by factors such as militant communist ideology, top-priority accorded to the educational advancement of the children of factory, workers and farmers, complete identification of community with the problems of educational advancement, economic development and cultural enrichment and the wide and large scale use of the multi communication media, have helped universalisation of school education in the Soviet Union.

In the German Democratic Republic, we find almost the identical pattern of Centralisation of decision-making, the vigour of communist ideology and the controlled and directed participation of local communities in the administration of education. It has fraternal relations link with the Soviet

Union, and therefore, the administration of education, including primary education, breathes the spirit of the Russian practices, though in details it follows its own traditions.

The GDR is in fact, a small country of 108,174 square kilometers in area and of 1.71 crore inhabitants. It consists of 15 counties with 217 urban and rural districts. Eleven cities have a population of more than 9 lakh each. But it is a highly industrialised nation. In fact, it is one of the ten leading industrial countries of the world.

The Law on Democratizing the German Schools came into force in 1946. The socialist Unity Party of Germany is the Central Communist party in east Germany and it has been the leading and driving force in the national regeneration in all the fields of national life of East Germany, including education.

The GDR reformed its school system in 1946. Three of its most significant achievements are : (1) State Control of education and the abolition of private schools, (ii) Separation of school and church and the abolition of religious instruction in schools and (iii) breaking down the educational privileged of the former ruling class by opening up all its educational institutions at all levels to all young people, especially to the children of workers and farmers. (49).

In the course of a quarter of a century since its establishment in 1946, the G.D.R. has achieved eight-year of primary education for all, based on a consistently scientific conception. The government has also largely succeeded in achieving socialist transformation of the society through several means, one of which is universal school education.

The socialist relationship between power and production makes possible and demands that citizens take an expert active thinking part in governing and planning in all the fields of national life. Every citizen is called upon to co-operate on a basis of equality and responsibility in the settlement of political, economic, educational and other essential questions of society. All citizens are made to feel it is necessary to have the needed expert knowledge in order to jointly deal with all public matters and especially to master the process which will bring about the Scientific and technological revolution. This has been a great driving force in all educational programmes including school education. The State endeavours to provide a relatively high and essentially equal, modern general education. The democratic devolution of authority, of course within the framework of the Central party control operating at all levels, has reaped rich harvest in education. Its greatest achievement is, perhaps, the unity of school and daily life. Schools at all levels prepare children for life. Schools have become an integral part of social reality.

Communist Party and the Central Council of Ministers.

The decisions are taken by them (The ministers are the prominent members of the communist party). The Ministries of Education at the State levels are charged with the responsibility of establishing and maintaining all levels of educational establishments and programmes in conformity with the Central laws and decrees reflecting the central communist party's mandate. At the State level also, the communist party is functioning. There is almost a parallel system of party's collaboration at the State and the lower administrative units. The educational systems in all Communist Countries is purposeful and they know very well what to do, how to do and why to do.

There are local units of administration of education within a State at regional and district levels. For instance in the Soviet Union, there are City Boards of Education, Regional Boards of Education, and there are District Boards of Education. Like the States, they do not have any decision-making power. The main function of these local level education boards is to implement the central directives and decisions. This they do very well because, the members are deeply indoctrinated in communist ideology and way of life and way of work - their thoughts and behaviours are well controlled. Further, these local bodies are highly representative of local communities, their functioning is very close to the people, as there is considerable involvement of local people. Thus, in



Communist Countries the policy-making in administration of all education is done centrally, where the Central Communist party plays a decisive role, but there is a very great measure of decentralisation in the implementation of policy-decisions at each of the lower administrative levels. In no other political system, perhaps, the involvement of masses- the farmers and workers - in the administration of school education is so great as in the administration of living community involvement participation and identification with well articulated tasks of establishing, administering and enriching school programmes. In 1971<sup>1</sup> on account of such democratic decentralisation of administration of school education, the GDR was able to provide 250 places in creches for every 1000 children under the age of 3, 620 places in Kindergartens per every 1000 children of the age-group 3-6 years. There is universal school education for children of the age-group 7-14 and 85 per cent of all 15 and 16 years old children attend classes. 9th and 10th of the ten year of general polytechnical high school. This indeed is the great achievement of the Socialist regime. (50)

In Red China too, it is the same story of central control and decentralised implementation of policy. The Central Communist Party (CCP) has played the predominant role in transforming the educational system of the country to meet the new needs. In every kind of school the policy advanced by chairman Mao of education serving proletarian politics and

education being combined with productive labour is being rigorously applied and pursued. During the Great Leap Forward period which began in 1958, the People's Communes took over all the functions of local government including education. The rural communes, Local Peoples Councils, Urban factories and other local organisations came to be closely connected with the administration of schools. All the local organizations and councils were required to run cheches, kindergartons, lower primary and upper primary full-time schools, spare time primary education classes and part-work primary education classes, and institutions at secondary and higher education levels. The curriculum is laid down by the Central Ministry of Education which is controlled by the Central Party.

The Constitution of China adopted in 1954, guarantees citizens the right to education of an unspecified kind. The Article 47 of the Constitution states that universal education shall be carried out but does not mention for what age-groups. Red China is faced with many educational obstacles. For instance it has a big population of over 70 crores. It has relatively a high proportion of young population. In 1953, 36 per cent was below 15 years. Priority of admission of proletarian students; shortened school and college courses; simplified Mao-oriented curricula; half-time labour, half-time classroom work; self-support under commune; army and worker committee leadership, co-ordinated with centrally led priority programme are its

bright achievements (52) In 1953, there were 7.5 crores to 9.0 crores of children of the primary school age (7-12 years) the figures for 1965 were 11.0 crores to 14.0 crores. The annual increment in the primary school population was 10 to 20 lakhs in 1953 and 16 to 30 lakhs in 1965. (51) The ubiquity of Chinese language Script poses difficult language problem. Thirty-three different peoples with a total population of 3.53 crores pose another difficult problem in universalising primary education. The Communist China, thus, faces a herculean task in education. Despite many difficulties it has achieved a lot in education. The Chinese leaders claim that over 80 per cent of children of the primary school age have been enrolled in schools. (53). one has no means to know to what extent this claim is substantiated by actual facts. There has been a tendency among the communist China to exaggerate and inflate its achievements in all the fields of national life, including education. But one thing appears certain that the local units of administration of education-communes, people's councils, factories are very close to local communities and on account of the democratic devolution of the authority in implementing the Centrally determined policies in universal primary education, Red China's achievements are considerable in the field.

### 1.10 General Deductions from the Comparative Study

From the foregoing broad survey of the democratic decentralisation in the administration of primary education in the nine countries of the World, it is possible to make certain general deductions about conditions essential for the successful devolution of authority in primary education. These deductions are as follows :

#### (a) The U.S.A :

- (1) Historical traditions play an important part, in building up democratic traditions and effecting decentralisation of power and responsibility in the administration school systems. In the U.S.A. the tradition of school education initiated with local communities. The local interest and local participation began as early as in the seventeenth century. The State's supervision and control came much later. Over the period of years the administration at the grassroots was greatly strengthened and the idea of community autonomy got so deeply entrenched in the minds of the people for States <sup>so that</sup> ~~found it difficult~~ to extend their sphere of control over school districts and other equivalent units of local school bodies.
- (ii) Schools are not brought only very close to communities but they are made also a centre of community pride and a healthy rivalry can be developed between different communities to develop, improve and enrich their respective school systems, by providing different types of services such as transportation, school lunch, health, school psychologists, counselling and guidance, testing and so on;

- (iii) Local Communities having long tradition of financial support to local <sup>education</sup>, can be expected to provide increasing financial support for the enrichment of school programmes and student welfare services;
- (iv) It is possible to restrict the States Control over schools within limits permitted by people themselves;
- (v) It always ultimately pays for building up a tradition for constituting school boards through election by popular vote;
- (vi) It is more fruitful to provide non-professional membership of School Boards so that the members are able to look at school matters more objectively and from a less prejudiced position;
- (vii) Since the work of administration of schools education by School Boards is difficult and time-consuming, only those who have a dedication and who can afford the time should present themselves for election or appointment as member of School Boards;
- (viii) Individual School Districts, within the basic qualifications laid down by the State Government, have powers to set whatever high educational Standards they wish, for the membership of School Boards.
- (ix) Elections to School Boards do approach non-partisan ideal; they are not fought on a political party's tickets; The contesting members are actuated by a sincere desire to serve the cause of school;
- (x) The local communities are mainly responsible for raising the upper limit of compulsory education;
- (xi) The enforcement of school attendance, is very sincere on the part of the School Boards. <sup>The</sup> approach adopted is

not one of a typical policeman officer but that of a Social worker; efforts are usually made to 'sell' Schools to the defaulters, parents as well as pupils;

(b) England and Wales :

- (i) Before the enforcement of compulsory primary education begins, it is necessary, in the first instance, to provide for the required number of schools, buildings, equipment and teachers. In order to ensure universality of enrolment, it is necessary first to ensure universality of school provision. The schools should be provided by local education authorities with the help of financial help from Government. Private schools are to be assimilated into the system of public schools.
- (ii) In the past the School Boards were empowered to frame such bye-laws as were best suited to the social, and economic condition of their areas.
- (iii) Only a small area is placed under an L.E.A. to make it possible to secure local knowledge, local interest and local enthusiasm;
- (iv) Members of Education Committees must include persons of experience and those acquainted with local education conditions;
- (v) The L.E.A. decides what type a school shall be and the conduct and curriculum of schools;
- (vi) School buildings are provided under the national annual building programme of the Government;

- (vii) In the universal provision of schools the voluntary or private agencies should also have place, but they should function under the general direction and control of the L.E.As.
- (viii) The Government makes a rate- deficiency grant to assist local authorities whose rate resources are below the national average.
- (ix) Government assumes most of the responsibility for the finances of L.E.As. yet it makes least attempts to control them.

(c) Japan :

- (i) Before 1948, the administration of school education was highly centralised. This centralisation, supported by factors such as rapid industrialisation, growing economic prosperity, intense nationalism and the pervading and stimulating effect of westernisation, helped in making elementary education universal. Local interest and enthusiasm for educating children came to be generated out of deep conviction in the minds of the people that education was necessary for their own economic prosperity, and people could see for themselves that educating children was an economically rewarding undertaking. The centralised administration amidst such political social and economic background helped the cause of education;
- (ii) It is difficult to change the attitude of educational officers of Government, habituated for long to use centralised control, to accept democratic decentralisation. It needs a determined and firm stand on the part of those who want to decentralise control;

- (iii) Once a good principle and a practice are enforced, they stick in the minds of the people and become a good tradition;
- (iv) Education should be so conducted without submitting to undue control, and schools should be responsible to people. However, national or central guidance and co-ordination, without the warping effect of regulation, may be necessary. This is all the more so when local citizens are not prepared, or have not yet become ready, to accept the responsibility, for education. Some provision should be made by the State to guard against local indifference.
- (v) Permitting teachers to fight election to School Boards and sit on the Board, if elected, does not always result into a more profitable working of the School Board; it rather disturbs their smooth working by injecting another kind of trade unionism - that of teachers;
- (vi) It is more advantageous academically to replace school inspectors by teacher consultants without the power of control;
- (vii) The budgets of School Budgets should not be a voting item of the Legislative Assembly;
- (viii) School Boards should have some independent tax sources to fall back upon.

(d) West Germany :

The case of Germany shows that it is possible to achieve universalism of elementary education in an industrial society under a centralised set-up, and with limited devolution of authority to local bodies. In the case, the popular enthusiasm



for education stems from the deep understanding in people that the schooling of their children is an essential condition for their own economic well-being. This realisation of the economic benefits of schooling makes people willing to accept State taxation and local rate or cess. When education brings great wealth to them, they are prepared to make further financial sacrifices to improve and enrich education, as better education comes to be regarded as a sound investment. The State willingly delegates some authority in education to local bodies which have enlightened members owing to great diffusion of education among the society. This delegation of power creates a further sense of responsibility among people and fervour for better education. In a society, which is economically fairly well-off, it is possible for the State to throw on it a reasonably high financial load to support education without any damping effect on educational progress - on the contrary, it helps in educational advancement.

(e) The Philippines

- (i) When a country is small in area and the population consists of a few lakhs, it is possible to have effective centralised control of primary schools and centralised financial responsibility for universal primary education;

- (ii) Fast rising adult literacy helps in enforcing compulsion;
  - (iii) The grouping of villages into suitable circles and placing of each circle in charge of a supervising teacher, who stays in the circle and works as the headmaster of one of the schools of the circle, work well in rural areas.
  - (iv) All circles of a district can be placed under a single officer who will be assisted by one touring officer per every 20 such circles.
  - (v) Rural communities should not be loaded with heavy financial responsibility for the support of their schools. Their contribution should be limited to something which they can provide without much difficulty viz., the site for schools and labour for school construction;
  - (vi) Development of primary schools into community schools not only helps in universalising primary education but also in many facets of community development.
  - (vii) Community schools are very effective instruments of democratic decentralisation of generating and community interest and concern for universal school education.
- (f) The Socialist Countries (The Soviet Union, The German Democratic Republic and Red China)
- (i) It is necessary to make school programme and administration higher purposeful. The State should know exactly where it wants to go, how it should go and where it can go alone and where it can take the people with it.

- (ii) Development, in the people, of a real sense of commitment to the ideals of building up a socialist society, based on an equitable distribution of wealth equality of opportunity, classless social pattern, and infused with the spirit of collectivism and co-operation where subordination of individual interest to the general community interest is the basic rule, makes democratic decentralisation a more meaningful and realistic proposition;
- (iii) In a highly development - motivated society it is possible to have policy-making practice and control centralised, and implementation of the policy decentralised at different local levels;
- (iv) The masses- the workers and peasants can take part in the work of the school;
- (v) The financial responsibility for education can be distributed between the Government and local administrative units;
- (vi) The education budget at each administrative level should include the budgets of subordinate levels;
- (vii) It is possible to secure the participation of various agencies such as farms, factories, business and industrial firms, the mass organisations in establishing educational institutions and providing student welfare services, through state directives;
- (viii) Even when the policy-making, curriculum development, methods of teaching, teacher-training, etc are centrally controlled, it is possible to make education the concern of the entire nation by involving various organisations of youth, women, workers, peasants and parents in admi-

nistering one aspect or the other of school programmes;

- (ix) Each region, each county, within the district, each city and town, has its own Education Boards which provide feed-back on the needed improvement or enrichment of schools to the authorities at immediate upper administrative level.
- (x) Even in centralised administration, the lower levels of administrative-units, the city Boards of Education and District Boards of Education can be delegated some meaningful authority such as maintenance of standards, the maintenance and repairs of school buildings, providing inservice of teachers and other educational workers, securing attendance of pupils in compulsory age-groups;
- (xi) One way of enlisting community participation in the administration of schools is through elected Parents' Committee, which helps the School authorities to enforce, organise out-of-school programmes and generally give support to the school.
- (xii) The individual school can have considerable democratic participation of the community within and without. This can be secured through the organisation of a Pedagogical Council for each school consisting of the teachers of the school, the librarian, the school physician, the Chairman of the Parents' Committee, the leader of the School Pioneer Organisation, a representative of the local trade union, etc.

- (xiii) Educational planning can have a base and frame decided by the national and State economic commissions. But the development of the actual plan can be built up at each lower level from below and within the framework of objectives decided at the highest levels, which can be scrutinised and co-ordinated with immediately higher level plans and then the co-ordinated plan can be sent at each higher level in the administrative hierarchy after being scrutinized and coordinated.

#### 1.11 A Theoretical Reference Frame for Democratic Decentralised Administration of Primary Education in Gujarat State

In the preceding Section, some broad conclusions from the nine countries included in the comparative study were presented. The findings of these countries show that decentralisation of administration of primary education is not practised in all countries - in the same way and in the similar measure, there is difference both in the nature and extent of decentralisation. It is, however, true that in most of the countries, the emphasis is on delegating more or less authority and responsibility at local levels. The U.S.A. is an example of a country where decentralisation is the utmost, but in other countries, there is both centralisation and decentralisation. The extent of centralisation-decentralisation is in varying degrees. From the examples of these countries, and using the findings of other similar comparative studies, it is possible to lay down a theoretical reference frame which can also serve evaluative criteria, for democratic devolution of powers and responsibility in the administra-

tion of primary education in the Indian context. The underlying assumption is that these determinants would be applicable to the situation in Gujarat also, it being a part of India.

- (a) When a State is spread over a large area and where a significant part of population lives in small and scattered rural habitations, it is advantageous to have some powers and responsibility centralised, even when the ideal of decentralisation is accepted. Portus (51) findings in his study on "Free, Compulsory and Secular Education in Australia" mentions four main advantages from such centralisation, viz. It leads simplicity in administration; it is possible to provide educational facilities to people living in isolation in the remote parts of the country; in the times of economic depression, all the resources of the government are available for the needs of education; and it is easier to provide for equality of educational opportunity in all parts of the country;
- (b) The Philippines example shows that when expenditure on public education is fast growing. (e.g. for example, it <sup>it</sup> Corpuz's (52) study shows that ~~that~~ spent around 750 million pesos in 1968 and will be 1 billion a year for teachers' salaries alone in the public school in the middle of 1970's), the economy of local bodies cannot raise enough resources to support such expanding programmes, and,

therefore, financial centralisation for a vast programme like Universal, Compulsory and free primary education is inevitable.

- (c) When the people to whom the powers and responsibility for services in primary education are to be devolved have not acquired "self reliance, initiative" responsibility and a dozen other necessary qualities, as concluded by Sinco in another recent Study on the education in Philippines (53), the devolution has to be done with caution and sufficient safeguards be kept by Government that the cause of universal, primary education does not suffer on account of apathy, inefficiency or factionalism of the local people;

- (d) Primary education cannot be the responsibility of only local government or central or state government. It should be regarded as the responsibility of government at all levels- the Central, State and local governments. However, this responsibility should be divided among the government at different levels.

Considering

- (e) <sup>t</sup>he huge magnitude of the problem of universal, compulsory and free primary education and the huge size of the country in which it is to be administered, it is very difficult to work successfully and efficiently the programme through a centralised system.

- (f) The example of the U.S.A. shows that the success of the administration of primary education depends upon local interest and initiative.
- (g) There are some simple activities such as maintenance of school building and its premises, provision of drinking water for children, celebration of school functions and day-to-day supervision of the activities of the school activities like this are best dealt with at the local level and it is necessary to create some agency in the locality itself to be entrusted with such responsibilities. On the other hand, the administration of primary education includes some extremely difficult matters such as to find required funds, the responsibility for which is not possible, as pointed out earlier, for any local agency to bear, is to be centralised more appropriately in the Central and State governments. Between these two extremes, there are a larger number of functions which can be tackled effectively at a suitable intermediate levels at the block level and the district level. For the successful and effective administration of primary education, it is necessary to ascribe to each level the functions that can be best served there.
- "If this is done, it will be seen that every level, namely, the Village level, the Block level, the District level, the state level and the Central level - each has



some specific functions to perform and these functions can be performed at the respective levels better than elsewhere, the decentralisation would result into a fruitful operation" (54)

- (h) The decentralised powers and responsibilities for primary education can be better exercised by school or Education Committees to be created at each level;
- (i) These committees should consist of both elected and appointed members some of whom should belong to the parent local body (whose committee is the Education Committee is);
- (j) The size of these committees, as the findings on the study on the U.S.A. should not be either too big as to make their effective functioning difficult nor too small as not to represent different shades of public opinion and representation of all the major sections of the community and ensure specialised professional guidance and advice;
- (k) It will be necessary to have both elected members and appointed members; whether the former should be in there majority or the latter, should depend upon the level of education and public awakening among the local community;

- (l) Majority of members should be non-professional so that they can look at school matters more objectively and from a less prejudiced position;
- (m) Though it will be difficult to keep the politicians and politics altogether out of the elections of School Boards or Committees, the goal should be set for having such persons on the Boards that have genuine interest in and concern for better community education and community welfare. The leadership of the Boards should be in the hands of such persons, who can be appointed if they do not come forward to contest election, who have grasp of problems of primary schools and an understanding of community needs and sufficient local knowledge.
- (n) Local financial support should be correlated to the resources of income of the local body and the ability of local community to make sacrifice for local schools;
- (o) The School or Education Committee should have the guidance of a local advisory committee consisting of both knowledgeable and genuinely interested local people; there should be a local parents' Committee as is the case in Socialist countries.

Such is broadly the theoretical reference frame which would serve as a major **guideline** for making democratic decentralised administration of primary education in Gujarat and which will also be used as evaluative criterion to determine the extent to which the present structure as well as the functioning of democratic bodies in charge of the administration of primary education are effective so far as the achievement of the goal of universal, compulsory and free primary education, as directed in Article 45 of the Indian Constitution, is concerned.

In the 3 Chapters that follows, a brief picture of the development of free compulsory primary education in Gujarat will be given and a broad appraisal of the democratic bodies entrusted with the task of administering primary education under the Bombay Primary Education Act 1947 as they functioned prior to the introduction of the Panchayati Raj in 1963, will be attempted.

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