

**A STUDY OF THE POLICY OF CENTRALIZATION OF EDUCATION
IN THE PHILIPPINES, 1898 -1953**

By

Luceno L. Quirante

**Thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of the University of Maryland in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education**

1953

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express his grateful acknowledgments to the Research Committee composed of Drs. Gladys A. Wiggin, R. Lee Hornbake, and Charles T. Stewart for their guidance and help in the preparation of this project. A sincere appreciation is extended also to Dr. James A. VanZwoll for giving a few helpful suggestions. To Miss Margareth Jorgensen and Mr. Richard Maxwell of the National Archives of the United States (Records Service of the Territories Section of Natural Resources), the writer extends gratitude for their invaluable assistance. The writer also wishes to acknowledge the help of Mrs. Wendell Fogg for typing and to Mrs. W. A. Loveless for proof-reading the materials of this project.

— L. L. Q.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1. Origin of the Problem

Among the first important innovations of the United States officials in the Philippines shortly after the American Occupation in 1898 was a new system of education ". . . . consecrated to the ideologies of democracy and modern progress."¹ A perusal of the history of the Philippines since the turn of the century would disclose the significant role which education played in the attainment of the prime objective of the United States in occupying the Philippines--the training of the Filipino people for self-government.

During the inception of the American regime an educational system was established to expedite not only the pacification campaigns throughout the archipelago, but also the enlightenment of the masses incident to national development. That popular education contributed, by and large, to the political, social, economic, and cultural advancement of the Filipinos is the consensus of many students of Philippine history. According to Joseph Ralston Hayden,

No phase of the development of a national state in the Philippines seems more important than the progress of education among the Filipino people. As a nation, the United States believes that education is indispensable to successful self-government. When America undertook to train

1

Gregorio F. Zaide, "Philippine History and Civilization", Philippine Associated Publishers, Manila: 1939, p. 624

the Philippines in democratic political processes it assumed as a matter of course that any people which is reasonably well educated, according to American standards, would be capable of managing its own affairs and determining its own destiny.²

It is generally believed that Americans introduced into the Philippines an educational system fundamentally American in origin. This belief, undoubtedly, is the result of a superficial examination of the purposes, curricula, teacher training, instructional materials, and such policies as that of importing American teachers into the Philippines.

There was one policy, however, which appeared to be out of keeping with American patterns of school control and organization. This was the policy which established a centralized system of public education and private school supervision, something unknown in the state-local patterns of public education in the United States. This organizational structure, combined with its purpose which was the introduction of an American education, had the effect of introducing uniformity even in such areas as instructional programs which in the United States might be expected to vary from locality to locality. Thus, though curricula, for instance, might bear superficial resemblance to those in the United States, the uniformity imposed by centralization in effect established a pattern out of keeping with the context of American education.

In view of the expressed purposes of the Americans, for the most part benevolent, to help Filipinos achieve competence in self-government,

and in view of the method proposed by Americans which appeared to be to introduce American education in the Philippines, it appears significant to inquire into the policy respecting centralization of education.

2. Purpose and Scope of the Study

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to (1) review the series of events which led to the establishment of centralization of education in the Philippines; (2) trace the origins of the acceptance of a centralized plan of education; and (3) delineate some of the associated effects of a centralized system of education. The time period of this project covers selected aspects of educational history in the Islands from the beginning of the American Occupation to the present.

Establishing a System

The three points to be covered in this study need this further explanation. The series of events leading to the establishment of centralization of education will cover a period from three weeks after the Occupation (August 13, 1898) when schools were first reopened, through the Organic School Law enacted by the United States Philippine Commission on January 21, 1901. To put educational events in perspective, this study will consider them against their background of the War with Spain in 1898 and in connection with certain military and civil events subsequent to the Occupation. This material will be found in Chapter II.

*

Origins of the System

The second point in this study, namely, tracing the origins of the acceptance of a centralized plan of education, rests on somewhat more tenuous grounds than the first. In view of historical background, American pronouncements, and the nature of personnel first involved in the Occupation, it seems reasonable to hypothesize at least four reasons for the adoption of a centralized school policy. The first is the diversity of the peoples and languages, and the geographical isolation of persons one from another living on the many islands of the archipelago. Presumably, these striking diversities impressed Americans with the necessity of drawing the peoples together through a social medium such as a school system designed to promote a common background.

The second reason for centralization appears to lie in the fact that the remnants of a school system founded by American occupying personnel were Spanish in origin, and the Spanish educational system had been of a centralized character.

Centralization, thirdly, may have been affected by the fact that in the first instance American education policies were established by the military to whom a centralized system of education may have been more congenial and more understandable in terms of tasks assigned to them in the first three years.

Fourthly, centralization may have been brought about by broad policies and purposes of the American civilian as well as military personnel. These policies were designed for the good of the Filipinos and addressed to the purpose of assisting them to become self-governing.

These four possible origins of a centralized system of education in the Philippines will be discussed in Chapter III.

Associated Effects

Point three of this study, delineating some of the associated effects of a centralized system of education, covers the period from the Organic School Law of 1901 to the present day. It deals with four selected aspects of centralization, namely, (1) administrative organization and supervision, (2) curricula, (3) instructional program and materials, and (4) finance. Associated effects is to be taken not as an evaluation of either the good or the bad effects of centralization but rather as a description of increasing or decreasing centralization throughout the period under discussion. Furthermore, this treatment does not purport to be exhaustive but merely suggestive of trends in the four areas described above. The term associated effects carries the further implication that a centralized administrative organization brought with it not a sampling of American educational practices which in the United States might have been expected to vary with local circumstances, but rather a set of synthesized practices which resulted in standardization of curricular and instructional materials. Associated effects of centralization will be discussed in Chapter IV.

3. Importance of the Study

As nearly as the writer has been able to ascertain, no study of a similar nature on this subject has been undertaken. Furthermore, because of the sharp departure from typically American educational

patterns in one crucial area of education and the associated effects of that departure, it is deemed that this study will, in addition, call attention to further investigation of selected aspects of the problem.

4. Definition of Terms

A definition of certain basic terms used in this study seems expedient.

Policy, as used in this study, refers to any piece of legislation, such as a law, resolution, executive order or proclamation, as well as a department or bureau circular and memorandum with its corresponding interpretations.

Educational policies are those which are directly concerned with any phase of the department, bureau, or school programs in particular and/or with the system of education as a whole.

Educational system refers both to the elementary and secondary public school organization, and, to a certain extent, also to the organization of the private schools. Unless otherwise specified, it is generally used to signify the type of education which the Americans introduced into the Philippines.

Centralization, as used in this project, denotes the systematic process whereby the operation of the school system throughout the whole country is controlled by the central government. It is a system whereby the local unit of school organization derives its powers and support from a higher administrative body. Centralization also means that the mandatory policies governing school organization and supervision, the

curricula, the instructional program and materials, and school finance originated and still do originate from a central source in the national government.

5. Techniques and Sources of Materials Used

In view of the nature of the subject matter under consideration, descriptive, chronological, and topical methods of presentation will be used in this study.

In the preparation of this project, the writer made use of available materials found in the libraries of the University of Maryland, the District of Columbia, the Embassy of the Philippines in Washington, D.C., the United States Office of Education, the Smithsonian Institution, the National Archives of the United States, and the Library of Congress.

Both primary and secondary sources have been consulted. Primary sources include the Organic School Law or Act No. 74 and other related educational legislation; messages and instructions of the President of the United States; reports of the Philippine Commissions; annual reports, circulars, and memoranda of the Department of Education and of the Bureau of Public Schools; yearbooks and census reports and statistics. In addition the writer has utilized his personal collection of related references such as school manuals and bulletins.

Secondary sources have consisted of books, periodicals, and newspapers.

CHAPTER II

EVENTS LEADING TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A CENTRALIZED SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

The Americans occupied Manila on August 13, 1898. Approximately three weeks after this date, schools were reopened. To lay a background for American Occupation, there will be described in Section 1 below the chief military events in the occupation of the Philippines. This will be followed by a description of educational events from 1898 to 1901, to be found in Section 2.

1. Origins of the Spanish-American War

The United States' entry into war with Spain seems to have been a logical outcome of the conditions which existed in Cuba, a colony of Spain in the West Indies.

Evidences tend to show that the brutality of the tactics which Spain used in quelling the Cuban insurrection constituted a war of extermination. As a neutral power, the United States tried to intervene by insisting that a more humane method of warfare be employed. But such intervention only implicated the United States in Cuban affairs. Incident to the Cuban conflict, on February 15, 1898, the United States Battleship Maine was blown up in Havana harbor. War, then, became inevitable. The United States Congress declared an all-out war with

Spain on April 25, 1898.¹

The trend of events on the Cuban front merged with those in the Philippines, another Spanish colony in the Orient; Commodore George Dewey, in command of the U.S. Asiatic Squadron at Mifs Bay (near Hong Kong), received the following cable:

War has commenced between the United States and Spain. Proceed at once to the Philippine Islands. Commence operations particularly against the Spanish fleet. You must capture vessels or destroy. Use utmost endeavor.²

Without further ado, the United States Asiatic Squadron weighed anchor and steamed toward the Philippines. By the first of May, 1898, Commodore Dewey and his fleet entered Manila Bay and engaged the Spanish Armada under the command of Admiral Montojo in Naval combat. At this famous Battle of Manila Bay on May 1, 1898, the United States Asiatic Squadron annihilated the Spanish fleet. That after the gunboats and the batteries at Sangley Point were silenced, ". . . there was no possibility of further resistance" was confirmed by Dewey in his Autobiography.³

Shortly after the battle, the American Consul in Manila, Oscar F. Williams, reported to the State Department that ". . . naval history of the dawning century will be rich if it furnishes to the world so

¹"War with Spain", Harper's Encyclopedia of United States History, Vol. VIII, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York: 1912, p. 293

²Quoted from the cablegram sent by Secretary John D. Long of the Navy Department and published in Zaide's "Philippine History and Civilization", op. cit., p. 501.

³George Dewey, "Autobiography of George Dewey", Charles Scribner's Sons, New York: 1913, pp. 197-233

glorious a display of intelligent command and successful service."⁴

America's victory was complete and decisive. The ignominious defeat of Admiral Montojo's Spanish Fleet sounded the death knell of the colonial supremacy of Spain in the Orient. Thus, the Spanish-American War brought an end to more than three hundred and fifty years of Spain's domination of the Philippines.

Subsequent to his magnificent exploits and signal victory, Commodore Dewey was promoted to admiral by President William McKinley. In the meantime, Admiral Dewey maintained an effective blockade of the port of Manila while waiting for re-enforcements from the United States. Some negotiations also were carried on between the Spanish Captain-General Fermin Jaudenes and Admiral Dewey through the Belgian Consul in Manila, Edouard Andre, who acted as intermediary for the peaceful surrender of the Philippine Capital.⁵ Finally, the Spaniards were compelled to accept the terms of surrender. It was agreed, however, that in order to protect their military honor the Spanish forces would pretend to offer an armed resistance during the capture of Manila.⁶

After the arrival of the American troops about three months later, the Battle of Manila ensued. On August 13, 1898, the joint forces of the United States Army and Navy bombarded the outer fortifications of

⁴An excerpt from the Consular Letters containing the original report of the American Consul Oscar F. Williams to the State Department on May 4, 1898. (Unpublished materials)

⁵Charles B. Elliott, "The Philippines to the End of the Military Regime", The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis: 1916, p. 300

⁶Ibid., p. 307

Intramuros, Manila's walled city. Following a brief engagement in battle the Spaniards readily surrendered and raised a white flag ". . . on the southwest bastion of the city wall."⁷ Immediately, the American troops captured the City of Manila and for the first time hoisted the "Stars and Stripes" over the Philippines with a regimental band playing "The Star Spangled Banner," a paean of victory.⁸

The capitulation of Manila to the American Forces on August 13, 1898, ushered in the formal Occupation of the Philippines by the United States. Shortly after the fall of Manila, Spain signed a protocol suspending all hostilities with the United States. According to one of the Articles of the Peace Protocol which was concluded on August 14, 1898;

This city, its inhabitants, its churches and religious worship, its educational establishments, and its private property of all descriptions, are placed under the special safeguard of the faith and honour of the American army.⁹

Subsequent to the conquest of Manila, the Commanding General of the United States Army, Wesley Merritt, issued a proclamation on August 14, 1898, announcing to the Filipino people that ". . . a government of military occupation"¹⁰ was to be established throughout the archipelago. In his proclamation, General Merritt stipulated that

⁷James A. Leroy, "The Americans in the Philippines", Vol. 1, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston: 1914, pp. 232-37

⁸Nathan Sargent, "Admiral Dewey and the Manila Campaign", Naval Historical Foundation, Washington, D.C.: 1947, p. 86

⁹Ibid., p. 87

¹⁰W. Cameron Forbes, "The Philippine Islands", Vol. II, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston: 1928, p. 439

. . . . as long as they preserve the peace and perform their duties toward the representatives of the United States they will not be disturbed in their person and property, except in so far as may be found necessary for the good of the service of the United States and the benefit of the people of the Philippines.¹¹

Through appointment by President McKinley, General Merritt became the first Military Governor of the Philippines on August 26, 1898, and as a representative of the President of the United States, General Merritt was vested with power over all executive, legislative, and judicial functions of government. Having been delegated to attend the Peace Conference in Paris before the end of the year, General Merritt had to relinquish his new office.

It was not until December 10, 1898, that a general treaty of peace was concluded between the United States and Spain. This important document is known as the Treaty of Paris. Perhaps the most pertinent of its provisions which has relevance to the present investigation is contained in Article III, which states,

Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands.

.
The United States will pay to Spain the sum of twenty million dollars (\$20,000,000) within three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.¹²

¹¹Quoted from Section 7 of General Merritt's proclamation as recorded in "Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903", Vol. 1, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1905, pp. 386-88

¹²Excerpts from the Treaty of Paris compiled by William M. Malloy in "Treaties, Conventions, International Acts, Protocols and Agreements between the United States of America and other Powers, 1776-1909", Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1910, p. 1691

After the departure of General Merritt, President McKinley named Major-General Elwell S. Otis as the next Military Governor. Under his administration, the pacification campaigns were extended to almost all the large towns and islands of the Philippines.¹³ However, after a short term of service, he was relieved of his office and in May, 1900, he returned to the United States.

General Arthur MacArthur succeeded General Otis to the Military Governorship, while at the same time he served as Commander of the Philippine Division of the United States Army. Thus, General MacArthur assumed the official administration of the Philippines, exercising both military and civil functions of the government during the military occupation through 1901. On July 4, 1902, the military power in the Philippines was terminated pursuant to the order of the United States President Theodore Roosevelt.¹⁴

During the first years of the American Occupation, pacification campaigns were undertaken throughout the archipelago. As these, however, may be more closely related to the reasons of the military for recommending a centralized system of education in the Philippines, they will be related in Chapter III.

¹³W. Cameron Forbes, "The Philippine Islands", (revised edition), Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.: 1945, p. 41

¹⁴An excerpt from the General Order No. 67 on the Termination of the Military Government over the Philippines issued through the Adjutant General's Office, 1902. (Unpublished materials)

2. Events Leading to Centralization of Education

Opening of Schools in Manila. The first step which the United States took with respect to education was the reopening of seven schools in the City of Manila almost three weeks after the formal Occupation of the Philippine capital on August 13, 1898. Chaplain William D. McKinnon of the First California Volunteer Infantry was assigned to special detail to direct the operation of the schools established in Manila. According to Florencio P. Fresnoza, "The Army authorities began their educational work by continuing the system of instruction established by the Spaniards and adding to it the teaching of English."¹⁵

Because of a lack of sufficient buildings and equipment, early schools were generally crude. Since the teachers were untrained, instruction was probably poor. At the outset, the Filipino teachers taught in Spanish while the American soldiers who were detailed in the school taught in English. However, the American military authorities eliminated the use of Spanish as a language of instruction, as well as the use of Spanish textbooks, soon after the arrival of American teachers from the United States.

When General Otis became Military Governor, he urged the opening of more schools in the pacified areas and also issued special orders detailing a few of his officers and men to take charge of instruction

¹⁵Florencio P. Fresnoza, "Essentials of the Philippine Educational System", Abiva Publishing House, Manila: 1950, p. 38

in the public schools.¹⁶ Vincent R. Catapang testifies that ". . . by September 1, 1898, all the public schoolhouses in Manila that were not in ruins were operating to capacity."¹⁷ Because of the interest of Filipinos in education, more schools were opened subsequently. In less than a year, 39 schools were opened with an enrollment of 3,782. On June 1, 1899, Lieutenant George P. Anderson, a volunteer officer who graduated from Yale University, was appointed the first City Superintendent of Schools for Manila. By June 30, 1900, there were 24 English teachers in the schools of the City of Manila. There was an average daily attendance of 4,500 pupils.¹⁸

Establishing a School System for the Archipelago. The year 1900 marked an advance in laying the groundwork of the school system in the Philippines. Captain Albert Todd of the Sixth United States Artillery was appointed temporary head of Public Instruction for the entire archipelago. In a report to the Military Governor on August 17, 1900, Captain Todd recommended the following for the future organization of public education in the Islands:

(1) That a comprehensive modern school system for the teaching of elementary English be inaugurated at the earliest possible moment, and that attendance be made compulsory whenever practicable.

(2) That industrial schools for manual training be

¹⁶"Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903", Vol. III, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1905, p. 639

¹⁷Vincent R. Catapang, "The Development and Present Status of Education in the Philippine Islands", The Stratford Co., Boston: 1926, p. 68

¹⁸"Census of the Philippine Islands", Vol. III, op. cit., p. 640.

established as soon as fair knowledge of English has been acquired.

(3) That all of the schools under government control be conducted in the English language so far as in any way practicable, and that the use of Spanish or the dialects be only for a period of transition.

(4) That English teachers, well trained in primary instruction, be brought over from the United States in sufficient numbers to take charge of the schools of the larger towns at least.

(5) That a well-equipped normal school be established for instructing natives to become teachers of English.

(6) That in the larger towns a portion, at least, of the schoolhouses be modern structures, plainly but well and properly equipped.

(7) That the schools supported by the government be absolutely divorced from the church. If the natives desire schools in which religious instruction is to be given, that they furnish the entire support for the same from private sources, but attendance at these latter schools shall not excuse the children from attendance at the public schools where English is taught. In addition, the parochial church schools, if such are maintained, shall be required to be equal in character of general instruction to the public schools.¹⁹

Although it was quite evident from Captain Todd's recommendations that the intent of Americans was to introduce American education, the spirit of the document indicated a desire to bring about that uniformity in education which might be a prelude to centralization.

In harmony with Captain Todd's recommendation, American teachers were recruited from the United States to take charge of instruction in the rapidly increasing number of schools in the Islands. By September 1, 1901, 765 American teachers were appointed. They arrived in the Philippines on board the United States army transport Thomas; hence, the American pioneer educators to the Philippines have been referred to as

¹⁹loc. cit.

the Thomasites. According to Gregorio F. Zaide, "These Thomasites . . . carried the gospel of American democracy and civilization to all parts of the Archipelago and assisted gloriously in the building of a new Filipino nation."²⁰ By May, 1902, a total of 926 American teachers and school officials were engaged in the task of educating the peoples of the Philippines. However, as the native teachers gained competency, the American teachers were gradually withdrawn from the primary schools and were assigned either to supervisory work or to secondary school teaching.

In extolling the pioneering work of these American educators, Prescott F. Jernegan pointed out that

The experiences of the teachers in breaking virgin ground, in devising means and methods for implanting a practical knowledge of the English tongue, and organizing graded schools out of fragmentary and chaotic material available, were unique in the history of education. Too much can not be said in praise of the energy and resourcefulness with which they overcame the handicap of a strange language, or rather a medley of dialects, and broke down by patience, tact, and example, the prejudices of custom, religion, and race; establishing themselves in the confidence of all classes; and achieving a success far beyond what could have been anticipated.²¹

The efforts of the pioneer educators in the Philippines were met with various difficulties. It was not uncommon for teachers to be "obliged to conciliate the native priest or the Spanish friars, to

²⁰Zaide, op. cit., p. 626

²¹Prescott F. Jernegan, "Education Under the Americans", Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903, Vol. III, op. cit., p. 644

prod a lethargic municipal presidente [mayor] and town council into action. . . ."²² During the formative years of the school system, local cooperation and initiative apparently were not present.

Events Leading to the Organic School Law. In the meantime the United States government had made provisions for securing advice on various aspects of Philippine governance and control. Early in 1899, President McKinley appointed the First Philippine Commission known as the Schurman Commission. The object of this Commission was to examine the existing conditions in the country and to make necessary recommendations for a suitable policy of administration of the newly acquired possessions.²³ In the opinion of the Schurman Commission, ". . . the government established in the islands should promptly provide for . . . the establishment of an adequate system of secularized and free public schools."²⁴ Therefore, in its concluding report the Commission stated that "so far as the finances of the Philippines permit, public education should be promptly established and when established made free to all."²⁵

The Commission further stipulated that

. . . . the present number of primary schools should be increased as rapidly as possible until it meets the needs

²²Ibid., pp. 644-45

²³Elliott, op. cit., p. 450

²⁴"Report of the Philippine Commission to the President on January 31, 1900", Vol. I, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1900, p. 4

²⁵Ibid., p. 5

of the population.

.....
 The standards set for teachers should be gradually raised, and additional facilities should be provided for their education.

Instruction in the English language should be introduced as speedily as practicable into the primary schools.

Secondary education should be taken in hand, the course of study thoroughly revised, and a moderate number of new schools established at suitable points throughout the archipelago.²⁶

Perhaps the most significant step which the Schurman Commission took toward centralization is contained in its recommendation, to wit: "Thorough supervision of the schools of the archipelago should be provided for under a secretary or commissioner of education."²⁷

The effect of the Commission's recommendation which set forth the tone of policies indirectly influenced the course of educational events, and will be treated in Chapter III on the origins of centralization.

Second Philippine Commission. Based on the recommendations of the Schurman Commission, another Commission was created on March 4, 1900, by President McKinley, ". . . for the institution, exploitation, and promotion of civil government."²⁸ This Second Commission, more popularly known as the Taft Commission, consisted of the following members: William H. Taft, president; Luke E. Wright, Dean C. Worcester, Henry Ide,

²⁶Ibid, pp. 41-42

²⁷loc. cit.

²⁸"A Pronouncing Gazetteer and Geographical Dictionary of the Philippine Islands", Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1902, p. 148

and Barnard Moses. The Taft Commission arrived in Manila on June 3, 1900.

According to President McKinley, the task of the Second Philippine Commission was envisaged as continuing the work already begun by the military officials.²⁹ The Commission was empowered to go ahead in organizing and establishing civil government subject in all respects, however, to any Congressional legislation which might be enacted thereafter.

In the discharge of its functions, the Taft Commission was guided by the "Instructions of the President to the Second Philippine Commission" prepared by the then Secretary of War, Elihu Root, and issued by the United States President on April 7, 1900.³⁰

Among the functions of the Taft Commission which are related to the scope of the present study were: (1) to exercise legislative functions for the military government; (2) to establish the local municipal governments where the Filipinos could manage their own civil affairs to the fullest extent of which they are capable; (3) to organize the provincial civil governments and their subsidiary administrative divisions; (4) to transfer the central administration of the national government from the military to civil control whenever the Commission deemed it propitious; (5) to appoint the necessary officers in the judicial, educational, and civil service system; and (6) ". . . to promote and extend, and, as

²⁹"Report of the Philippine Commission, the Civil Governor, and the Heads of the Executive Departments of the Philippine Islands, 1900-1903", Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1904, p. 5

³⁰Zaide, op. cit., p. 572.

they find occasion, to improve, the system of education already inaugurated by the military authorities."³¹

The legislative functions of the Occupation Government were transferred to the Second Philippine Commission on September 1, 1900.

Pursuant to the order of President McKinley, the civil affairs in all pacified territories also were to be administered by the Commission president, William H. Taft.³² The Military Governor, however, remained as Chief Administrator.

The Taft Commission was empowered to enact laws necessary

. . . . for the raising of revenues by taxes, customs duties, and impost; the appropriation and expenditure of public funds of the islands; the establishment of an educational system throughout the islands; the establishment of a system to secure an efficient civil service.³³

The Organic School Law. On September 1, 1900, in line with the transfer of authority to civilian officials, Fred W. Atkinson succeeded Captain Todd as General Superintendent of Public Instruction. Upon assuming his official duties, Atkinson drafted the provisions of the first school Act which created legally the educational system in the Philippines in harmony with the recommendations of the Taft Commission.

³¹"Report of the Philippine Commission, Civil Governor,", op. cit., pp. 5-11

³²"Annual Reports of the War Department from the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1901", Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1901, p. 16

³³"Report of the Philippine Commission, Civil Governor,", op. cit., p. 6

In a subsequent report to the Secretary of War on November 30, 1900, the Second Philippine Commission reiterated that

The peculiar conditions existing here demand a centralized control of public-school system. There should be careful State supervision of all public schools. . . . In the centralized system of school organization, which is best fitted for the archipelago, the general superintendent will find the district superintendency a most efficient channel in reaching the people of these islands, and in furnishing an opportunity for learning the needs of the various parts of the archipelago.³⁴

With few modifications in Superintendent Atkinson's draft, the United States Philippine Commission enacted on January 21, 1901, Act No. 74 which became the Organic School Law of the Philippines.³⁵

Provisions of the Organic School Law. As the Organic School Law, with some amendments, remains in force today, it might be well to discuss its chief features with emphasis on its tendency toward centralization. For purposes of this study, the major provisions of the Act are classified under four categories; namely, (1) administrative organization and supervision, (2) curricula, (3) instructional program and materials, and (4) school finance.

Administrative organization and supervision. The Organic School Law, Section 1, provided for the establishment of a Department of Public

³⁴"Report of the Taft Commission to the Secretary of War on November 30, 1900", Messages from the President of the United States, Senate Document No. 112, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1901, pp. 107-08

³⁵Act No. 74, otherwise called the "Organic School Law of 1901", appears in Appendix A.

Instruction with a central office in the City of Manila. In accordance with the provision of Section 2, all schools previously established under the auspices of the Military Government were placed under the jurisdiction of and subject to the control of the Department of Public Instruction.

A General Superintendent of Public Instruction, appointed by the Philippine Commission, was the chief officer of the Department and his administrative powers and duties were classified as follows: (1) to divide the country into school divisions and to appoint a division superintendent for each of the school divisions and also a City Superintendent of Schools for Manila; (2) to exercise general supervision over the functions of the Department; (3) to determine where the English teachers (paid from the Insular Treasury) should teach; (4) to make a semi-annual report of his Department to the Military Governor and to the Philippine Commission.

The Organic School Law also created a superior Advisory Board of Education composed of the General Superintendent who acted as its president, and four members appointed by the Commission. The chief clerk of the General Superintendent served as secretary of the Board. The duties of the Advisory Board of Education were to assist the General Superintendent in ascertaining the educational needs and conditions of the Islands, and to make investigations and recommendations to the Commission on needed amendments to the Organic School Law.

One of the significant administrative provisions of the Act was the establishment in each municipality of a local school board with

membership of four or six to be determined by the division superintendent. One half of the members were to be elected by the municipal council, the other half, to be appointed by the division superintendent; and the municipal mayor was to serve as an ex-officio member. Appointed and elected members of the local school board were to hold office for two years. It was to be the duty of the local school board (1) to visit the schools within the municipality and to make a bi-monthly report to the division superintendent regarding their condition and attendance of pupils; (2) to recommend to the municipal council the sites and plans of schoolhouses to be erected; (3) to adopt rules for assigning pupils to schools where they might enroll in municipalities where two or more schools were operated; (4) to make an annual report to the municipal council as to the amount of money to be raised by local taxation for school purposes for the current year; (5) to make whatever report it should deem necessary to the General Superintendent.

Curricula. One of the General Superintendent's important functions involving the school curricula was provided for in Section 3, (d), of the Act. The General Superintendent was empowered with authority to ". . . . fix a curriculum for primary, secondary, and other public schools." ³⁶

Section 13 of the Organic School Law provided for the adoption of the English language as the medium of instruction in all public schools

³⁶ An excerpt from the Organic School Law, Section 3, (d), on the duties of the General Superintendent. (See Appendix A)

in the Islands. The Law further authorized the General Superintendent to obtain one thousand trained English teachers from the United States. The soldiers who were detailed as instructors were to be kept in service, however, until they were replaced by trained teachers.

The Act further stipulated that it should be the duty of the Division Superintendent to see that the curriculum for the primary and secondary schools prescribed by the General Superintendent of Public Instruction was complied with.

Instructional program and materials. Section 3 of the Organic School Law provided that two of the duties of the General Superintendent were to establish schools in each municipality and to reorganize those already in operation where reorganization was necessary. The General Superintendent was also enjoined to prescribe plans for the construction of schoolhouses and also to formulate rules of hygiene for all the schools in the Islands.

The Act also made provisions for the establishment and maintenance in the City of Manila of a normal school and a trade school, and of an agricultural school in the Island of Negros. The rules and plans for the conduct and organization of said schools were to be determined by the General Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Under the provisions of Section 9 of Act No. 74, the Division Superintendent was enjoined to familiarize himself with needs for supplies and textbooks in each school in his division, and to make report of the same in order that they might be furnished by the General Superintendent.

Perhaps one of the most important provisions of the Organic School Law is contained in Section 16 which stipulated that

"No teacher or other person shall teach or criticize the doctrine of any church, religious sect, or denomination, or shall attempt to influence the pupils for or against any church or religious sect in any public school established under this Act."³⁷

School Finance. The financial provisions of the Organic School Law were as follows: (1) The General Superintendent was to fix the salaries of the division superintendents, principals, and classroom teachers. (2) It also fell within his jurisdiction to make contracts for the purchase of school supplies. (3) It was the General Superintendent's duty to examine and approve all requisitions for funds made by the division superintendents, and to forward the same to the Chief Executive for submission to the Commission.

Under the provision of Section 21 of the Act, the General Superintendent of Public Instruction was directed to prepare and submit to the Philippine Commission through the Military Governor a statement of the estimated costs of textbooks and school supplies for the year 1901, the total amount of which should not exceed \$220,000.00.

Thus, within four months (September to January) of the transference of the government of the Philippines from Military to Civil Authority, and within less than three years (August 13, 1898, to January 21, 1901), the basis of a centralized system of education in the Philippines had been established with some provisions for local administration of schools.

³⁷Organic School Law, Section 16. (See Appendix A)

In general, responsibility for appointment of local school officials, administration and organization of schools, development of curricula, instituting school programs and approving materials, and securing finances were put in the hands of a general superintendent appointed by and responsible to the Philippine Commission. Only two aspects of the system established by the Organic School Law appeared to bear in them the seeds of localism. There were provisions for local school boards and for encouraging local financing of education.

CHAPTER III

ORIGINS OF A CENTRALIZED SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

1. Diversity of the People and the Land

Present day Philippine commentators and historians are occasionally embittered by the descriptions of the Filipinos as a variegated or tribal people. According to Zaide

The term "tribe" has been used by misinformed writers, especially those unscrupulous foreign critics of the Filipino people, in a very loose and unscientific way to give an erroneous impression that the Philippines is a land of denationalized tribes. . . . The Filipinos are a nation bound together by ties of common origin, common history, common traditions, and common aspirations. They may be Tagalogs, Visayans, Ilocanos, Bicolis, Cagayans (Ibanags), Pampangos, Moros, Igorots, or Kalingas; but above all things they consider themselves as Filipinos in the same way that the Californians, Texans, Virginians, or New Yorkers think of themselves as Americans.¹

Zaide's point of view is re-enforced in more mild fashion by two writers of 1930. Dean C. Worcester and Joseph Ralston Hayden state that

The loose use of the word "tribe" in designating these peoples is liable to lead to very grave misapprehension. Their leaders vigorously, and very properly, object to the idea that they have at present anything resembling a tribal organization. The truth is that they are descendants of originally distinct tribes or peoples which have gradually come to resemble each other more and more, and to have more and more in common.²

¹Zaide, op. cit., pp. 31, 32

²Dean C. Worcester and Joseph Ralston Hayden, "The Philippines Past and Present", The Macmillan Company, New York: 1930, p. 669

However, both Zaide and Worcester and Hayden point out the diversity of the peoples, particularly in their origins. Zaide calls them a "race of races," having in their make-up ". . . . infiltrations of Negrito, Indonesians, Hindu, Chinese, Japanese, Arabic, Americans, and European bloods."³

That there are opinions supporting present-day diversity is readily attested to by statements of George A. Malcolm in a 1951 publication. He recognizes the Filipino as being Malayan by lineage, but as being a blend, much as is an American, of many races.⁴ but he contends that racial and social differences between the major ethnographic groups are readily discernible, and that "group and provincial loyalty is evident."⁵ As late as 1942, Hayden is still calling attention to the diversity of tongues and lack of a common language, which retard the development of national and democratic institutions.⁶

Point of View of the First Philippine Commission

Races and Languages. Whatever may be the justifiability of the several points of view of modern writers, it is quite evident that the early advisers to American policy-makers were convinced that the Filipinos were indeed a people of many origins. No more striking evidence

³Zaide, op. cit., p. 21

⁴George A. Malcolm, "First Malayan Republic: The Story of the Philippines", The Christopher Publishing House, Boston: 1951, p. 47

⁵loc. cit.

⁶Hayden, op. cit., p. 18

of this can be found than in the following statement from the report to the United States president of the First Philippine Commission (1899):

The most striking and perhaps the most significant fact in the entire situation is the multiplicity of tribes inhabiting the archipelago, the diversity of their languages (which are mutually unintelligible), and the multifarious phases of civilization--ranging all the way from the highest to the lowest--exhibited by the natives of the several provinces and islands. . . . The Filipinos are not a nation, but a variegated assemblage of different tribes and peoples, and their loyalty is still of the tribal type.⁷

The Commission took occasion to remark, furthermore, that the inhabitants belonged to ". . . sharply distinct races--the Negrito race, the Indonesian race, and the Malayan race."⁸

In the fourth conclusion reached by the Commission, there will be found an introductory statement influencing the conclusion, which indicates that in the opinion of the Commission members, there was no Philippine nation at the time of the occupation, but rather a collection of different peoples among whom there was ". . . no general public opinion. . . ."⁹

A Suggested Centralization of Education. It was not the purpose of the First Philippine Commission to provide other than a general inquiry into existing social and economic circumstances. Nevertheless, the work of the Second Philippine Commission which put into effect the Organic School Law was affected by the report of the First Philippine Commission;

⁷"Report of the Philippine Commission to the President. . . .", op. cit., pp. 181-82

⁸Ibid., p. 11

⁹Ibid., p. 121

and, furthermore, the latter did make statements incident to education which cannot be assumed to be other than suggesting a centralized educational system.

The First Philippine Commission assumed that despite obvious virtues of the people, the Filipinos were quite incapable (in 1899) of undertaking to govern themselves, and this assumption was premised on the Filipinos' ". . . . lack of education and political experience, combined with their racial and linguistic diversities."10

Although this is not a direct reference to centralization, there are two concomitant statements which support a leaning toward a centralized system of education under American direction. One was the recommendation of the Schurman Commission quoted in Chapter II, page 18. The other was the statement that "As education advances and experience ripens, the natives may be entrusted with a larger and more independent share of government."11 This last follows the statement previously quoted regarding the diversity of the peoples.

It seems reasonable to reconstruct the statement of the Commission to read that diversity and inexperience demanded the setting up of centralized controls under American guidance, both in government and education; and as the people were ready, government and education facilities would be turned over to their control.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 183

¹¹Loc. cit.

Diversity of the People

Regardless of what judgments might now be made about the wisdom of the recommendations of the First Philippine Commission, the materials immediately available after the Occupation, and those gathered since appear to confirm the conclusions regarding diversity of origins of the peoples.

The First American Census

The first census of the Philippines under the American regime was dated 1903. It contained a table listing the tribes of the Philippines as numbering 24 among which were 16 listed as those of the so-called wild peoples. (See Table 1 on page 33.) The members of the 8 civilized tribes were 91 percent of the population whereas the wild tribes were only 9 percent. The three most important groups appeared to be the Tagalogs, the Visayans, and the Ilocanos, the Visayans being by far the most numerous and constituting 42.6 percent of the population.

Before and since the census, it has been customary to group the tribes so as to imply three main origins; namely, (1) Negritos, (2) Indonesians, and (3) Malays.

The Negritos. Philippine anthropologists and ethnologists theorized that the Negritos were the aborigines of the country whose pre-historic origin has remained obscure. Because of their pygmy stature and black skin color, the name Negritos, meaning small Negros, was given by the Spaniards to these uncivilized and indigenous inhabitants of the Islands. They have black kinky hair, small flat noses, and large brown eyes, and they usually do not exceed five feet in height.

TABLE 1. CLASSIFICATION OF PHILIPPINE POPULATION BY TRIBES ACCORDING
TO THE CENSUS OF 1903¹²

T r i b e s	Number	Percentage
Visayans	3,219,030	42.6
Tagalogs	1,460,695	19.3
Ilocanos	803,942	10.6
Bicols	566,365	7.5
Pangasinan	343,686	4.5
Pampangan	280,984	3.7
Moro*	277,547	3.7
Igorot*	211,520	2.8
Cagayan	159,648	2.1
Bukidnon*	56,189	0.7
Zambalan	48,823	0.6
Subanos*	25,768	0.3
Negrito*	23,511	0.3
Mandaya*	21,642	0.3
Manobo*	20,635	0.3
Bagobo*	12,149	0.2
Hangyan*	7,269	0.1
Bilan*	6,756	0.1
Tagbanua*	4,696	0.1
Tiruray*	3,993	0.1
Ilongot*	3,601	
Ata*	2,941	
Tagabili*	900	
Balak*	586	

NOTE: Names followed by asterisk (*) indicate wild or non-Christian tribes.

¹²Adapted from the list published in the "Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903", Vol. II, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1905, p. 46

C. H. Forbes-Lindsay argues that although the Negritos were not originally hillmen, the advance of civilization forced them into the fastnesses of the mountains.¹³ Consequently, they had to lead nomadic lives and roam in the mountain hinterlands. Their only weapon was the bow and arrow. They lived by hunting and gathering wild forest products for food. Since they had no homes, their shelter usually consisted of temporary lean-to made of sticks, tree-leaves, and grasses. Generally, they had no clothing except a gee-string and sometimes barks and leaves of trees. According to H. Otley Beyer, the Negritos probably approach the most primitive group of people on earth.¹⁴

In the census of 1903, David P. Barrows reported that the Negritos were not without religious belief; ". . . . their principal diety is the moon. They are very shy and distrustful; and all efforts to civilize them have apparently failed."¹⁵

The Philippine Commission, in its report to the president of the United States, stated that the Negritos constituted a disappearing race. The Commission further asserted that ". . . . not more than 25,000 of them exist and the race seems doomed to early extinction."¹⁶

¹³C. H. Forbes-Lindsay, "The Philippines", The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia: 1906, p. 77

¹⁴H. Otley Beyer, "The Non-Christian Peoples of the Philippines", Census of the Philippine Islands: 1918, Vol. II, Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1921, p. 910-11

¹⁵David P. Barrows, "Characteristics of the Non-Christian Tribes", Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903, Vol. I, op. cit., p. 532

¹⁶"Report of the Philippine Commission. . . .", Vol. I, op. cit., p. 11

The Indonesians. The first known sea-immigrants to have come to the Philippines were the Indonesians or island Indians. In physical features the Indonesians showed traces of Mongoloid and Caucasian affinities. They were perhaps among the tallest inhabitants of the Islands. Eufonio M. Alip points out that

The Indonesians were differentiated from other racial groups primarily because of their high stature and strong build, the average height being five feet and seven inches, while the highest reaching the mark of six feet and two inches.¹⁷

Successive migrations brought into the country apparently two distinct types of Indonesians differing from each other in physical characteristics. The first group were of slender body, deep-set eyes, sharp thin face, high aquiline nose, thin lips, broad forehead, and a rather light skin color. The second type were of thick-set body, large rectangular face, large round eyes, flaring nose, thick lips, and a relatively dark complexion.¹⁸

The Indonesians were semi-civilized peoples with a somewhat more advanced culture--although still primitive--than had their pygmy predecessors. They lived in permanent settlements and in houses built either directly on the ground or on top of trees. They had a crude form of dry agriculture known as kaingin, and they supplemented their source of food by hunting, trapping, fishing, and gathering wild fruits. Since pottery was unknown to them, they cooked their food in bamboo tubes and

¹⁷Eufonio M. Alip, "Philippine Civilization", University of Santo Tomas Press, Manila: 1936, p. 15

¹⁸Beyer, op. cit., p. 918

on pieces of bark. Fire was made by rubbing two pieces of dry bamboo together. The Indonesians wore beaten barks of trees for clothing. They tattooed their bodies and also used ornaments of scented flowers and shells.¹⁹

Apparently, the Indonesians possessed better implements of war than did the Negritos. Their weapons consisted of blowguns and knives in addition to the bow and arrow.²⁰ Because of their slightly advanced culture, the Indonesians settled in the lowlands and coastal regions and drove the Negritos into the interior of the Islands. Evidences seem to indicate that the intermarriage of Indonesians with the pygmies and later with the Malays resulted in consequent inter-racial blending. As Felix M. Keesing points out, "The Indonesians have thus left a strong imprint on the modern Philippine people, both physically and culturally."²¹

The Malays. The Malays constituted the second major group of sea-immigrants to settle in the Philippines. Inocencio B. Maddela asserts in his article on "Traces of Philippine Culture" that the Malays were ". . . the most determinative of all races to come to our shores in remote ages."²² The Malays are believed to have originated from southeastern Asia and to have come to the archipelago in three major waves of

¹⁹ Ibid., pp. 918-19

²⁰ Zaide, op. cit., p. 25

²¹ Felix M. Keesing, "The Philippines: A Nation in the Making", Kelly and Walsh, Limited, Shanghai: 1937, p. 16

²² Inocencio B. Maddela, "Traces of Philippine Culture", The Sunday Times Magazine (Manila), 8: 10, January 4, 1953

migration. Of these Malay migrations, Zeide gives the following account:

The first wave of Malay immigrants came about 200 B.C. These immigrants were the head-hunting Malays--ancestors of the present Igorots, Ifugaos, Bontocs, and Tinggians of northern Luzon.

The second wave came after the Christian era, beginning about the first century A.D. and continuing through succeeding centuries until the 13th century. This migratory wave saw the advent of the alphabet-using Malays--ancestors of the present Tagalogs, Visayans, Bicolis, Ilocanos, Pampangos, and other Christian Filipinos.

And the third wave came about the end of the 14th century A.D., continuing until the 15th century. In this migratory wave came the Mohammedan Malays, accompanied by Arab princes and missionaries, and they became the ancestors of the present Moros (Mohammedan Filipinos) of Mindanao and Sulu.²³

Based on their cultural backgrounds, the Malay inhabitants of the Philippines are classified by Deyer in two main divisions: namely, the Pagan and the Mohammedan Malays. The Pagan Malays constitute four semi-civilized culture groups and are found in the mountain regions of northern Luzon; while the Mohammedan Malays consisting of at least seven ethnic groups live almost exclusively in the southern islands.²⁴

In his report on "The History of Philippine Civilization" published in the Anthropological Papers of the American Museum of Natural History, Alfred L. Kroeber supports a similar theory that the Malays were of two distinct types: (1) the Malays corresponding to the "Igorot" racial stocks of the Mountain Provinces of Luzon, and (2) the Mohammedan or

²³Zeide, op. cit., pp. 27-28.

²⁴Deyer, op. cit., pp. 930-38.

Moro groups of Mindanao and Sulu Archipelago.²⁵

In contrast to the Negritos and the Indonesians, the Malays belong distinctly to the brown race. Their stature appears to be an intermediate between that of the Indonesians and that of the Negritos. They have well-built symmetrical bodies, straight black hair, scanty beards, flat noses, and dark brown eyes. The Malays also are believed to have possessed a higher order of intelligence and a more highly developed culture than did their Negrito and Indonesian predecessors. Their contacts with India, China, Arabia and other civilized countries of Asia greatly enriched their cultural backgrounds.²⁶ David Bernstein further asserts that the Malays were

. . . . the ancestors of the civilized Filipino of today. They had some concept of government, religion, culture. They wore clothes, lived in houses, had a written language, made a heady wine, and enjoyed music. They had brought with them some of the Hindu influences from India.²⁷

Available relics of the early Malay civilization give evidence of its superior weapons which consisted of lances, daggers, spears, swords, shields, and lantakas or bronze cannon in addition to what its predecessors had. The Malayan civilization organized a system of building strongholds and forts, and had a knowledge of the tactics of naval combat.

²⁵ Alfred L. Kroeber, "The History of Philippine Civilization as Reflected in Religious Nomenclature", Anthropological Papers of the American Museum of Natural History, Vol. XIX, Part II, Published by Order of the Trustees, New York: 1918, p. 57

²⁶ David P. Barrows, "A History of the Philippines", World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: 1914, pp. 31-40

²⁷ David Bernstein, "The Philippine Story", Farrar, Straus and Company, New York: 1947, pp. 28-29

Buttressed by their dominant culture patterns and sustained by superior implements of war, the Malays infiltrated throughout the archipelago and wrested the possessions of the lowland areas from the Indonesians, driving the latter into the frontiers. As a result of these movements, the Indonesians in turn forced the Negritos farther into the remotest sections of the mountains.²⁸

Centuries of tribal warfare as well as intermarriage brought about an inevitable racial admixture. The contacts of the Malays with the Indonesians, and possibly with the Negrito groups, may have resulted in the absorption of the latter's racial stock, and in the assimilation of their inherent culture into the whole matrix of Malay civilization. Thus, the great majority of the Islands' constituency are apparently of Malay extraction and culture. Malcolm further concludes that "The Malays now represent the greater portion of the racial stock in the Philippines."²⁹

The Birth of the Filipino People. The ethnological blending of the Malays with the preceding immigrants and the subsequent blood-infiltration of the Asiatic, European, and American peoples produced a new hybrid or composite race collectively known today as the Filipinos. Evidences tend to indicate that the term Filipinos was given by the Spaniards to the inhabitants of the archipelago which was re-named Las Islas Filipinas in honor of King Felipe II of Spain in 1543.

²⁸Alip, op. cit., p. 16.

²⁹Malcolm, op. cit., p. 35.

Typically, the Filipinos are characterized by a sturdy physique, an average height of five feet and four inches, straight black hair, dark brown eyes, and a light brown complexion. According to Bernstein's description, "Fundamentally, the individual Filipino is simply a human being who happened to be born in the Philippines, usually with a cafe-au-lait complexion and high Malay cheekbones."³⁰

The annals of race mixture in the Philippines seem to date back many centuries, far into pre-historic times. Forbes asserts that there must have been a continued infusion of Mongolian blood as well as of other Asiatic and Polynesian peoples.³¹ And according to Keesing,

In the subsequent centuries, mixing has continued among all peoples of the Philippines. The distinction between the pygmy, Indonesian, Malayan, and the minor strains of Hindu, Arab, and early Chinese have become increasingly blurred. Furthermore, there has been a constant infusion of new blood into the Filipino racial melange.³²

Consequently, as reported by the Philippine Commission, the Filipino race ". . . . is not found pure in any of the islands, but is everywhere more or less modified through intermarriage with Chinese, Indonesians, Negritos, Arabs, and, to a limited extent, Spaniards and other Europeans."³³ As a result of this racial admixture, the Filipinos are mestizos or half-breeds of heterogeneous descent, although,

³⁰Bernstein, op. cit., p. 24.

³¹W. Cameron Forbes, "The Philippine Islands", (rev. ed.), op. cit., p. 9

³²Keesing, op. cit., p. 20.

³³"Report of the Philippine Commission. . . .", Vol. I, op. cit., p.12.

basically, they have maintained a predominant Malay strain. Hence, they are generally classified as belonging to the brown race which constitutes the bulk of the present population. Herbert W. Krieger points out that

The influence of the Spanish physical type is almost everywhere apparent. The Spanish were in possession of the most populous and the richest territory for more than 300 years, and through their intermarriage with native women, an appreciable segment of Christian population reveals traces of Spanish blood.³⁴

In a more or less conclusive observation, Hayden makes the following significant statements:

The effect which this infusion of foreign blood may have upon the development of the Philippine nation is difficult to appraise. (However), there is scarcely room for doubt that the infusion has improved the quality of the native stock.

.
Certainly the infusion through the centuries of blood from two of the world's great peoples has helped to produce in the Philippines the progressive, virile race.³⁵

The percentage distribution of the Philippine racial ancestry, based on Beyer's classification which was derived from the 1918 census of the Philippines and revised in 1942, is shown in Table 2, page 42.

That the Filipinos had some degree of civilization prior to the advent of any white men on Philippine soil is evidenced by a few remaining fragments of archaeological and historical data. This assumption is supported by the report of the Philippine Commission on "The Native

³⁴Herbert W. Krieger, "Peoples of the Philippines", War Background Series, The Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C.: 1942, p. 23

³⁵Hayden, op. cit., pp. 26-29.

TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF PHILIPPINE RACIAL ANCESTRY³⁶

Peoples Constituting Philippine Ancestry	Estimated Percent of Distribution
Negritos and Proto-Malays	10
Indonesians	30
Malays	40
Chinese	10
Hindus	5
Europeans and Americans	3
Arabs	2
T o t a l	100

Peoples of the Philippines," which asserts that "The majority of the inhabitants of the Philippines, then, are possessed of a considerable degree of civilization."³⁷ Filipino civilization traces its foundation and source from the enriched Malayan culture. As Charles E. Russell avers in The Outlook for the Philippines,

They were, in fact, inheritors of two great cultural infiltrations upon what culture the Malays had possessed two thousand years before; because on one side was the

³⁶This Table was derived from the footnote data which appear in Malcolm's "First Malayan Republic. . . .", op. cit., p. 34.

³⁷"Report of the Philippine Commission. . . .", op. cit., p. 16.

influence of the Hindoos, and on the other the civilization of the Chinese. . . .³⁸

Based on these cultural foundations, Maddela concludes that the Malays possessed an advanced culture which ". . . . served as the substratum from which Filipinos of today began their career."³⁹

From the beginning of the dispersal of these various ethnic groups throughout the entire archipelago, an accretion of cultural influences may be readily observed. The inhabitants of the Philippines possessed a civilization typically oriental and enriched by the impact of Hindu, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabian culture. These influences were also re-enforced by European civilization after the coming of the Spaniards in the middle of the sixteenth century.

Despite the various blendings of the Filipino people and any possible effects of these blendings, there remained in the Philippines a variety of languages and dialects corresponding to each tribe (as shown in Table 1, page 33). Although in most of the tribes a single language or dialect is spoken the Visayans speak the following dialects: Cebuan, Ilonggo, Cuyono, and Samareño; a few of the lesser tribes are not classified in Table 1, but each speaks its respective tongue. Based on the findings of leading Philippine ethnologists, Hayden's conclusions reveal that there are ". . . . no less than forty-three distinct

³⁸Charles E. Russell, "The Outlook for the Philippines", The Century Company, New York: 1922, p. 27

³⁹Maddela, op. cit., p. 10.

ethnographic groups, speaking eighty-seven languages and dialects, as existing in the Archipelago."⁴⁰

Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that Americans who came into the Philippines at the beginning of the American Occupation were struck by the diversity of the people, their varying degrees of civilization, the disunifying effect of many languages; and that these factors influenced them in introducing a unifying social medium through a system of centralized education. In different words, this view is supported by Paul Monroe, Chairman of the Board of Educational Survey in 1925, who stated that

. . . . the lack of local governments capable of controlling schools and with a lack of social experience on the part of the Filipino people which would have made local control feasible, resulted in the development of a highly centralized administration.⁴¹

Factors of Land Diversity

Another factor which must have influenced the Americans in consideration of the problem of centralization of education in the Philippines must have been the diversity of land comprising the archipelago. A brief description of the geographical divisions of the Philippines in the following section will point clearly to the factors supporting land diversity.

It must have been clear to the Americans, therefore, that topography was a critical factor in overcoming the isolation of peoples throughout

⁴⁰Hayden, op. cit., p. 11.

⁴¹Paul Monroe, "A Survey of the Educational System of the Philippine Islands", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1925, p. 522

the numerous islands, and undoubtedly influenced their intentions to introduce into the Philippines some common social medium such as education.

Geographical Circumstances. The Philippines are an archipelago of tropical islands clustered on the southwestern fringes of the Pacific between $4^{\circ} 40'$ and $21^{\circ} 10'$ latitudes above the equator and extending from $116^{\circ} 40'$ to $126^{\circ} 34'$ longitudes east of Greenwich line.⁴² The Philippines are bounded on the north by Formosa, on the south by Indonesia, on the east by the Pacific Ocean, and on the west by the South China Sea. Approximately 7,100 islands and islets, of which 1,095 are large enough to be inhabited, comprise the whole archipelago.⁴³ According to the 1939 surveys, the land area of the Philippines is 115,600 square miles.⁴⁴

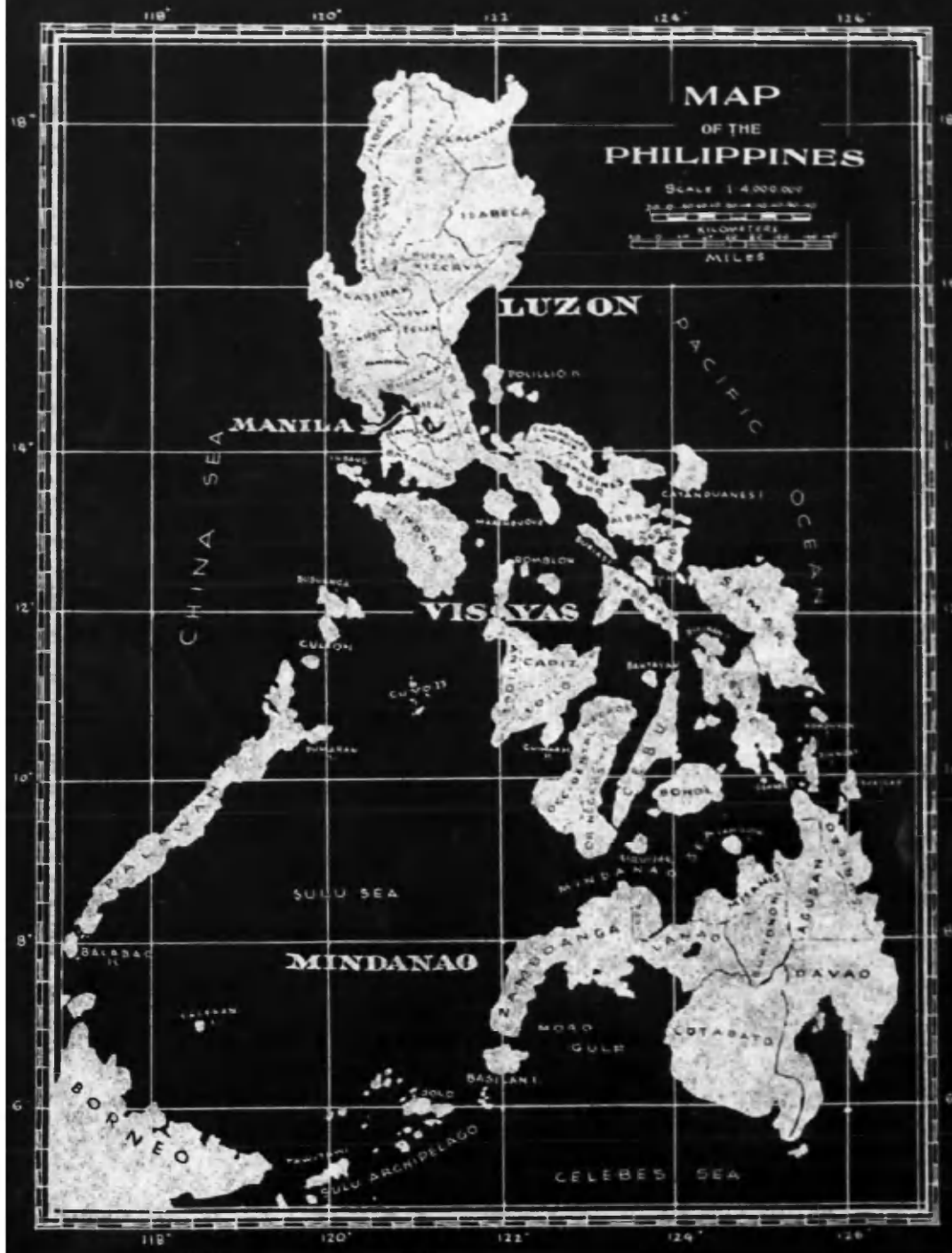
Geographically, the Philippines are divided into three main groups of islands running roughly from north to south and stretching to more than 1,100 miles lengthwise as may be seen on the map on page 46. Luzon, the largest island with an area of about 40,420 square miles, lies on the north; Mindanao, the island next in size with 36,537 square miles of land area, is located on the extreme south; and the fragmented

⁴² An excerpt from "A Pronouncing Gazetteer and Geographical Dictionary of the Philippine Islands", op. cit., p. 3.

⁴³ Zaide, op. cit., p. 4.

⁴⁴ "Census Atlas of the Philippines: 1939", Vol. V, Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1940, p. 11

The Philippines



islands of the Visayas occupy the central sector of the triangular-shaped archipelago.⁴⁵

The geomorphic features of the Philippines are characterized by extensive inland and coastal plains, highland plateaus, and rugged and mountainous terrain which are typical of volcanic island topography. The irregular coastline is said to extend to some 10,850 statute miles. Most of the large islands are traversed by mountain ranges covered with tropic vegetation and containing various mineral resources. The soil is generally fertile, with about 63 per cent of the land suitable for cultivation.⁴⁶ A considerable amount of deep alluvial and cultivable basins are found in the alternating valleys and plains.

In his book, Philippine Uncertainty, Harry B. Hawes classifies the vegetative areas of the Islands as shown in Table 3 on page 48. Of the 73 million acres of land area, only 12.5 per cent were under actual cultivation in 1932. With 18.9 per cent grass and open land and 4.2 per cent unexplored land, the land gives promise of a tremendous possibility for further land development and cultivation.

Daniel R. Williams affirms that "In agricultural, mineral, and forest wealth, as also in strategic trade location, the Philippines have been pronounced by experts to be the richest and most favoured group of

⁴⁵An extract from an article on "Philippine Republic", Time Magazine (Chicago), 58:32, November 26, 1951

⁴⁶"Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903", Vol. I, op. cit., pp. 51-52.

TABLE 3. CLASSIFICATION OF THE VEGETATIVE AREAS IN THE PHILIPPINES⁴⁷

Type of Vegetation	Acres	Percent of Total Area
Commercial Forest	39,352,162	53.7
Non-Commercial Forest	7,201,353	9.8
Cultivated Land	9,174,380	12.5
Grass and Open Land	13,834,157	18.9
Mangrove Swamp	669,325	.9
Unexplored	3,034,747	4.2
T o t a l	73,216,124	100.0

tropical islands in the world."⁴⁸ According to the estimate of Hamilton M. Wright, approximately two-thirds of the total land area is still forested with unnumbered varieties of trees and plants of commercial and medicinal value.⁴⁹ Its flora and fauna rank among the richest in the Pacific island regions.

⁴⁷ Adapted from the Table published in "Philippine Uncertainty" by Harry B. Hawes, The Century Company, New York: 1932, p. 67

⁴⁸ Daniel R. Williams, "The United States and the Philippines", Doubleday, Page and Company, New York: 1924, p. 46

⁴⁹ Hamilton M. Wright, "A Handbook of the Philippines", A. C. McClurg and Company, Chicago: 1909, p. 12

The Philippines are wholly within the tropic zone. Naturally, the climate of the Islands is predominantly tropical, although considerable climatic differences exist in various localities corresponding to their elevation. In the lowlands, a tropical marine climate prevails; whereas, a milder tropical weather generally prevails in the highland regions. High temperature and humidity are salient factors of the Islands' climatology. Typical of the Philippines are the annual mean temperature of 81.4° and humidity of 73.9 per cent as recorded in the Manila area in 1950.⁵⁰

By and large, two distinct seasons exist in the Philippines: the wet and the dry. July to September are the wettest months of the year; April and May, the driest. However, an intermediate climate prevails which is characterized by no pronounced wet or dry season. During this period, the days are sunny with occasional refreshing showers, and the nights are clear and cool. Usually, this most delightful season of the year extends from November to February.⁵¹

A unique feature of Philippine climate is the recurrence of destructive typhoons accompanied by hurricane winds, torrential rains, and lowland floods which cause havoc to life, property, and crops, thereby seriously affecting the economic life of the people. Annual precipitation

⁵⁰ An excerpt from "The Philippine Yearbook, 1951-1952", Published by the Herald-DMHM Newspapers, Manila: 1952, p. 170

⁵¹ "The Philippines 1950: A Handbook of Trade and Economic Facts and Figures", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1950, p. 70

ranges from 80 to 100 inches in the southern islands, and 100 to 250 inches in the northern and central areas of the archipelago.⁵²

The foregoing description of the far-flung islands of the archipelago and their attendant climatic and geographical differences, shows that the factors of land diversity which separate the peoples of the islands from one another must have convinced American policy-makers of the propriety of adopting a highly centralized administrative school system for the country.

2. Spanish Influence on the Centralized School System

It will be remembered that one of the first acts of the Americans shortly after the formal Occupation of Manila was to reopen the schools which were in operation during the Spanish regime. At this point, the relationship between the Spanish system of education and the consequent American school system becomes somewhat nebulous. It appears logical to assume, however, in the light of subsequent events, that the existence of a Spanish centralized system of education may have influenced, to some extent at least, the establishment of an American-sponsored system of education based on centralization.

Introduction of Formal Education

The advent of Spanish civilization during the latter half of the sixteenth century brought about a new era in the history of education

⁵²Thomas A. Blair, "Climatology: General and Regional", Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York: 1942, pp. 318-19

in the Philippines. Contemporaneous with the conquest of the archipelago, the Spaniards introduced education in conjunction with the propagation of Christianity. To the Spanish missionaries, particularly, belongs the credit of establishing a formal type of education in the country. As Catapang points out, "This was the beginning of the introduction of Western education and the first impulse toward a real educational development of the Philippines."⁵³

Aims of the Spanish Education

Fundamentally, education during the Spanish regime was transcendental and religious. Encarnacion Alzona affirms that the main function of education ". . . . was naturally the dissemination of Christian ideas."⁵⁴ Its aim was the training of students not for this world but for heaven. As Antonio Isidro states in his book, The Philippine Educational System, "All the schools established during the Spanish regime had religious instruction as the supreme goal."⁵⁵ Based on this concept, education logically became one of the chief concerns of the Church; and at the time of their arrival in 1565, the Spaniards set up an educational system wholly under the control and supervision of the Roman Catholic Church.

⁵³ Catapang, op. cit., p. 20.

⁵⁴ Encarnacion Alzona, "A History of Education in the Philippines", University of the Philippines Press, Manila: 1932, p. 23

⁵⁵ Antonio Isidro, "The Philippine Educational System", Bookman, Inc., Manila: 1949, p. 3

It is difficult to assess the effect of the Spanish educational system on the Filipino people except in terms of religious affiliation; a 1939 survey indicated that 78.8 percent of the population were adherents of the Catholic faith. (See Table 4 on page 53.) As one of the chief aims of education during the Spanish regime was to Christianize the natives, the religious statistic is one measure of the effectiveness of the Spanish educational system.

Organization of Schools Under Spain

The parochial schools. The parochial schools were essentially the first elementary institutions in the Philippines. They were operated by the friars for the main purpose of teaching the natives, children and adults, Christian doctrines and the rudiments of education. The course of study, which was partly academic and partly vocational, consisted of catechism, sacred music, reading, writing, arithmetic, good manners and right conduct, in addition to various arts and trades. Memorization was the principal method of instruction. The dialect of the locality was used as the medium of instruction, although Spanish was taught to brilliant and advanced students.⁵⁶ Classes were generally ungraded and attendance was not compulsory.

The secondary schools. In addition to the elementary level of education, the secondary schools were also organized primarily for the training of the sons of Spanish conquistadores "for the service of the

⁵⁶John Foreman, "The Philippine Islands", Charles Scribner's Sons, New York: 1899, pp. 30-31

TABLE 4. PHILIPPINE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RELIGION⁵⁷

Religions	No. of Adherents	Percent of Distribution According to Religion
Roman Catholics (Christians)	12,603,365	78.8
Aglipayans or Philippine Independent Church (Christians)	1,573,608	9.8
Protestants (Christians) ^a	378,361	2.4
Moslems	677,903	4.2
Buddhists	47,852	0.3
Shintoists	13,681	0.1
Others ^b	67,157	0.4
Pagans and Persons not be- longing and not reporting religious affiliation	638,376	4.0
T o t a l	16,000,303	100.0

^aThe Protestants include Methodists, Episcopalians, Baptists, Disciples of Christ, Seventh-day Adventists, Christian Missionary Alliance, Philippine Methodists, etc.

^bIn this group are included the Jewish, Greek Orthodox, Confucianists, and Brahmans.

⁵⁷This Table was derived from the report of the Commission of the census, published in the "Census of the Philippines: 1939", Vol. II, Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1940, p. 384

King and the Church." As Paul Monroe observed, "The motives which led the Spaniards to establish secondary and high schools in the Philippines were the education of their own sons and training for the priesthood."⁵⁸ Evergisto Bazaco asserts that the two-fold aim of the college-seminary (or secondary education) was the preparation for an academic career and for the priesthood.⁵⁹

A significant feature of the secondary school system introduced by the Spaniards in the Philippines was its similarity to the European pattern. The whole course consisted of a five-year program of classical study based on the trivium and quadrivium. For all courses of the secondary five-year offerings see Table 5, page 55. Spanish was used exclusively as the medium of instruction; and memorization, the chief method of teaching.

The Educational Decree of 1863. While an appreciable degree of educational development had been attained under the early Spanish regime, it was not until 1863 that a public school system was established. On December 30, 1863, an Educational Decree was issued by the Minister of the Colonies, Jose de la Concha, in the name of the Queen Regent of Spain. The Decree provided for the organization of a complete system of public education in the Philippines, the supervision and support of the primary schools by the Central Government, and the establishment of

⁵⁸Paul Monroe, (ed.), "A Cyclopedia of Education", Vol. IV, The Macmillan Company, New York: 1913, p. 675

⁵⁹Evergisto Bazaco, "History of Education in the Philippines", University of Sto. Tomas Press, Manila: 1939, p. 125

TABLE 5. SECONDARY COURSE OF STUDY DURING THE SPANISH REGIME⁶⁰

GRADES	SUBJECTS
First Year:	Christian Doctrine Sacred History Latin and Spanish Grammar
Second Year:	Christian Morality Descriptive Geography Latin and Spanish Grammar
Third Year:	Universal History History of Spain Rudiments of Greek Arithmetic and Algebra Latin Analysis and Translation
Fourth Year:	Spanish and Latin Composition Rhetoric and Poetry Social Ethics Geometry and Rectilinear Trigonometry
Fifth Year:	Psychology Moral Philosophy Logic Physics and Chemistry Natural History French or English

teacher-training institutions. That ". . . . in all the towns of the archipelago schools of primary elementary instruction for boys and girls." be established was further stipulated in the Decree.⁶¹

⁶⁰ Adapted from the lists of subjects published in the report of "Education Under Spain" by Tomas G. del Rosario which appeared in the Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903, Vol. III, op. cit., p. 600.

⁶¹ Ibid., pp. 578-79

Prior to 1863, no government administrative organization of schools existed inasmuch as all schools were run privately by the different religious orders. Based on the provisions of the Educational Decree, two councils were organized to take charge of the school functions; namely, the Junta de Gobierno and the Junta Administradora del Material de Escuelas. The first Council was in charge of the central administrative and supervisory functions of the schools, while the second was concerned with the financial affairs of the system.⁶² Obviously, then, beginning in 1863 a highly centralized system of education in the Philippines was established by the Spaniards.

Contemporaneous with the increasing number of schools, which in 1892 reached a total of 2,137,⁶³ was the spread of the Spanish language in the towns and islands where schools were established. As a matter of fact, the first native teachers continued to teach in Spanish when schools were reopened at the outset of the American Occupation. Nevertheless, it was the purpose of the Americans, in order to carry out the democratic policies and aims of the Occupation, to substitute English for Spanish and the logical assumption would be to introduce a uniform and a centralized system of education to offset the influence of Spanish education.

That Americans should think in terms of centralization would be evident from the previous discussion in that they developed a secular

⁶²Fresnosa, op. cit., p. 34.

⁶³"Census of the Philippine Islands: 1903", Vol. III, op. cit., pp. 591-93.

public school system even though the private parochial schools were allowed under the provisions of the Organic School Law of 1901.

In the opinion of the members of the Board of Educational Survey headed by Paul Monroe who made a study of the educational system in the Philippines in 1925,

This scheme [of centralization] has been determined by the influence of widely different theories of general government and educational administration. The system had developed among a people habituated to a highly-centralized government--a heritage from hundreds of years of Spanish rule.⁶⁴

3. Military Influence on Centralization of Education

The discussion in Section 2 of Chapter II indicated that the military authorities were responsible for the reopening of the schools in Manila and in the pacified areas of the archipelago shortly after the American Occupation. American Army officers were assigned to take charge of the operation of the early school system and soldiers were detailed to teach.

Centralization may have been influenced to some extent, at least, by the fact that in the first instance the educational policies during the first three years of the Occupation were formulated by the military personnel to whom a centralized system of schools may have been more congenial and understandable. This assertion is substantiated by the nature of the recommendations made by Captain Todd in 1900 for the future organization of public education. Some of these recommendations

⁶⁴Monroe, "A Survey of the Educational System of the Philippine Islands", op. cit., p. 521.

were later incorporated in the Organic School Law of 1901 providing for a centralized educational system.

It is for a somewhat more substantial reason than sheer affinity for centralization, however, that military authorities may have recognized the need for a centralized school system. This reason lay in the very difficult task assigned to the military of pacification incident to the Philippine Insurrection. To indicate the difficulties confronting the military authorities, brief consideration should be given to the background of the Insurrection.

The beginning of the military occupation of the Philippines was marred by the outbreak of the Filipino-American War on February 4, 1899. This war lasted until 1902. The armed conflict was caused principally, perhaps, by misunderstandings between the American officials and General Emilio Aguinaldo, supremo of the Philippine Revolution against Spain. Ill-feelings were aggravated when the Filipinos were not allowed to enter Manila to participate in the victory celebrations following the fall of Manila on August 13, 1898. Moreover, on the following day, the Filipino soldiers were asked to evacuate the suburbs of the city which they had won from the Spaniards. Seemingly, then, disagreement hinged on the acquisition of the Philippines and on the assumption of American sovereignty. In his book, America and the Philippines, Carl Crow testified that "the insurrection of Filipinos was inevitable after the signing of the Treaty of Paris."⁶⁵

⁶⁵Carl Crow, "America and the Philippines", Doubleday, Page and Company, New York: 1914, p. 34

The Filipinos were led to believe that in overthrowing the Spanish sovereignty the United States purposed to help them secure their independence. General Aguinaldo further claimed that the American officials through Admiral Dewey promised him the emancipation of the country after the termination of the Spanish-American War.⁶⁶ On the contrary, the Americans denied the validity of such a promise.

In view of this strained situation, the revolution which started on August 26, 1896, when the Spaniards were still in power, continued sporadically through the Spanish period and into the time of the American occupation in 1898. Finally, on January 23, 1899, the insurgents declared the establishment of the First Philippine Republic despite American Occupation. As a consequence, the breach brought about a crucial episode in Filipino-American relations when the Americans did not recognize Aguinaldo's de facto government.⁶⁷ A successful war operation was then undertaken by the American military government to subdue the insurgent Filipinos. An extensive pacification campaign also was carried out throughout most of the islands of the archipelago.

It was during these crucial years that education was introduced primarily as a means of pacifying the insurgents. General Arthur MacArthur, who, as military governor, allocated additional funds for school purposes, explained that the special appropriation was to serve

⁶⁶Bernstein, op. cit., pp. 67-69.

⁶⁷Alinu Root, "The Military and Colonial Policy of the United States", Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.: 1916, p. 82

". . . exclusively as an adjunct to military operations for the pacification of the people and for the restoration of order and tranquility throughout the archipelago."⁶⁸ During these years of emergency, it would have been surprising had the military authorities not leaned toward the development of centralized school organization which under American direction might introduce a humane and constructive way of securing the loyalties of the Filipinos.

Although the Organic School Act itself was drafted by a civilian superintendent, Fred W. Atkinson, it was, nevertheless, modified and enacted by the Philippine Commission under the military government. It was necessary for the military governor to approve the Act before it could become effective. It would seem natural to assume that the policy of centralization was adopted by the military authorities because it was not only congenial to military organization, but also conducive to alleviating emergency conditions prevailing in the Islands during the military regime. It would not be difficult to assert, therefore, that the establishment of a centralized system of education in the Philippines was influenced by and traceable to the fact that the policy itself was conceived and formulated by American military officials who had before them a very difficult assignment.

4. Relation of Education to American Policies

The governmental policies which the United States adopted in the

⁶⁸Jernegan, op. cit., pp. 644-45.

Philippines demonstrated to the Filipino people that the coming of the Americans in effect ". . . heralded the advent of a new regime and proclaimed the triumph of democratic ideals and institutions."⁶⁹ Unlike the Castillian policy of colonial subjugation, the American policy was based on "benevolent assimilation"⁷⁰--a novel experiment in the treatment of a conquered nation.

Presidential Messages on American Policies

In contemplating what policies the United States should take in the final disposition of the Philippines, President McKinley declared:

There was nothing left for us to do but to take them all, and to educate the Filipinos and uplift and civilize and Christianize them, and by God's grace do the very best we could by them. . . .⁷¹

The implications conveyed in a Presidential message sent by Secretary Hay to the Schurman Commission regarding the policies of the United States in the Philippines also appear significant. The cablegram states:

The President earnestly desires the cessation of bloodshed, and that the people of the Philippine Islands

⁶⁹Benigno Aldana, "The Educational System of the Philippines", University Publishing Company, Inc., Manila: 1949, p. 1

⁷⁰Senate Document No. 208, "Messages from the President of the United States", 56th Congress, Second Session, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1900, pp. 82-83

⁷¹Richard W. Van Alstyne, "American Diplomacy in Action", rev. ed., Stanford University Press, Stanford: 1947, pp. 633-634

at an early date shall have the largest measure of local self-government consistent with peace and good order.⁷²

Proclamation of the First Philippine Commission

After reaching Manila on March 4, 1899, the members of the Schurman Commission issued a Proclamation enumerating the aims of the United States in the administration of the Philippines. A portion of the Proclamation reads:

The aim and object of the American Government, apart from the fulfillment of the solemn obligations it has assumed toward a family of nations by the acceptance of sovereignty over the Philippine Islands, is the well being, the prosperity, and the happiness of the Philippine people and their elevation and advancement to a position among the most civilized peoples of the world.⁷³

In keeping with the foregoing Proclamation, the United States pursued an altruistic policy of government heretofore unknown in the annals of colonization. The First Philippine Commission further emphasized in its Proclamation with respect to the American Government's policy that the United States

. . . . is even more solicitous to spread peace and happiness among the Philippine people; to guarantee them a rightful freedom; to protect them in their just privileges and immunities; to accustom them to free self-government in an ever-increasing measure; and to encourage them in those democratic aspirations, sentiments, and ideals which are the promise and potency of a fruitful national development.⁷⁴

⁷²From the Instructions of the President to the First Philippine Commission as recorded in the "Report of the Philippine Commission to the President on January 31, 1900", op. cit., p. 9.

⁷³Ibid, pp. 3-4

⁷⁴loc. cit.

American Policies and Aims for the Philippines

In exercising sovereignty over the Philippines, it may be conceded generally that the ultimate aim of the United States was apparently neither the colonization nor the annexation of the country into the American Union. According to Ex-Justice George A. Malcolm, in legal parlance the United States assumed trusteeship of the Philippines as a dependency but not as a colony. He further avers that the generally accepted principle of colonization was repugnant to liberty-loving Americans.⁷⁵ On the other hand, MacNair and Lach assert in Modern Far Eastern International Relations that the United States temporarily adopted ". . . . a policy of paternalism that was thought by many to run counter to the spirit and teachings of American traditions."⁷⁶ Based on the foregoing opinions, the conclusion would seem to be that America's purposes in the acquisition of the Philippines were prompted by a complex mixture of altruism and imperialism. Contemporary and succeeding developments have proved, however, the fact that the altruistic motives of the United States outweighed whatever imperialistic ambitions she might have had. For in due time, the United States granted the Philippines a complete and realistic independence.

By and large, the American attitude regarding a democratic policy in the Philippines was expressed by President McKinley in an Executive

⁷⁵Malcolm, op. cit., p. 71.

⁷⁶H. F. MacNair and Donald F. Lach, "Modern Far Eastern International Relations", D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., New York: 1950, p. 596

Proclamation issued on December 21, 1898. The policy reads:

. . . . it should be the earnest wish and paramount aim of the military administration to win the confidence, respect, and affection of the inhabitants of the Philippines by assuring them in every possible way that full measure of individual rights and liberties which is the heritage of free peoples, and by proving to them that the mission of the United States is one of benevolent assimilation, substituting the mild sway of justice and right for arbitrary rule."⁷⁷

This benevolent policy is reiterated in the Instructions to the Philippine Commissions which embodied the main purposes of the United States in establishing American sovereignty over the Philippines. In concluding his instructions to the Schurman Commission, President McKinley announced that the Americans came to the Islands as ". . . . a liberating rather than a conquering nation."⁷⁸ Former Governor-General Harrison quotes another executive pronouncement on Philippine policy wherein President McKinley stated that ". . . . the Philippines are ours, not to exploit but to develop, to civilize, to educate, to train in the science of self-government."⁷⁹ As further elucidated by the Proclamation of the Schurman Commission, America's policy aimed at no less than ". . . . the well being, the prosperity, and the happiness of the Philippine people and their elevation and advancement to a position among the most civilized people of the world."⁸⁰

⁷⁷An excerpt from the Senate Document No. 208, op. cit., pp. 82-83.

⁷⁸Extract from the Instructions to the First Philippine Commission found in the "Report of the Philippine Commission to the President on January 31, 1900", op. cit., pp. 185-186.

⁷⁹Francis B. Harrison, "The Corner-Stone of Philippine Independence", The Century Company, New York: 1922, p. 36

⁸⁰"Report of the Philippine Commission to the President. . . .", op. cit., p. 4.

Malcolm holds the opinion, in his book The Commonwealth of the Philippines, that the policy of the United States in the Philippines was actually an experiment in altruism intended wholly for the benefit of the Filipino people. It was designed for a gradual development in self-government.⁸¹ A similar view was held by William H. Taft, who as Secretary of War in 1908, released the following statement:

. . . . the national policy is to govern the Philippine Islands for the benefit and welfare and uplifting of the people of the Islands and gradually to extend to them, as they shall show themselves fit to exercise it, a greater and greater measure of popular self-government.⁸²

According to Cook, the altruistic policies of the United States followed a pattern which was based on education as a means of training the Filipinos in self-government. The ultimate goal was a gradual relinquishment of American sovereignty and the extension of autonomy to the Philippine people.⁸³

In his book, A History of the Far East in Modern Times, Harold M. Vinacke presents the assertion that

. . . . the responsibility of the United States, sharing in the bearing of the "white men's burden," was to uplift the Filipino and train him in the art of self-government so that he could finally be entrusted with the responsibility of

⁸¹George A. Malcolm, "The Commonwealth of the Philippines", D. Appleton-Century Company, New York: 1939, p. 71

⁸²An excerpt from the "Special Reports of William H. Taft, Secretary of War, to the President on the Philippines", Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1908, pp. 7-8

⁸³Katherine M. Cook, "Public Education in the Philippine Islands", Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: 1939, p. 15

governing himself. Thus independence sentiment was founded upon concern for the welfare of the Filipino.⁸⁴

The implications of the foregoing citations tend to show the major current of the democratic policies of the United States in the occupation of the Philippines. Briefly stated, the main policies hinge on the education and training of the Filipino people for their intelligent participation in governmental functions, on the upliftment of the race to the level of the most civilized peoples of modern times, and finally on the attainment of independent statehood. As Elizabeth A. Clark points out, "Once we [the Americans] had established our authority and a civil government had taken the place of army rule, we followed a policy of training the Filipinos for self-government."⁸⁵

Elliott recapitulates the reasons behind the whole scheme of the American policies in the following statement:

Its essence was the maintenance of law and order, the reasonable conservation of the public resources, the material and economic development of the country, the education of the whole people and their training for self-government.⁸⁶

Worcester and Hayden quoted Schurman's significant statement in The Philippines Past and Present to the effect that "any decent kind of government of Filipinos by Filipinos is better than the best possible

⁸⁴Harold M. Vinacke, "A History of the Far East in Modern Times", (Fourth edition), F. S. Crofts and Company, New York: 1942, p. 481

⁸⁵Elizabeth A. Clark, "Peoples of the China Seas", Institute of Pacific Relations and Webster Publishing Company, St. Louis: 1942, p. 73

⁸⁶Charles B. Elliott, "The Philippines to the End of the Commission Government", The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis: 1917, pp. 380-81

government of Filipinos by Americans."⁸⁷ And finally, there is no better statement of America's real objectives during the Occupation than that expressed by the Honorable William H. Taft in his popularly acclaimed maxim: "The Philippines for the Filipinos."⁸⁸

Origin of Centralization in American Policies

The successful execution of the general policies of the American Occupation enunciated in the preceding paragraphs, presumable, depended to a large extent upon the fitness of the Filipinos to participate in governmental functions. With the Occupation forces lay the enormous task of training Filipino leaders as well as educating the masses of the population. In consonance with the purpose of democratizing the Philippines, "America was, by all her political traditions and theories, committed to the task of educating, not a few leaders but the entire masses of common people."⁸⁹ As Zoilo M. Galang points out, "The Americans had been reared in the belief that democracy thrives best where the facilities for education are widespread. . . ."⁹⁰ Thus, in fitting the Filipino people to govern themselves, the late Governor-General Leonard Wood is said to have asserted that the basic portion of the work was the establishment of a sound system of education.⁹¹

⁸⁷Dean C. Worcester and Joseph R. Hayden, op. cit., p. 268.

⁸⁸Zaide, op. cit., p. 575.

⁸⁹Elliott, "The Philippines to the End of the Commission Government", op. cit., p. 224.

⁹⁰Zoilo M. Galang (ed.), "Encyclopedia of the Philippines", F. Vera and Sons Company, Manila: 1935, p. 129

⁹¹Walter W. Harquardt, "The Philippine Islands", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1930, p. 4

The foregoing views readily show the interrelationship of education to the democratic policies of the United States apropos of her aims in preparing the Filipino people for autonomous government through the medium of a centralized system of schools.

At this point, it should be noted that after surveying the existing conditions in the Philippines in 1899, the First Philippine Commission was convinced that the Filipinos were as yet unprepared to govern themselves and to perform the functions of a democratic people. While the Commission apparently recognized the native abilities and virtues of the Philippine peoples, yet it felt that their limited political background and social experience did not qualify them to undertake the requirements of a self-governing democracy. In view of this fact, the Commission, in its report to the president of the United States, recommended that (1) the United States Congress should provide for a form of government suitable for the Philippines at the earliest practicable time; (2) the United States should not withdraw from the Philippines because of the duty and the responsibility which America had assumed in the amelioration of conditions existing in the Islands; (3) so far as the finances of the Philippines permitted, public education should be promptly established, and when established it should be made free to all.⁹²

⁹²"Report of the Philippine Commission to the President. . . .", op. cit., p. 5.

In corroboration of the above recommendations, particularly with regards education, President McKinley instructed the Second Philippine Commission ". . . . to promote and extend, and as they find occasion, to improve the system of education already inaugurated by the military authorities."⁹³

It would seem logical to conclude, therefore, that the centralized system of schools in the Philippines finds its origin partly within the general policies and aims of the American civil and military personnel who exerted efforts to achieve the goal of preparing the Filipinos for self-government.

⁹³ An excerpt from President McKinley's instructions to the Second Philippine Commission which appears in the "Report of the Philippine Commission, Civil Governor,", op. cit., pp. 5-11.

CHAPTER IV

ASSOCIATED EFFECTS OF CENTRALIZATION

In considering the associated effects of centralization, one should give attention to the fact that some of these effects are in reality extensions of the policy, its extensions either to another phase or to a higher degree of centralization. Perhaps the policy was not adopted with the idea of extending it or strengthening it; conceivably, it must have been thought of as a temporary measure as current conditions demanded but which, with the passing of time and the alteration of circumstances, would tend to disappear and thus bring the Philippine system of education in closer agreement with the American pattern.

1. Administrative Organization and Supervision

In the first place, consideration will be given to the effects of the policy of centralization in the area of administrative organization and supervision. As pointed out previously, the policy of centralization was recommended by the Schurman Commission (see page 18) in 1899 and later was established formally with the passage of the Organic School Law of 1901 (See Appendix A).

The Department of Public Instruction

In her book, A History of Education in the Philippines, Alzona refers to the provisions of the Organic School Law as having laid the foundation for the educational system in the Philippines with the

organization of the Department of Public Instruction as provided for in Section 1 of said Act.¹ Thus, upon the Department of Public Instruction centered the organization, administration, and supervision of all school functions throughout the archipelago.

With the enactment of the Philippine Autonomy Act or the Jones Law of 1916, the Department of Public Instruction was incorporated as "one of the administrative departments of the Insular Government" with the vice-governor general as the secretary for the department.² Under the Commonwealth Government, the vice-president of the Philippines assumed the secretaryship of the Department of Public Instruction.

During the period of the Japanese Occupation, the department was converted into a Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare. Then with the establishment of the Puppet Philippine Republic, the department became the Ministry of Education.

When the exiled Commonwealth Government returned to the Philippines in 1945, the Department of Public Instruction was re-established and given its pre-war status. Finally, when the Republic of the Philippines was reorganized on October 4, 1947, pursuant to Executive Order No. 94 of the president of the Philippines, the department was re-named the Department of Education. Aldana points out that the change in nomenclature was necessary to express the scope and nature of the functions

¹ Aldana, op. cit., p. 189.

² Fresnoza, op. cit., p. 87.

of the department in general.³

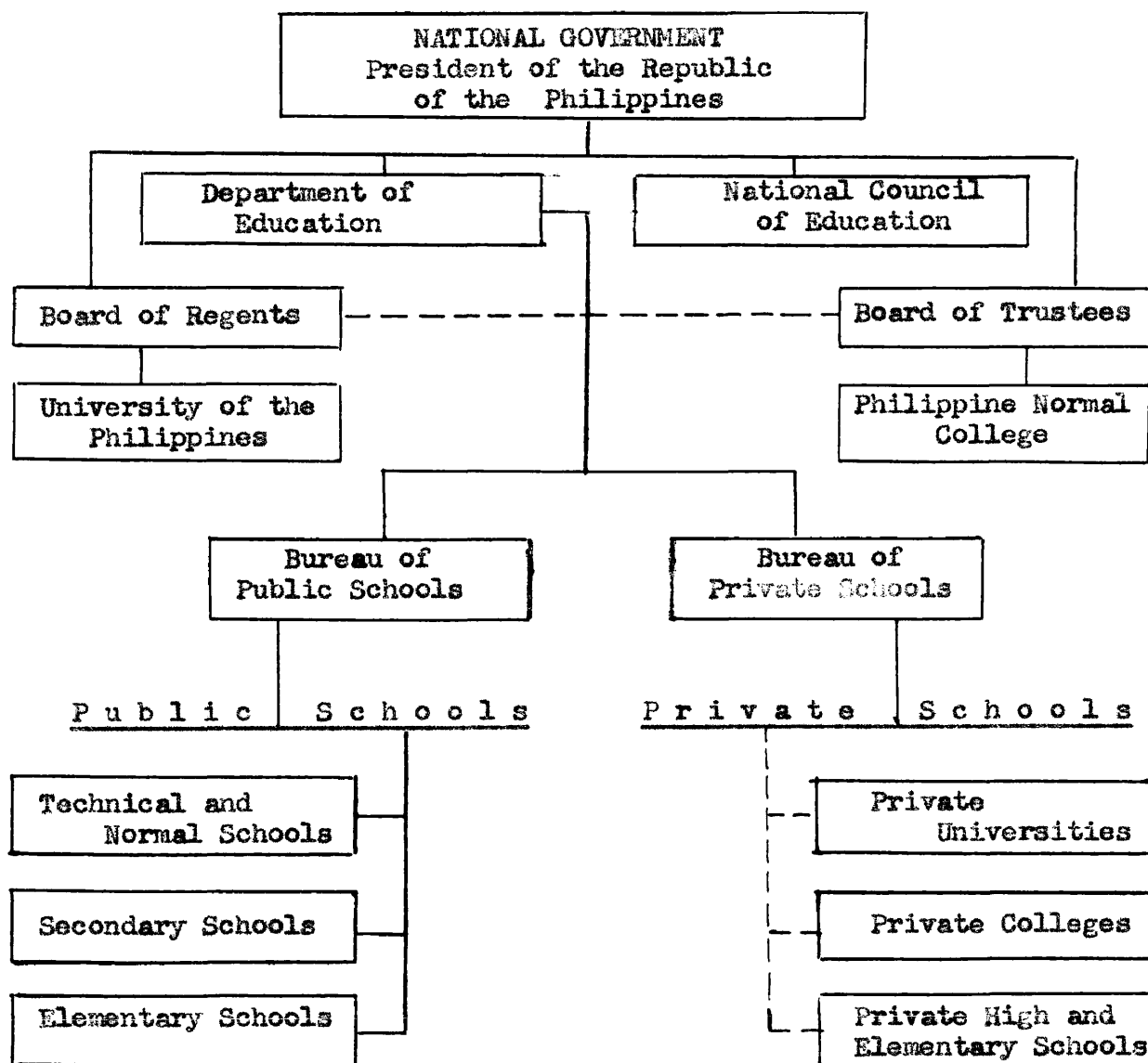
As presently constituted, the Department of Education is one of the Executive Departments of the Republic of the Philippines. It was re-organized in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution of the Philippines which was approved on February 8, 1935, to wit: "All educational institutions shall be under the supervision of and subject to regulation by the State."⁴ Since full supervision of education emanates from the central government, by and large, the overall task of controlling and regulating the educational system has been delegated to the president of the Philippines. The chart representing the lines of direct and indirect control in the administration and supervision of education in the Philippines is shown in Figure II on page 73. On the other hand, the president administers control of the school system through his subordinates. Foremost among these subordinate agencies is the Department of Education upon which devolves the general administration, supervision, and regulation of all educational activities within the Republic. The organization of the Department of Education is graphically illustrated in Figure III on page 74.

The Department of Education is headed by a Secretary of Education who is appointed by the president of the Philippines with the concurrence of the Commission on Appointments. As secretary for the department, he holds a Cabinet portfolio and is in charge of the multifarious educational activities of the department. He is assisted, however, by an

³Aldana, op. cit., p. 45.

⁴Quoted from the "Constitution of the Philippines", Article XIV, Section 5, Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1948, p. 34

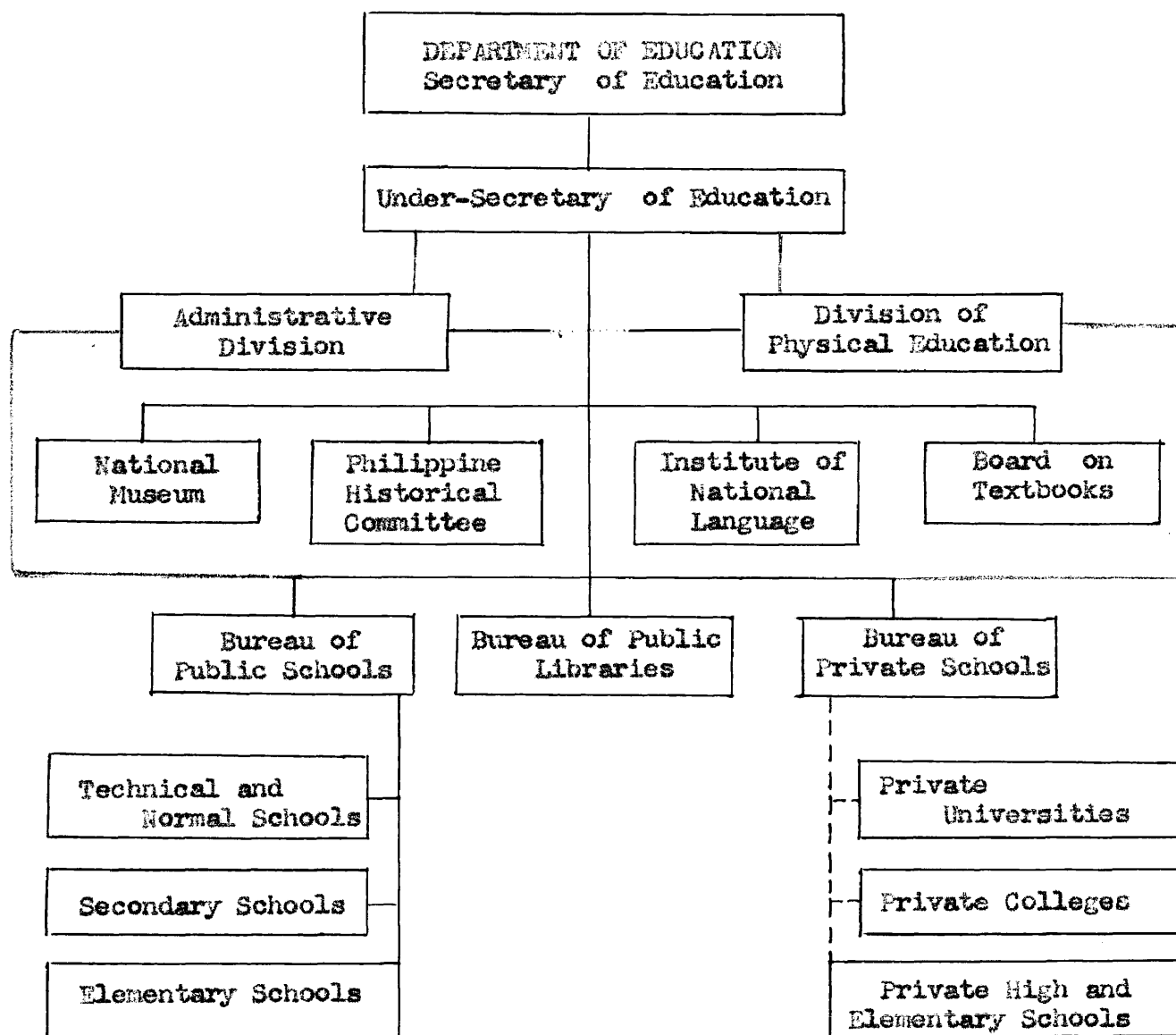
FIGURE II. Administrative Control and Supervision of Education by the National Government.⁵



Legend: _____ Line of direct control; - - - Line of indirect control

⁵
A derivation from the chart published in "Essentials of the Philippine Educational System" by Florencio P. Fresnoza, *op. cit.*, p. 7

FIGURE III. Organization of the Department of Education.⁶



Legend: _____ Line of direct affiliation;
 - - - - - Line of indirect affiliation.

⁶ Adapted from the charts in "Essentials of the Philippine Educational System" by Florencio P. Fresnoza, *op. cit.*, pp. 7 and 89

under-secretary of education. Also directly responsible to him are the directors and chiefs of the bureaus and offices under the department.

In accordance with the proviso for the re-organization of the government in 1951, the Department of Education was composed of the Bureau of Public Schools, the Bureau of Private Schools, the Bureau of Public Libraries, the National Museum, the Institute of National Language, the Board on Textbooks, and the Philippine Historical Committee.⁷

The effect of the development of the Department of Public Instruction to its present status is readily revealed in a highly centralized and controlled system of education. It appears evident that the centralized feature of the school set-up which permeates practically every phase and function of the public and private system of schools from the elementary through the secondary and up to the higher levels of education came about as a result of the adoption of the policy of centralization in the early days of the American Occupation, as embodied in the Organic School Law. In a general sense, subsequent laws, orders, proclamations, and directives appended to the Organic School Law may thus be considered associated effects of the policy of centralization to the extent that they either corroborated, intensified, weakened, or otherwise modified the policy.

The Bureau of Education

With the passage of the United States Philippine Commission Act

⁷"The Philippine Yearbook, 1950-1951", Herald-DMM Newspapers, Manila: 1951, p. 60

No. 477 (an amendment to the Organic School Law) on October 8, 1902, the Bureau of Education was created with broad administrative and supervisory control of all public schools in the Philippines. If this was not an intensification of the policy of centralization, at least, it was an instrument for rendering the centralized system more effective. The Bureau of Education was organized as a division of the Department of Public Instruction. A general superintendent, appointed by the governor general, headed the Bureau of Education and automatically became a member of the Philippine Commission. The Bureau of Education continued in operation as such until 1947, when it was reorganized as the Bureau of Public Schools in accordance with Executive Order No. 94.

Patterned after the organization of the Department of Education, the Bureau of Public Schools was organized after its centralized blueprint. At the apex of the Bureau's hierarchical structure is the office of the director of public schools. He is appointed by the president of the Philippines and confirmed by the Commission on Appointment of the national government. His duties center in the general administration, supervision, and control of the educational matters of the bureau as well as in formulating policies for the public school system.

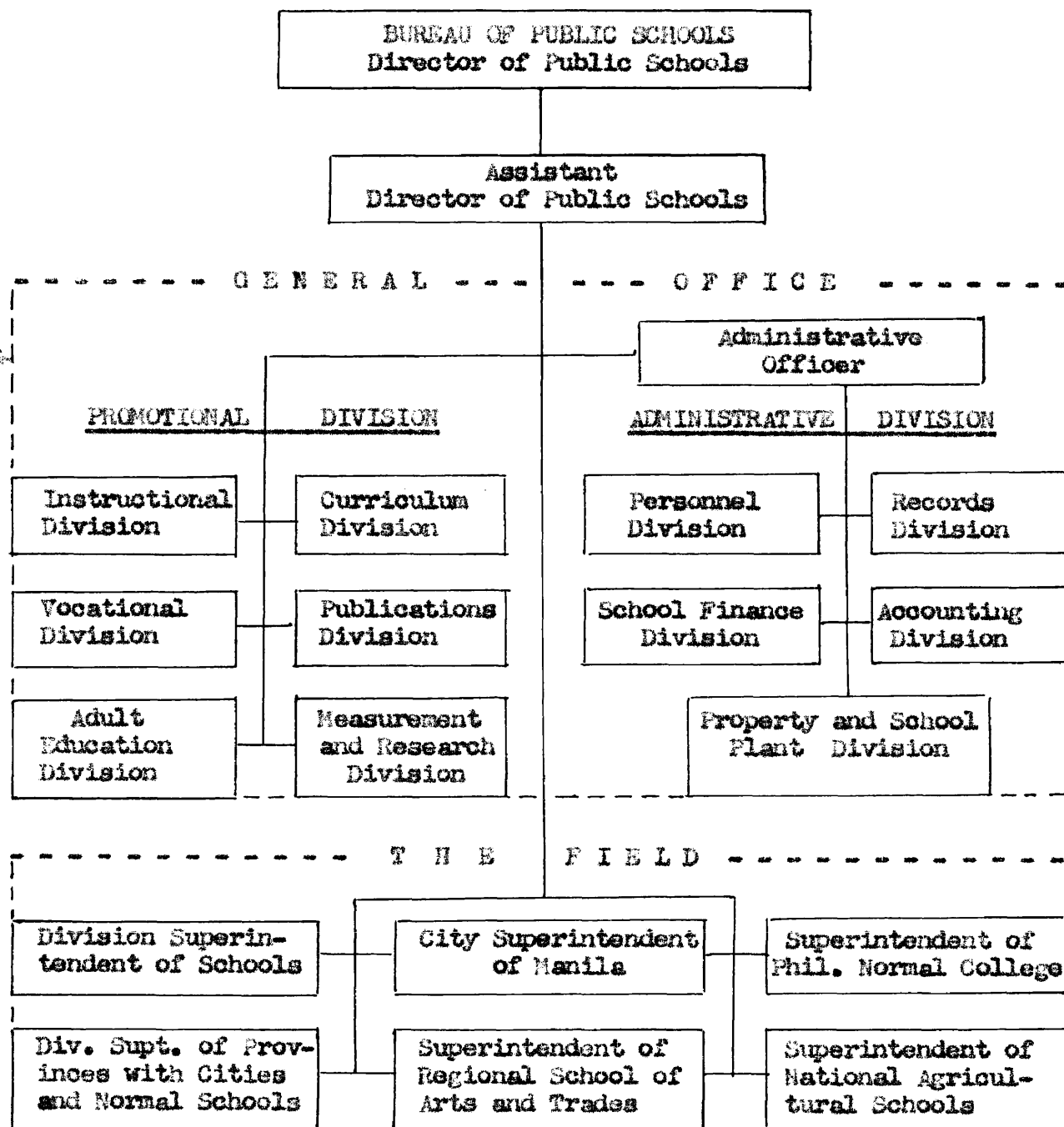
Because of the manifold responsibilities of the director of public schools, he delegates his minor and routine tasks to subordinate officials. He is assisted in discharging his official duties by the assistant director especially in case of the former's absence.

Two important divisions evolve from within the General Office of the director of public schools; namely, the Administrative and the

Promotional Divisions. Directly under the supervision of the assistant director is an administrative officer who supervises the bureau's functions in the following divisions: personnel, property, records, school plant, and school finance. The Promotional Division--which administers the curriculum, instruction, measurement and research, vocational and adult education, and publication activities of the bureau--also comes under the direct charge of the assistant director of public schools.

Aside from the authority of the director over the General Office, he also assumes jurisdiction over the far-flung Field which embraces the functions of the division superintendent of schools, the division superintendent of provinces and chartered cities and normal schools, the city superintendent of Manila, the superintendent of the Philippine Normal College, the superintendent of regional schools of arts and trades, and the superintendent of national agricultural schools. The chart illustrating the organization of the Bureau of Public Schools appears in Figure IV, page 78.

It appears significant that in the course of years, the Bureau of Education absorbed other administrative functions. For instance, in 1910 the office of the superintendent of private schools was created and placed under the bureau's jurisdiction. Later, the office of private schools was expended to a Division of Private Schools headed by a superintendent of private schools. In harmony with the recommendations of the Educational Survey Commission in 1925, an office of private education was organized in 1926 with a commissioner of private education as head. The National Assembly passed Commonwealth Act No. 180 on November 13, 1936, which created a separate office of private education under the

FIGURE IV. Organization of the Bureau of Public Schools.⁸

8

Adapted from Chart II which appears in "The Educational System of the Philippines" by Benigno Aldana, *op. cit.*, p. 61

director of private education. Finally, in accordance with the provisions of the Executive Order No. 94 the office of private education was converted into the Bureau of Private Schools headed by a director of private schools and placed on the same level as the Bureau of Public Schools. This chronological development appears to be born of the need for a closer supervisory and administrative control of both the public and private schools.

Public School Divisions

Other instances of associated effects of centralization of education in the Philippines can be seen in the division of the country into school divisions for supervisory and administrative functions. In order to facilitate an efficient administration and supervision of the public school system, each of the school divisions is further divided into school districts.

In 1901, as provided for in the Organic School Law Section 3, (c), ten school divisions were organized each of which was headed by a division superintendent of schools. The school districts were administered by either a district supervisor or by a supervising principal. Because of the rapid growth in the number of public schools together with the attendant difficulties encountered in commuting between the far-flung islands of the archipelago, eighteen school divisions were organized in 1902. Then, in harmony with the amendment proviso of Act No. 477, the school divisions were increased to thirty-six in 1903. As the school system developed in later years, there were organized forty-nine school divisions corresponding to the number of regular provinces

or political subdivisions of the Philippines. This trend indicates a more precise and increasing degree of control and supervision of public education. This, also, would seem to indicate a tendency to improve the machinery of supervision and administration and at the same time provide for deeper and more thorough penetration of the policy of centralization throughout the archipelago.

2. Development of the School Curricula

Associated effects within the sphere of school curricula will be presented in terms of significant changes and development or enrichment of the courses offered in the public schools since the inception of the centralized educational system. This investigation will be treated more or less chronologically.

The Primary School Curricula

Because organization was lacking during the formative years of the Military Occupation, no formal curriculum was prescribed for the newly re-opened schools. It was not until 1901 that a course of study consisting of three years for the primary grades was formulated. The primary curriculum included the following subjects: English, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, physiology, music, drawing, physical education, manual training, and nature study.⁹

Three years later, a formal school curriculum was prescribed by the Bureau of Education for the school year 1904-1905 as shown in Table 6.

⁹An excerpt from the Bureau of Education Circular No. 2, series 1901.

TABLE 6. CURRICULA FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES BEGINNING 1904-1905¹⁰

PRIMARY SUBJECTS	G R A D E S		
	I	II	III
Language, including reading, writing, spelling, phonetics, and object work	X	X	X
Arithmetic	X	X	X
Body Training, including singing, drawing, handiwork, opening exercises, and physical exercises	X	X	X
Geography	-	-	X
Supplementary Instruction in Citizenship	-	-	X

NOTE: X denotes subject is prescribed in the corresponding grade.

A significant change in the primary school curriculum took effect in 1907 when an additional grade was added to the primary course. (The revised curriculum with an enriched subject offering appears in Table 7 on page 82.) This prescription of a four-year primary course by the Bureau of Education, evidently, was an intensification of the program of centralized control.

After the expansion of the primary curriculum to four grades, there appeared a trend toward the development of industrial efficiency. The outstanding feature of the curriculum which came in about 1910 was the prescription of a greater amount of time devoted to industrial work. In 1913, the primary curriculum underwent another revision designed to

¹⁰Derived from Fresnoza, op. cit., pp. 166-67.

increase the length of each recitation period, to make possible additional subject offerings, and to allow the proper time allotment for industrial training.

TABLE 7. REVISED PRIMARY COURSE FOR FOUR GRADES PRESCRIBED FOR THE
SCHOOL YEARS 1907-1908 to 1909-1910¹¹

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S			
	I	II	III	IV
Opening Exercises and Music	20	20	25	25
Language, consisting of conversation, reading, writing, and spelling	120	100	--	--
Numbers	40	--	--	--
Handiwork	40	40	--	--
Arithmetic	--	40	50	40
Physical Exercises and Recess	20	20	30	20
Drawing and Writing (alternating)	--	20	20	--
English, consisting of reading, spelling, and language	--	--	75	60
Geography	--	--	40	30
Nature Study (3) Civics (2)	--	--	--	25
Industrial Work	--	--	60	--
Industrial Work and Drawing	--	--	--	100

NOTE: The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of days the class meets each week.

The figures in columns under each grade represent daily time allotment in minutes.

¹¹Adapted from the Bureau of Education Circular No. 51, Series 1907, pp. 1-8

The Course of Study for the Primary Grades in 1915 showed the prescription of a new primary curriculum with minor alterations of the previous one. This curriculum, which appears in Table 8, was used until 1924, when it was again revised. The changes involved some modifications, particularly in the time allotment of certain subjects, as shown in Table 9 on page 84.

TABLE 8. PRESCRIBED PRIMARY CURRICULUM FOR 1915¹²

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S			
	I	II	III	IV
Opening Exercises	10	10	10	10
Language and Good Manners and Right Conduct	40	40	40	40
Conversational English (2) Drawing (3)	20	20	--	--
Reading and Phonics	40	45	40	30
Spelling	10	15	20	20
Writing	15	15	20	20
Music	20	15	15	20
Arithmetic	15	20	30	30
Industrial Work	50	60	80	80
Physical Education and Recess	40	40	40	40
Home Geography (2) Drawing (3)	--	--	30	--
Civics, Hygiene and Sanitation (3) Drawing (2)	--	--	--	20
Geography	--	--	--	30

NOTE: Numbers in parentheses denote the number of days class meets each week.

Figures in column indicate daily time allotment in minutes.

¹²Derived from the "Service Manual of the Bureau of Education", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1917, p. 25

TABLE 9. PRESCRIBED PRIMARY CURRICULUM FOR 1924¹³

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S			
	I	II	III	IV
Language; Conversational English; Good Manners and Right Conduct; Civics, Hygiene and Sanitation; Opening Exercises	105	70	70	70
Reading	60	60	40	40
Phonics	10	10	10	10
Number work	30	--	--	--
Arithmetic	--	30	40	40
Writing	20	15	15	15
Drawing	15	15	15	15
Spelling	--	10	10	10
Music	--	25	--	20
Physical Education	25	25	25	25
Industrial Work	--	40	50	60
Home Geography	--	--	30	--
Geography	--	--	--	35

NOTE: Numbers in columns represent daily time allotment in minutes.

It was not until 1934 that the primary course underwent another revision. The significant changes in the curriculum included the elimination of industrial work from the first three grades, the introduction of health education and elementary science in lieu of hygiene, sanitation, good manners, and right conduct; and the introduction of social science in place of geography. The course in character education was prescribed

¹³ Adapted from the Bureau of Education "Course of Study for Primary Grades", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1924, pp. 15-17

to be taught during the opening exercises, which were given an additional time allotment. The revised primary curriculum is shown in Table 10.

An emphasis on citizenship training and character education which characterized the educational policy on the inauguration of the Commonwealth Government of the Philippines led to another revision of the Primary School Curriculum in 1935. Preparatory military training was introduced in the primary grades for all able-bodied boys from the age

TABLE 10. PRESCRIBED PRIMARY CURRICULUM FOR 1934¹⁴

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S			
	I	II	III	IV
Opening Exercises	50	50	50	50
Language	350	465	--	--
Language and Spelling	---	---	275	250
Reading and Phonics	450	450	400	400
Arithmetic	150	150	200	200
Drawing	75	75	75	100
Music	100	100	100	100
Writing	75	75	75	100
Health Education	50	50	50	50
Physical Education	175	175	175	175
Home Geography	---	---	150	---
Elementary Science	---	---	125	175
Gardening	---	---	---	---
Social Science	---	---	---	200

NOTE: Numbers in columns represent weekly time allotment in minutes.

¹⁴Adapted from the "Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Director of Education", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1935, p. 76

of ten. With the 1934 curriculum as the basis, character education and citizenship training were offered for two periods of twenty minutes each per week in all grades. Social studies took the place of social science. Physical education and preparatory military training were allotted 275 minutes each week in grade four. In grade two, arithmetic was given 200 minutes a week while language and spelling were reduced to 425 minutes. The 1935 primary curriculum was used until 1940 when another revision was made after the passage of the Educational Act of 1940.

One of the significant associated effects of centralization in curriculum-making was the reduction of the elementary grades from seven to six years, consisting of four grades of primary and two grades of intermediate courses in accordance with the provisions of the Educational Act of 1940. Aggravated by the shortage of funds with which to finance public education, the Department of Public Instruction was obliged to adopt two additional plans for the operation of elementary schools: the "double-single session plan" and the "emergency plan" for the primary grades, and the "one-teacher-one-class" program for the intermediate grades.

In the "double-single-session plan" the teacher teaches a group of pupils of a certain grade during the morning session and another group of pupils of the same grade in the afternoon. The "emergency plan" provides for a teacher to teach a group of pupils in the morning in a certain classroom, and another teacher to teach a different group using the same classroom in the afternoon. This plan has been allowed, however,

only in schools where classroom facilities are inadequate. The primary curricula described above appear in Tables 11 and 12 on pages 87 and 88. The above-named curricula are still in vogue.

TABLE 11. PRESCRIBED PRIMARY CURRICULUM SINCE 1941 BASED ON THE "DOUBLE-SINGLE-SESSION PLAN"¹⁵

D U B J E C T S	G R A D E S			
	I	II	III	IV
Opening Exercises ^a	5	5	5	5
Reading and Phonics ^b	30	30	30	30
Language and Spelling ^c	30	30	30	30
Arithmetic	20	20	20	20
Music and Writing ^d	20	20	20	20
Social Studies ^e	20	20	20	20
National Language	15	15	15	15
Free Period, including Preparatory Military Training, Physical Educa- tion, and Health Practices	20	20	20	20

NOTE: Numbers in columns denote the daily time allotment in minutes.

^aThe Philippine National Anthem is taught during the first days of school.

^bReading is taught two periods of 15 minutes each in grades one and two, and only one period of 30 minutes in grades three and four.

^cPhonics and spelling are taught incidentally, the first in connection with reading, the second with language.

^dMusic is taught three times a week and writing two times a week during the first semester. The time allotments are reversed at the beginning of the second semester.

^eSocial studies includes health education and character education.

¹⁵Adapted from the "Revised Elementary School Curriculum" issued in Circular No. 23, s. 1941, Bureau of Education, Manila: June 23, 1941, p.1

TABLE 12. PRESCRIBED PRIMARY CURRICULUM SINCE 1941 BASED ON THE
"EMERGENCY PLAN"¹⁶

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S			
	I	II	III	IV
Opening Exercises	10	10	10	10
Arithmetic	20	20	20	20
Social Studies ^a	20	20	20	20
Language	20	20	20	20
Recess ^b	20	20	20	20
Spelling	--	10	10	10
Reading	20	20	20	20
Phonics	10	10	10	10
Music	20	20	20	20
Writing	20	20	20	20
National Language	20	20	20	20
Gardening	--	--	--	40
Fundamental Handwork	--	20	20	--

NOTE: Figures in columns under each grade denote time allotment in minutes per session.

^aSocial studies includes character education, citizenship training, and health education.

^bRecess includes plays, games, and health practices.

¹⁶Adapted from the "Essentials of the Philippine Educational System", by Fresnoza, op. cit., pp. 142-43.

The Intermediate Curricula

In order to meet the need for instruction above the primary school, an intermediate curriculum was introduced during the school year 1904-1905. The course was prescribed for three grades, four to six. The subjects for each grade consisted of the following: language and grammar, arithmetic, geography, government, science studies, music, and physical education.¹⁷ Government, however, was offered only in grade six; geography only in grades four and five.

With the expansion of the primary curriculum to four grades in 1909, the intermediate school continued three-year program with the deletion of grade four and the addition of grade seven.

As an associated effect of the trend toward the introduction of practical courses, the Bureau of Education prescribed during the school year 1909-1910 purely vocational courses supplementing the regular general curriculum. The intermediate curricula consisted of teaching, farming, trade, house-keeping and household arts, and business.

In keeping with the recommendations of a Special Curriculum Committee appointed by the Director of Education in 1912, another change in the intermediate curricula was made. This move resulted in the prescription of a revised intermediate general course for the school year 1913-1914. Table 13 on page 90 shows the revised intermediate general course.

¹⁷Fresnoza, op. cit., p. 176.

TABLE 13. REVISED INTERMEDIATE GENERAL COURSE OF 1913¹⁸

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S		
	V	VI	VII
Grammar	200	200	200
Reading, Spelling, and Composition .	200	200	200
Arithmetic	200	200	200
Music	100	---	---
Writing	100	---	---
Geography	---	200	---
History and Government	---	---	200
Physiology, Hygiene and Sanitation .	---	---	200
Drawing	80	80	80
Industrial Work	320	320	240
Physical Education	200	200	200

NOTE: Figures in columns denote weekly time allotment in minutes.

In the revision of the intermediate curricula in 1917, the business course was eliminated. In 1919, the teaching course was dropped, while the rest of the vocational courses continued until 1921. The curriculum changes and additional offerings are shown in Table 14 on page 91.

Effected in 1922, another revamping of the intermediate curricula resulted in the elimination of the course in housekeeping and household arts. Good manners and right conduct, civics, and hygiene and sanitation were incorporated. The revised intermediate course of 1922, shown in Table 15 on page 92, was used until its further revision in 1934.

¹⁸ Adapted from the Bureau of Education Circular No. 77, Series 1913, pp. 2-6

TABLE 14. PRESCRIBED INTERMEDIATE GENERAL CURRICULUM OF 1917¹⁹

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S		
	V	VI	VII
Opening Exercises	75	75	75
Grammar and Composition	200	200	200
Conversational English	100	100	100
Reading, Spelling, and Phonics . . .	200	200	200
Music	100	100	---
Writing	100	100	---
Drawing (girls)	80	80	80
Drawing (boys)	---	---	160
Geography	200	200	---
Philippine History and Government . .	---	---	200
Industrial Work (boys)	320	320	240
Industrial Work (girls)	---	---	320
Physical Education	200	200	200

NOTE: Numbers in columns denote weekly time allotment in minutes.

Following the trend of the primary schools, the intermediate curricula were revised again in 1934. Pertinent changes were made which involved the substitution of character and health education for conversational English, good manners and right conduct, and hygiene and sanitation; and social studies for geography. Preparatory military training, however, was not offered until the beginning of the school year 1936-1937. Agricultural curriculum supplanted the former farming course. The prescribed intermediate curricula for 1934 (see Table 16, page 93) was used until 1941.

Perhaps the most significant change created by the Educational Act

¹⁹"Service Manual of the Bureau of Education", op. cit., p. 26.

TABLE 15. REVISED INTERMEDIATE GENERAL CURRICULUM OF 1922²⁰

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S		
	V	VI	VII
Opening exercises	50	50	50
Reading	200	200	200
Phonics	50	50	50
Language	200	200	200
Spelling	50	50	50
Arithmetic	200	200	200
Geography	200	200	---
Philippine History and Government . .	---	---	200
Writing	100	100	---
Music	100	100	---
Freehand or Mechanical Drawing . . .	80	80	---
Physical Education	200	200	200
Conversational English (2) Good Manners and Right Conduct, Civics, and Hygiene and Sanitation (3)	100	100	100
Industrial Education (boys) and Home Economics (girls)	320	320	320

NOTE: Numbers in parenthesis denote the number of days class meets each week.

Figures in columns indicate weekly time allotment in minutes.

of 1940 was the reduction of the elementary grades from seven to six. This change necessitated revamping of the whole intermediate curricula in order to provide for the subjects offered formerly in grades five to seven in two years of intermediate grades as specified in the Act. New class programs, known as the "one-teacher-one-class plan" and "emergency plan", were adopted in an effort to solve the "school crisis" and at the same time provide elementary education to as many children as possible.

²⁰Fresnoza, op. cit., pp.183-84.

TABLE 16. REVISED INTERMEDIATE CURRICULUM OF 1934²¹

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S		
	V	VI	VII
Opening Exercises	50	50	50
Language and Spelling	250	250	250
Reading and Phonics	250	250	250
Arithmetic	200	200	200
Social Studies	200	200	---
Philippine History and Government . .	---	---	200
Music	100	100	---
Writing	100	100	---
Character Education	40	40	100
Health Education	60	60	200
Industrial Arts and Drawing (boys, or Home Economics and Drawing (girls)).	400	400	400
Physical Education	225	225	225

NOTE: Numbers in columns denote weekly time allotment in minutes.

In the "one-teacher-one-class" program, a teacher teaches an intermediate grade in the morning and in the afternoon sessions. The "emergency plan" provides for a teacher to teach a group of pupils in a certain classroom in the morning and for another teacher to use the classroom with another group of pupils in the afternoon session. The prescribed curricula for the intermediate in the two plans described above appear on pages 94 and 95, Tables 17 and 18.

²¹Ibid, p. 185

The Secondary School Curricula

Apparently, no uniform curricula for the secondary schools were prescribed prior to 1904. Courses of secondary level were, at that time, issued by the division superintendents particularly for those who desired to prepare for advanced studies in the colleges and universities.

TABLE 17. PRESCRIBED INTERMEDIATE CURRICULUM OF 1941 BASED ON THE
"ONE-TEACHER-ONE-CLASS PLAN"²²

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S	
	V	VI
Opening Exercises ^a	15	15
Reading and Phonics ^b	30	30
Language and Spelling ^c	30	30
Arithmetic	30	30
Social Studies ^d	30	30
Elementary Science	30	30
National Language	30	30
Gardening and Industrial Arts (boys)		
Home Economics (girls)	60	60
Preparatory Military Training and		
Physical Education	30	30

NOTE: Numbers in columns under each grade indicate daily time allotment in minutes.

^aThe Philippine National Anthem is taught during the first days of school.

^bPhonics is taught incidentally in connection with reading.

^cSpelling is taught incidentally in connection with language.

^dSocial studies includes health education and character education.

²²Bureau of Education Circular No. 23, series 1941, p. 4

TABLE 18. PRESCRIBED INTERMEDIATE CURRICULA OF 1941 BASED ON THE
 "EMERGENCY PLAN"²³

S U B J E C T S	G R A D E S	
	V	VI
Language and Spelling	30	30
Reading and Phonics	30	30
Arithmetic	30	30
Health and Elementary Science	30	30
Social Studies ^a	30	30
Music	15	15
Recess ^b	15	15
National Language	30	30
Physical Education	30	30
Industrial Arts and Elementary Agriculture (for boys) or Home Economics (for girls,	60	60

NOTE: Figures in columns indicate daily time allotment in minutes.

^aSocial studies includes character education and citizenship training.

^bRecess is devoted to plays, games, and health practices.

A four-year secondary general course, a four-year commercial course, a two-year secondary normal course, a two-year secondary trade course, and a three-year agricultural course were offered beginning in the school year 1904-1905.

Because they were experimental in nature, the curricula for vocational schools were not so definitely outlined as the secondary general course. For purposes of this study, therefore, only the secondary

²³Fresnoza, op. cit., p. 143

general curriculum will be shown as typical of the secondary curricula in subsequent tables. Table 19 shows the type of secondary academic curriculum prescribed for the school year 1904-1905.

Several revisions of the secondary curricula were made after 1904. For instance, the Bureau of Education prescribed a new secondary academic curriculum in 1906 which was further revised in 1910. Then in 1913 another revised secondary academic curriculum was prescribed and continued to be used until 1918. Table 20 on page 97 shows the secondary academic curriculum adopted in 1913.

TABLE 19. PRESCRIBED SECONDARY ACADEMIC CURRICULUM OF 1904²⁴

FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
English Literature Philippine History Science (Botany) Mathematics (Elements of Algebra) Language (Latin)	English Literature History, Ancient and Medieval Science (Animal Life) Mathematics (Plane Geometry) Language (Latin)
THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
English Literature History (Modern and Colonial) Science (Physiography, Paleontology, Meteorology, and Anthropology) Language (Spanish or French)	English Literature U. S. History and Government Physics Language (Spanish or French)

²⁴Adapted from the Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 7, on "Courses of Instruction for the Public Schools of the Philippine Islands Prescribed by the General Superintendent of Education", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1904, pp. 14-16, 20

TABLE 20. PRESCRIBED SECONDARY ACADEMIC CURRICULUM OF 1913²⁵

FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
Literature	English
Composition	Plane Geometry
Algebra	Physical Geography (1) United States Government (2)
General History	General History (1) United States History (2)
Physical Education	Physical Education
THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
English	Literature
Review Arithmetic (2)	Advanced Algebra (optional, (1)
Biology (double period)	Solid Geometry or Latin (optional) (2)
Colonial History (1) Commercial Geography (2)	Physics (double period)
Physical Education	Composition and Rhetoric (1)
	Business English (2)
	Economic Conditions of the Philippine Islands
	Physical Education
NOTE: (1) denotes first semester; (2) second semester.	

Effected in 1918, a general revision of the secondary school curricula resulted in the re-introduction of the vocational courses in agriculture, commerce, and housekeeping and household arts or home economics. Under the agricultural curriculum, three courses were offered: agricultural education, farm management, and farm mechanics. The courses, however, were reduced in 1924 to one and renamed farming

²⁵Derived from the "Thirteenth Annual Report of the Director of Education, July 1, 1912-June 30, 1913", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1913, p. 22

curriculum. In 1919, the course in commerce was discontinued and raised to collegiate level. The housekeeping and household arts curriculum was designated as the domestic science course in 1924 and in 1926 was changed to the home economics course, a name which remained until 1941. Also in 1924 the secondary trade curriculum was offered for the first time in provincial trade schools.

The associated effects of these changes in the secondary curricula produced two new types of experimental secondary curricula known as Type A and Type B Secondary General Curricula of 1932. These two types of secondary curricula are shown in Tables 21 and 22 on pages 99 and 100.

Type A Secondary Curriculum was prescribed in 1935 and Type B in 1936. Type A was finally adopted in 1941 as the standard curriculum for all non-vocational public high schools, while Type B was abolished in the same year. As presently constituted, the General Secondary Curriculum has been prescribed as the standard for all secondary schools in the Philippines replacing the Academic and the Type B curricula. The present General Secondary Curriculum appears in Table 23, page 101.

It appears evident that the materials and subjects prescribed in the different school curricula were tangible evidences of the effect of the centralized educational system introduced by the United States at the turn of the century. Practically every change in the development of the curricula has been prescribed by the Bureau of Education. As a consequence, a fairly uniform curriculum has developed. Although a very limited amount of adaptation was allowed, by and large, the courses have remained general and academic in nature. This seems to have been

TABLE 21. TYPE A SECONDARY GENERAL CURRICULUM OF 1935²⁶

FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
Literature (5) Composition (5) World History (4) Current Events (1) General Mathematics (5) Physical Education and Preparatory Military Training	Literature and Composition (5) General Science (5) United States (4) Current Events (1) 1st. semester Art Appreciation I (5) 2nd. " Vocational Survey and Home Econo- mics (six units of six weeks each) (5D) Physical Education and Preparatory Military Training
THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
Literature and Composition (5) Biology (5D) Advanced Arithmetic (5), 1st. sem. Oriental History (5) 2nd. semester Vocational Survey and Home Econo- mics (5D) Physical Education and Preparatory Military Training	Literature and Composition (5) Economics (5) Philippine History and Govern- ment (5) Current Events (1) Vocational Survey and Home Eco- nomics (5D) Physical Education and Prepara- tory Military Training
NOTE: Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of times class meets each week.	
D means double periods.	

the case in the elementary as well as in the secondary schools as could be visibly observed in the illustrative tables presented in this section. This trend readily indicates some of the associated effects of a centralized system of education in the Philippines.

²⁶ Adapted from the Bureau of Education Academic Bulletin, No. 4, Series 1934, pp. 7-10

TABLE 22. TYPE B SECONDARY GENERAL CURRICULUM OF 1936²⁷

FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
Literature (5) Composition (5) United States History and Govern- ment (4) Current Events (1) Algebra (5) Physical Education and Prepara- tory Military Training	Literature and Composition (5) General Science (5) General History (4) Current Events (1) Geometry (5) Physical Education and Prepara- tory Military Training
THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
Literature and Composition (5) Biology (5D) General History (4) and Current Events (1) 1st. semester Oriental History (4) and Current Events (1) 2nd. semester Advanced Algebra (5) 1st. semester Physical Education and Preparatory Military Training	Literature and Composition (5) Economics (5) Philippine History and Government (4) and Current Events (1) Physics (5D) Physical Education and Prepara- tory Military Training
<u>Optional Subjects:</u> Music Typewriting and Stenography Vocational work and Home Economics Art Appreciation I Art Appreciation II	<u>Optional Subjects:</u> Music Typewriting and Stenography Vocational work or Home Economics
NOTE: Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of times or periods class meets each week.	
D means double periods.	

²⁷Ibid, p. 10

TABLE 23. CURRICENT PRESCRIBED GENERAL SECONDARY CURRICULUM²⁸

FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
Grammar and Composition Reading General Science World History and Current Events National Language Exploratory Vocational Courses (for boys); General Home Economics (for girls) (D) Physical Education and Health Spanish I ^a	Grammar and Composition Reading General Mathematics United States History and Current Events (1), Oriental History and Current Events (2) National Language Vocational Courses (for boys); Home Economics (for girls) (D) Physical Education and Health Spanish II
THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
Literature and Composition and Character Advanced Arithmetic (1), Philippine Social Life and Current Events (2) Biology (D) National Language Vocational Education (for boys); Home Economics (for girls) (D) Physical Education and Health (for girls) Physical Education and Health and Preparatory Military Training (for boys) Spanish III	Literature and Composition and Character Economics Philippine History and Government and Current Events National Language Vocational Education (for boys); Home Economics (for girls) (D) Physical and Health Education (for girls) Physical and Health Education and Preparatory Military Training (for boys) Spanish IV

NOTE: The regular length of each period per subject is 40 minutes except where (D) indicates that the period is doubled.

(1) denotes first semester; (2) second semester.

^aSpanish is a required subject in the secondary curriculum, but because of the lack of qualified teachers, the subject has not yet been taught in many schools.

²⁸ Adapted from the Department Memorandum No. 5, series 1945.

3. Instructional Program and Materials

The associated effects of centralization likewise are manifest in the instructional program and materials used in the schools. While these programs and materials are determined more or less, by the educational objectives, the effectiveness of the whole program depends largely on the cooperation of the classroom teachers, school principals, supervisors, and field and office personnel of the Bureau of Public Schools and of the Department of Education. According to Fresnoza,

The unity in the instructional program results largely from the cooperative planning of the various promotional divisions of the General Office of the Bureau of Public Schools. Standards of attainment for all grades and years are listed in the course of study which are furnished to all classroom teachers.²⁹

In a system of schools such as that existing in the Philippines, the effects of a highly centralized plan are evident especially in the fact that even a model schedule of classes for each grade is prescribed by the General Office of the Bureau of Public Schools. A sample of a typical classroom program for the elementary grades appears in Tables 24 and 25 on page 103.

The general requirements of an instructional program, such as the prescribed subjects and electives, their assigned credits, sequence of offerings, and the time allotments for each subject, must be strictly complied with. Any change or alteration in the class program issued by the General Office must first be approved by said office. / Very little

²⁹Fresnoza, op. cit., p. 213.

TABLE 24. A TYPICAL CLASS PROGRAM FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES
(MORNING SESSION)³⁰

T I M E	S U B J E C T S
8:00 - 8:05 A.M.	Opening Exercises
8:05 - 8:25	Language and Spelling
8:25 - 8:45	Reading and Phonics
8:45 - 9:05	Arithmetic
9:05 - 9:20	Recess and free play
9:20 - 9:40	Social Studies
9:40 - 9:55	Music and Writing
9:55 - 10:10	National Language

TABLE 25. A TYPICAL CLASS PROGRAM FOR THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES
(MORNING AND AFTERNOON SESSIONS)³¹

T I M E	S U B J E C T S
8:00 - 9:00 A.M.	Academic Subjects
9:00 - 10:00	Industrial Arts or Home Economics
10:00 - 10:15	R e c e s s
10:15 - 11:00	Academic Subjects
11:00 A.M. - 2:00 P.M.	Intermission
2:00 - 4:00 P.M.	Academic Subjects and Study Periods
4:00 - 4:30	Physical Education

³⁰Adapted from Fresnoza's "Essentials of the Philippine Educational System", op. cit., pp. 213-14.

³¹Ibid, p. 214

revision, if any, is allowed. Each class program adopted by the classroom teacher must have the stamp of approval either of the principal or the district supervisor before it can be used. This policy, no doubt, has resulted in a highly standardized instructional program in practically every school within the system. On the other hand, the associated effects of this policy may be unifying and rendering more efficient the operation of the school program and contributing toward the improvement of instruction as a whole.

In the secondary schools, the class sessions are divided into forty-minute periods. A double session is allotted to subjects which require laboratory periods, such as biology, physics, and the vocational subjects. A typical secondary program is illustrated in the prescribed general secondary curriculum in Table 23 on page 101.

The instructional method most commonly used in the system of public schools follows the "assignment-study-recitation" type. The teacher supervises the assignment and the recitation of the lessons, while the students study the assignment in preparation for the following recitation. The recitation period is generally devoted to quizzing the pupils on what has previously been assigned.

Extra-curricular or co-curricular activities have been, since the early organization of the school system, an important part of the instructional program. These co-curricular activities are undertaken to promote personality-building habits and the proper use of leisure.

Textbooks are a very important part of the school materials in the Philippines. In keeping with the highly centralized organization of

education in the country, the selection and adoption of textbooks for both the public and private schools are vested in the Board on Textbooks, a subsidiary office of the Department of Education. From time to time, a list of approved textbooks is released by the Board on Textbooks. From this list, selections of texts for use in each grade or year in school may be made. Other instructional materials, such as, newspapers and magazines, outside reading materials, audio-visual aids, and the like, must be approved first by the director of public schools or the director of private schools, as the case may be, before they are used in classrooms for instructional purposes.

Obviously, then, the associated effect of centralization in the area of instructional program and materials enhances unity and efficiency in the operation of the school system and facilitates a general improvement of school instruction.

4. System of School Finance

The effect of centralization is perhaps most keenly felt in the method of financing public education in the Philippines. This section will trace and point out the increasing control of the government in supporting and maintaining the school system financially from the national treasury.

When the American Military authorities introduced the public school system in the Philippines, the Military Government assumed the financial responsibility of supporting the schools. Isidro attests to the fact that while a comparatively small amount was spent for public

education--less than three million pesos (\$1,500,000) from 1901 to 1905--the entire amount was borne by the insular government.³²

It will be noted that one of the significant provisions of the Organic School Law of 1901 was the establishment of local school boards, one of the primary functions of which was to make annual report to the municipal council of the amount of money to be raised by local taxation for school purposes.³³ Unfortunately, this provision did little if any toward helping the local schools financially. As a matter of fact, no significant result has been recorded of the achievements of the local school boards; either the provision was not enforced or the local school boards died a natural death. On the other hand, evidences tend to prove that more and more the Central Government assumed the financial support of the school system.

That local communities had no share in financing education is proved by the fact that no specific school tax was imposed on the Philippine people for the support and maintenance of public education. The absence of a direct school tax together with the lack of local initiative in carrying the financial burden of the school system, especially during the formative years of its organization, highly

³²Isidro, op. cit., p. 375.

³³Section 12, (d), of the Organic School Law. See Appendix A.

avored the adoption of the policy of centralization in the system of school finance.

In spite of the lack of adequate financial support from the local governments, a more or less centralized system of financing the school system had been adopted by the American government in its effort to extend the opportunity for education to as many of the common people as possible. Thus, in order to attain the objectives of providing for a universal education to the Philippine peoples, the central government has undertaken the major part of the school support.

At the time of the inauguration of the Commonwealth of the Philippines in 1935, its Constitution provided in Article XIV, Section 5, that "All educational institution shall be under the supervision of and subject to regulation by the State."³⁴ The implication of this provision indicates that education per se has become a legal function of the national government upon which the support of the public school system rests. Each year, a certain amount is appropriated for the support and maintenance of public education. This appropriation is derived from the general funds of the Philippine government.

Prior to 1939, public elementary education in the Philippines was maintained through joint support of the national and local governments, the national government contributing as much as two thirds of the cost of education through its general appropriations and the local

³⁴"Constitution of the Philippines", Bureau of Printing, Manila: 1948, p. 34

governments making up the balance. A revised method of school finance, however, was created with the passage of Commonwealth Act No. 381 in 1939. The new law provided that in lieu of the dual system of support, the national government would assume the full support of all primary schools, and the local governments of the intermediate schools. The Act also provided that the local government levy a school tax of not more than two pesos (\$1.00) on residents from eighteen to sixty years old, for the financing of intermediate schools.

The whole scheme failed, however, because of the inability of a number of municipalities to collect sufficient school taxes to maintain their intermediate schools. Moreover, many of the municipal councils were reluctant to levy the school tax, primarily, because of the economic conditions obtaining in many of the municipalities; and secondarily, because a general election was to be held during that year and no administration would gamble its political fortunes by levying a tax burden upon the people.³⁵ Besides, a great deal of opposition was aroused against the cedula tax or the school tax, which was reminiscent of the Spanish rule and which caused the Philippine Revolution to be declared and fought.

As a remedial measure, Commonwealth Act No. 513 was enacted appropriating the sum of 500,000 pesos (\$250,000) to help in the operation of the intermediate classes for the ensuing year. It was not until the passage of Commonwealth Act No. 586, otherwise known as the

³⁵Aldana, op. cit., p. 220.

Educational Act of 1940, that a new financial plan for the support of public schools was established.³⁶ The financial provisions, intended primarily for the support of public education, are contained in Section 8 of the Act which appears in Appendix B. The Educational Act of 1940 provides that the national government assume the full support and maintenance of all the public elementary schools, with the exception that the chartered cities are required to finance their own intermediate classes.

The revision of the elementary school program under the Educational Act of 1940 described in the previous section was undertaken primarily for the purpose of solving the financial "school crisis" which recurs from year to year and which the government has been unable to cope with heretofore. It was believed that this remedial measure would make possible the accommodation of more children in the public school and at the same time provide the necessary school funds with which to finance public education in the Philippines.

Based on the arguments presented above, the system of school finance was adopted for the following reasons: (1) there was no specific or direct school tax for the support of public education; (2) there was a gross lack of initiative on the part of local governments and officials to provide for the necessary financial aid in maintaining their own local schools; and (3) the Constitution of the Philippines made it mandatory that all educational institutions should

³⁶ Commonwealth Act No. 586 or The Educational Act of 1940. See Appendix B.

be under the supervision and control of the State; hence, the National Government has been obliged to assume the greater portion of the responsibility of supporting the public school system.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Summary and Conclusions

This study has a three-fold purpose as set forth in Chapter I: first, to review the events which led to the establishment of a centralized educational system in the Philippines; second, to trace the origins of the acceptance of a centralized pattern of education; and third, to delineate the associated effects of a highly centralized school system.

Contents of Chapter II

Chapter II dealt particularly with the series of events which led to the organization of a centralized system of education during the early years of the American Occupation of the archipelago. These events were recounted against a background of military events which occurred in connection with the Spanish-American war in 1898 as well as subsequent events during the military occupation and the civil government of the Philippines.

Reference was made in this chapter to the fact that at the termination of the armed conflict between Spain and the United States and upon the assumption of the American sovereignty over the Islands, educational activities were immediately undertaken. Schools were reopened shortly after the occupation of Manila on August 13, 1898. This was followed by the establishment of schools in the pacified areas of the archipelago.

In the adoption of an educational policy, American military personnel, like Captain Albert Todd, for instance, were instrumental in making several basic recommendations for the future organization of the school system in the Philippines. Captain Todd's recommendations as well as those of the Schurman Commission became the basis of the Organic School Law (enacted on January 21, 1901) which laid the foundation for the establishment of a centralized school system in the Philippines.

Contents of Chapter III

Chapter III was devoted to tracing the origins of the acceptance of the policy of centralization of education. Four fundamental reasons were discussed as contributory factors: (1) the diversity of the people and the geographical expanse of the numerous islands of the archipelago; (2) the three centuries of Spanish influence on the Philippine school system; (3) the influence of military personnel; and (4) the influence of the general policies and purposes of American civilian and military authorities.

Diversity of the People and Geographical Circumstances. The discussions in this chapter revealed that two conditions peculiar to the Philippine people and land called for the organization of a centralized educational system at the time of the Occupation. One of these conditions was the diversity of the people and their languages. Reference was made to the report of the first American census of 1903 which showed that the Filipinos did not constitute one people but rather a collection of tribal groups of varied racial origins each speaking its own language

or dialect. As a matter of fact, there existed a diversity of peoples and tongues. The other condition was the geographical circumstances of the 7,100 islands and islets which constitute the archipelago. These numerous islands were a natural barrier to communication among the inhabitants of the country.

Spanish Influence. Another factor which doubtless influenced the adoption of the policy of centralization was the background of the Spanish school system which was deeply rooted in a highly centralized organization and control during the three hundred years of Spanish rule in the Philippines.

Military Influence. It was pointed out further that at the outset of the American Occupation, the military were in control of the Islands. Undoubtedly, the American military authorities had taken a leading role in the formulation of policies both governmental and educational. The influence of the military might have gone in the direction of centralization which would be in keeping with military organization. Also military personnel were inclined to support centralization of education as an adjunct to their mission of pacification incident to the outbreak of the Philippine insurrection in 1899.

Influence of American Policies and Purposes. Lastly, a centralized system of education was adopted for the Philippines as a corollary to the attainment of broad policies and purposes of Americans in assisting to democratize the Philippine peoples and train them, through the medium of public education, in the art of self-government. The policy of

centralization, therefore, came about as a direct influence of both the military and civilian personnel in their efforts to achieve the ultimate and benevolent objectives of the United States in the occupation of the Philippines.

Contents of Chapter IV

Chapter IV was concerned with the associated effects of centralization in four selected areas: administrative organization and supervision, school curricula, instructional program and materials, and school finance.

Administrative Organization and Supervision. This chapter pointed out that as an associated effect of centralization in the realm of administrative organization and supervision, a trend toward a more precise and increasing degree of centralization and supervision of public education has developed. The nature of the organization of the present system of education as illustrated in Figures II, III, and IV clearly indicates a highly centralized structure.

School Curricula. The associated effect of centralization was indicated in the prescription of the subjects and courses of study in the public school curricula. Standardization and uniformity as well as the limitations of the curricula with respect to adaptation to local needs illustrated the effects of a centralized school system in the Philippines.

Instructional Program and Materials. Similar effects are likewise manifest in the instructional program of the public schools. This is evident in a particular way in the model class program which, with a very limited lee-way for alteration, are presently prescribed for each grade

of the elementary and secondary schools.

Another associated effect of centralization is shown in the selection and adoption of school textbooks over which the Board on Textbooks (at present a subsidiary office of the Department of Education, has exclusive right. Securing approval of the Director of Public Schools or of the Director of Private Schools before other instructional materials, such as, newspapers and magazines, outside reading books, audio-visual aids, and the like can be used further indicates an associated effect of centralized control of materials of instruction. The practice, to a large extent, contributes to enhancing unity and efficiency in the operation of the school system and also of facilitating a general improvement of instruction.

School Finance. Undoubtedly, the associated effect of centralization is evident also in the method of financing the school system inasmuch as the central government has assumed the major support of public education as now provided for in Commonwealth Act No. 586. The associated effect of centralization involving school finance was attributed to the fact that from the beginning of the American Occupation, there was no specific school tax nor local responsibility on financing schools. Following on this policy, the 1935 Constitution of the Philippines made it mandatory that the State (Philippine Government) should assume control and supervision of all educational institutions in the country. The implication of this constitutional provision, therefore, was that the Republic of the Philippines must assume the greater portion of the financial support of the centralized system of public education.

2. Recommendations

In view of the fact that this study was addressed to centralization of education in general, it is recommended that further and more detailed study be made of the following selected aspects of centralization:

(1) In each of the four areas, namely, administrative organization and supervision, school curricula, instructional program and materials, and school finance, with a view to answering such questions as the following:

Has centralized administration and supervision affected the quality of personnel?

Has centralization deterred the process of adapting instructional programs, materials, and curricula to local needs?

Has centralization affected support of education by reason of the fact that financing is carried out at the national level?

(2) The attitudes, impressions, and reactions of the 1,000 American teachers who were imported into the Philippines to set the educational system in operation, to answer the question as to what their effect was in respect to centralization.

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APPENDIX A

ACT NO. 74. -- AN ACT ESTABLISHING A DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS AND APPROPRIATING FORTY THOUSAND DOLLARS FOR THE ORGANIZATION AND MAINTENANCE OF A NORMAL AND A TRADE SCHOOL IN MANILA, AND FIFTEEN THOUSAND DOLLARS FOR THE ORGANIZATION AND MAINTENANCE OF AN AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL IN THE ISLAND OF NEGROS FOR THE YEAR NINETEEN HUNDRED AND ONE.

By authority of the President of the United States, be it enacted by the United States Philippine Commission, that:

Section 1. A Department of Public Instruction for the Philippine Islands, is hereby established, the central office of which shall be in the city of Manila. All primary instruction in the schools established or maintained under this Act shall be free.

Sec. 2. All schools heretofore established in the Philippine Islands, under the auspices of the Military Government, are hereby declared to be in the Department of Public Instruction established by section one and are made subject to the control of the officers of this Department.

Sec. 3. The chief officer of this Department shall be denominated the General Superintendent of Public Instruction and shall be appointed by the Commission. His annual salary shall be six thousand dollars. He shall have the following powers and duties, to be exercised and discharged under the general supervision of the Military Governor:

(a) He shall establish schools in every pueblo in the Archipelago, where practicable, and shall reorganize those already established, where such reorganization is necessary.

(b) He shall appoint, in accordance with Act Number Twenty-five, enacted October seventeenth, nineteen hundred, a City Superintendent of Schools for Manila, and division superintendents of schools for other parts of the Archipelago, and the teachers and clerks authorized by law, and shall prescribe the duties of such teachers and clerks.

(c) He shall fix the salaries of the division superintendents and teachers within the limits established by law.

(d) He shall fix a curriculum for primary, secondary, and other public schools and shall decide in what towns secondary schools shall be established.

(e) He shall divide the Archipelago into school divisions, not more

than ten in number, and shall fix the boundaries thereof, with power to change the same when necessary, but the city of Manila and its barrios shall constitute one of such school divisions.

(f) He shall prescribe the authority to be exercised by the principal teacher of each school over the other teachers, if any, and his duties in caring for the schoolhouse and school property.

(g) He shall prescribe plans for the construction of schoolhouses to be built by the municipalities, the amount of land required in each case, and rules of hygiene which shall be observed in connection with the schools of the Archipelago.

(h) He shall make contracts for the purchase of school supplies authorized by law, and, whenever practicable, he shall invite bids by public advertisement and shall award the contract to the lowest responsible bidder.

(i) He shall have power to determine the towns in which English teachers, to be paid out of the Insular treasury, shall teach. He may exercise this direction in favor of those towns showing their loyalty to the United States by their peaceful conditions, and in favor of those towns which shall construct and maintain suitable schoolhouses by local taxation or contributions.

(j) In case of a vacancy in the office of a division superintendent or that of the superintendent for Manila he shall discharge all the duties of such position during the vacancy, or may make a temporary appointment to fill the same.

(k) He shall examine and pass upon all requisitions made for funds by division superintendents and forward them, with his recommendation, to the Chief Executive for submission to the Commission.

(l) On or before January first and July first of each year he shall make a report of his administration for the previous six months to the Military Governor and to the Commission, and such special reports as may from time to time be called for by either. In the regular semi-annual reports, it shall be the duty of the superintendent to recommend changes in the school law which he deems expedient.

(m) He shall exercise general supervision over the entire department, and shall prepare and promulgate rules for the examination and determination of the qualifications of applicants for positions of division superintendents and teachers, and for the guidance of the officers and teachers of the department, adapted to carry out this law and not inconsistent with its provision.

Sec. 4. There shall be a superior advisory board of education composed of the General Superintendent and four members to be appointed by the Commission. It shall be the duty of the board to hold regular meetings once in two months, on a day to be fixed by resolution of the board, and such special meetings as shall be called by the General Superintendent. The General Superintendent shall act as president of the board. The chief clerk of the General Superintendent shall act as secretary of the board and keep minutes of its proceedings. It shall be the duty of the board to assist the General Superintendent by advice and information concerning the educational needs and conditions of the Islands; to make such investigations as the General Superintendent may desire and to make recommendations to the Commission from time to time as to needed amendments to the law. Each of the four members of the board, appointed by virtue of this section, shall receive as compensation ten dollars for each regular or special meeting which he shall attend. Any member of the board who is a non-resident of Manila shall be paid his actual expenses for travel from his residence to Manila and in his return and hotel expenses. Requisitions for the amount required to pay such compensation and expenses shall be made by the General Superintendent. The terms of office of the members of such board appointed under this section shall be for three years or until their successors are appointed and qualified.

Sec. 5. There shall be a City Superintendent of Schools in the city of Manila who shall receive an annual salary of three thousand dollars.

Sec. 6. In each school division established by the General Superintendent of Public Instruction, there shall be a division superintendent who shall receive an annual salary of not less than two thousand dollars and not more than twenty-five hundred dollars.

Sec. 7. The actual expenses of the General Superintendent and the division superintendents while traveling or absent from their usual places of residence on official business shall be paid out of the Insular Treasury.

Sec. 8. Except where otherwise provided, provisions of this act describing the duties and powers of division superintendents shall apply to the City Superintendent for Manila.

Sec. 9. Each division superintendent shall, subject to rules prescribed by the General Superintendent, under section three (m), appoint the native school teachers to serve in the schools within his district and shall fix their salaries from year to year within the limits prescribed by law. He shall examine the schoolhouses occupied for public instruction within his division with a view to determining their suitability and hygienic condition. Should the schoolhouse in which any

school is conducted appear to the division superintendent to be unsuitable and dangerous for the health of the children, and should no other schoolhouse be available, he shall have power, subject to the approval of the General Superintendent, to discontinue such school, and it shall be unlawful thereafter to use the schoolhouse thus condemned for public purposes. He shall pass upon and accept or reject or modify the plans for any new schoolhouse, proposed by the local authorities to be erected, and for the proposed site thereof, and shall make report of his action thereon to the General Superintendent of Public Instruction. If the local authorities or the local school board shall be dissatisfied with the decision of the division superintendent as to the suitability of the plans or site of the proposed schoolhouse they may appeal to the General Superintendent, whose decision shall be final. He shall make careful investigations into the agricultural conditions existing in his division and shall make report thereon to the General Superintendent of Public Instruction, with a view to aiding the General Superintendent, in making recommendations as to the places and number of agricultural schools hereafter to be established. He shall see to it by personal visits and by requiring reports from the principal teachers of each school that the curriculum for primary and secondary schools prescribed by the General Superintendent of Public Instruction is complied with. He shall make himself familiar with the supplies and textbooks needed in each school in his division, and shall make report of the same at as early a date as possible, in order that they may be contracted for and furnished by the General Superintendent. He shall appoint one-half of the local school board in each pueblo in his division, as provided in section ten. He shall have and maintain his residence and an office in one of the large towns in his division, from which all the pueblos in his district can be most conveniently reached.

Sec. 10. There shall be established in each municipality organized under any General Order of the Military Governor or under such municipal code as may be hereafter enacted, a local school board, consisting of four or six members, as the division superintendent may determine, in addition to the president or alcalde of the municipality, who shall be a member ex officio. One half of the members, except the ex officio, shall be elected by the municipal council, and the remaining half shall be appointed by the division superintendent, and the term of office of all members, holding by appointment or election, shall be two years and until their successors shall have been duly elected or appointed.

Sec. 11. The appointed or elected members of the local school board may, after due notice and hearing, be removed at any time by the division superintendent, subject to the approval of the General Superintendent of Public Instruction, who shall have power to suspend such members temporarily.

Sec. 12. It shall be the power and duty of the local school board:

(a) To visit from time to time the schools of the pueblo and to report bi-monthly to the division superintendent their condition and attendance of pupils.

(b) To recommend sites and plans to the municipal council for schoolhouses to be erected.

(c) Where there are two or more schools in the pueblo, to adopt rules, subject to the supervision of the division superintendent, for assigning the pupils of the pueblo to the several schools.

(d) To report annually to the municipal council the amount of money which should be raised for the current year by local taxation for school purposes.

(e) To report, whenever it shall deem necessary, directly to the General Superintendent as to the condition of the schools of the pueblo and to make suggestions in respect thereto as may seem to it expedient.

Sec. 13. Every pueblo shall constitute a school district and it shall be the duty of the municipal council thereof to make as ample provision as possible by local taxation for the support of all the schools established within its jurisdiction. In exceptional cases, where the topography of the country or the difficulty of communication between parts of the same pueblo require it, the division superintendent may attach a part of one pueblo to the school district of another and shall, in such case, fix the amount which it will be just for the municipal council of the former to contribute to the annual school expense of the latter.

Sec. 14. The English language shall, as soon as practicable, be made the basis of all public school instruction, and soldiers may be detailed as instructors until such time as they may be replaced by trained teachers.

Sec. 15. Authority is hereby given to the General Superintendent of Public Instruction to obtain from the United States one thousand trained teachers at monthly salaries of not less than seventy-five dollars and not more than one hundred and twenty-five dollars, the exact salary of each teacher to be fixed by the General Superintendent of Public Instruction in accordance with the efficiency of the teacher in question and the importance of the position held. The necessary traveling expenses of such teachers from their places of residence to Manila shall be paid by the Government.

Sec. 16. No teacher or other person shall teach or criticize the doctrine of any church, religious sect, or denomination, or shall attempt to influence the pupils for or against any church or religious sect in any public school established under this Act. If any teacher shall intentionally violate this section he or she shall, after due hearing, be dismissed from the public service.

Provided, however, That it shall be lawful for the priest or minister of any church established in the pueblo where a public school is situated, either in person or by a designated teacher of religion, to teach religion for one half an hour three times a week in the school building to those public school pupils whose parents or guardians desire it and express their desire therefor in writing filed with the principal teacher of the school, to be forwarded to the division superintendent, who shall fix the hours and rooms for such teaching. But no public school teachers shall either conduct religious exercises or teach religion or act as a designated religious teacher in the school building under the foregoing authority, and no pupil shall be required by any public school teacher to attend and receive the religious instruction herein permitted. Should the opportunity thus given to teach religion be used by the priest, minister or religious teacher for the purpose of arousing disloyalty to the United States or of discouraging the attendance of pupils at such public school, of creating a disturbance of public order, or of interfering with the discipline of the school, the division superintendent, subject to the approval of the General Superintendent of Public Instruction, may, after due investigation and hearing, forbid such offending priest, minister, or religious teacher from entering the public school building thereafter.

Sec. 17. There shall be established and maintained in the city of Manila a Normal School for the education of natives of the Islands in the science of teaching. The rules and plan for the organization and conduct of such school, and the qualifications of pupils entering the same, shall be determined by the General Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Sec. 18. There shall be established and maintained in the city of Manila a Trade School for the instruction of natives of the Islands in the useful trades. The powers and duties of the General Superintendent in respect to this school shall be the same as those provided in the section in respect to Normal School.

Sec. 19. There shall be established and maintained a School of Agriculture in the Island of Negros. The superior advisory school board shall recommend to the Commission for final determination a proper site for such school. The powers and duties of the General Superintendent in respect to this school shall be the same as those provided in the section concerning the Normal School.

APPENDIX B

COMMONWEALTH ACT NO. 586

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE REVISION OF THE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES INCLUDING THE FINANCING THEREOF.

Be it enacted by the National Assembly of the Philippines:

Section 1. This Act shall be known as the Educational Act of 1940.

Section 2. In order to meet the increasing demand for public elementary instruction and at the same time comply with the constitutional mandate on public education, a complete revision of the public elementary school system is imperative. Such a revision shall have the following objectives: (a) to simplify, shorten, and render more practical and economical both the primary and intermediate courses of instruction so as to place the same within the reach of the largest possible number of school children; (b) to afford every child of school age adequate facilities to commence and complete at least the primary course of instruction; (c) to give every child completing the primary course an adequate working knowledge of reading and writing, the fundamentals of arithmetic, geography, Philippine history and government, and character and civic training; and (d) to insure that all children attending the elementary schools shall remain literate and become useful, upright and patriotic citizens.

Section 3. The Department of Public Instruction shall forthwith make a revision of the elementary school curriculum so as to effectuate the objectives set forth in section two of this Act, and shall likewise so adjust the academic school year that the school vacations would coincide as much as possible with the working seasons in the Philippines. The revised elementary school curriculum once approved by the President of the Philippines shall be adopted in all the public schools as soon as practicable but not later than the commencement of the school year 1941-1942.

Section 4. With the approval of the President of the Philippines the required age for admission to the public elementary schools may be raised to not more than nine years and the length of time required for the completion of the elementary instruction comprising both the primary and intermediate courses reduced to not less than five years. Any increase that may be approved in accordance with this section regarding the minimum age of school children shall not affect those already enrolled before the school year 1940-1941.

Section 5. No child shall be admitted into the public elementary schools except on condition that he shall remain in school until he shall

have completed at least the primary course. Compulsory attendance as herein required may be waived in any one of the following cases: first, when the distance from the home of the child to the nearest school exceeds three kilometers and the said school is not conveniently accessible to the child, considering the means of transportation available; second, where such child is mentally defective or is physically unable to enter said school, of which fact a certificate of a duly licensed physician should be sufficient evidence; third, where on account of the economic condition of his parents, the child cannot afford to continue school; and fourth, when the child transfers to a private school.

The parents or guardians of those having control of children herein required to attend school who fail to keep said children in school without justification as prescribed in this section shall be liable to a fine of not less than twenty nor more than fifty pesos.

Section 6. To accommodate all children qualified to attend the elementary school as herein provided, the Secretary of Public Instruction may, with the approval of the President, authorize the holding of two or more complete single sessions a day, or adopt other measures calculated to take care of the largest number of school children.

Section 7. Commencing with the school year 1940-1941, public elementary education (comprising the primary and intermediate courses) shall be supported by the National Government: Provided, That the chartered cities shall continue to support all the intermediate classes within their respective jurisdictions, except that, with the approval of the President, the National Government may grant aid to such chartered cities as may not be financially able to provide fully for the support of their intermediate schools or classes.

Sites for schoolhouses, for primary and for intermediate classes, shall be required by the municipalities, municipal districts, or chartered cities, as the case may be, through purchase or conditional or absolute donation: Provided, That the Department of Public Instruction may, with the approval of the President of the Philippines, waive any requirement for the acquisition of school sites of standard size whenever the same are not available.

Matriculation fees in an amount to be determined by the President, but not exceeding two pesos for each pupil enrolled in the intermediate grades, may be collected in municipalities and municipal districts, the proceeds thereof to accrue to the funds of the National Government to be expended primarily for the purchase of library books and equipment, for financing athletic activities in the intermediate classes.

Section 8. To enable the National Government to properly finance the public elementary schools and meet the burden of their operation as

provided in this Act, from and after July first, nineteen hundred and forty, the disposition of the proceeds of the taxes under Commonwealth Act Numbered Four hundred and sixty-five, known as the Residence Tax Law, shall be as follows:

Of all the taxes collected and remitted to the Collector of Internal Revenue as provided in section eight of Commonwealth Act Numbered Four hundred and sixty-five, fifty per centum shall be allotted in the following proportions by the said Collector among the provinces, chartered cities, municipalities, and municipal districts on the basis of population as shown by the latest official census:

One-half to the general funds of the provinces. A sub-province shall receive its proportionate share of the proceeds allotted to the province; and

The other half to the general funds of the chartered cities, municipalities, and municipal districts.

Out of the remaining fifty per centum of the proceeds of said taxes, chartered cities shall continue to receive the corresponding share in the school fund of cities, municipalities, and municipal districts to which they were entitled under the provisions of law in force prior to July first, nineteen hundred and forty. The balance shall accrue to the National Government.

Similarly, the disposition of the proceeds of certain taxes under Commonwealth Act Numbered Four hundred and sixty-five, known as the National Internal Revenue Code, as referred to in sections three hundred and fifty-eight, three hundred and sixty, and three hundred and sixty-three thereof, shall be as follows:

- (a) Three-sevenths of the proceeds of the internal revenue percentage taxes on agricultural products prescribed in section one hundred and eighty-seven and one hundred and eighty-eight as well as the taxes due from proprietors or operators of rope factories, sugar central, rice mills, corn mills, coconut oil mills, and desiccated coconut factories prescribed in section one hundred and eighty-nine of said Code shall accrue to the National Government. The appropriation of the provincial allotment shall be based on population as shown by the latest official census.
- (b) Two and one-half per centum of the proceeds of the tax on estate, inheritance legacies, and other acquisitions mortis causa as well as gifts, shall accrue to the provinces, two and one-half per centum shall accrue to the municipalities, and the remaining ninety-five per centum shall accrue to the National Government.

The proceeds accruing to the provinces and municipalities shall be apportioned on the basis of population as shown by the latest official census.

Of the national internal revenue accruing to the National Treasury under section three hundred and sixty-two of the National Internal Revenue Code, there shall be set apart ten per centum as allotment to provinces, to be divided equally between their general and road and bridge funds: Provided, however, That instead of ten per centum only nine per centum shall be set apart as provincial, and road and bridge allotments, in the same proportion as specified herein, during the fiscal year 1940-1941; and ten per centum during the fiscal year thereafter.

The foregoing modified allotments of the proceeds of certain taxes under Commonwealth Act Numbered Four hundred and sixty-five, known as the National Internal Revenue Code, to the contrary notwithstanding, chartered cities shall continue to receive the corresponding shares in the municipal allotment to which they were entitled under the provisions of law in force prior to July first, nineteen hundred and forty.

Section 9. Effective July first, nineteen hundred and forty, the school fund in all the municipalities and municipal districts is dis-established and any amount therein remaining unexplored and unobligated on the date of the approval of this Act shall form part of the municipal general fund, and the moneys hitherto accruing to the municipal school fund by operation of law and not specifically transferred to the National Government shall, after June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and forty, accrue to the municipal general fund.

No tuition fees for intermediate instruction by municipalities and municipal districts shall be collected. Any tuition fees collected during the school year 1940-1941 for the maintenance of the intermediate classes shall be returned to the respective contributors.

Section 10. Commonwealth Act Numbered Three hundred and eighty-one, section eight of Commonwealth Act Numbered Four hundred and sixty-five, and sections three hundred and fifty eight, three hundred and sixty, and three hundred and sixty-three of Commonwealth Act Numbered Four hundred and sixty-six and so much of section three hundred and sixty-six of the last mentioned Act, and of other Acts as are in conflict with the provisions of this Act, are repealed.

Section 11. This Act shall take effect upon its approval.

Approved, August 7, 1940.

V I T A

Name: LUCENO L. QUIRANTE

Permanent Address: North Philippine Union Mission
P. O. Box 401, Manila, Philippines

Degree to be Conferred: Doctor of Education; Date: August, 1953

Date of Birth: April 2, 1913

Place of Birth: Tayabas, Quezon Province, Philippines

Secondary Education: Philippine Junior College

Collegiate Institutions Attended: Dates: Degree: Date of Degree:

Philippine Union College 1933-1936 B.S.E. October, 1936

Far Eastern University 1946-1947 M. A. April, 1947

Publications:

"The Educational Work of Seventh-day Adventists in the Philippines",
Ingathering Leaflet, Manila, 1950

"Religious Instruction in Public Schools", Mizpah, Manila, 1951

Positions Held:

Instructor, Philippine Union College Academy, Manila, Philippines

Instructor, Philippine Union College, Manila, Philippines

Principal, Philippine Union College Academy, Manila, Philippines

Principal, East Visayan Academy, Cebu City, Philippines

Educational Secretary, Philippine Union Mission, Manila, Philippines