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ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION IN
PHILIPPINE PRIVATE SCHOOLS DURING
THE JAPANESE OCCUPATION
1942-1945

BY
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A THESIS
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OMAHA, 1947
TO
THE MOST SACRED HEART OF JESUS
IN
WHOSE UNFAILING HELP WE TRUSTED
DURING THE HARD DAYS
OF THE
JAPANESE OCCUPATION
Grateful acknowledgment is hereby made to Reverend Mother M. Amadea Bessler, O.S.B., of St. Scholastica's College, Manila, Philippines, for giving the writer the opportunity of doing graduate work at The Creighton University; and to Reverend John J. Wood, C.S.V., for making her stay in the United States possible. The writer is also indebted to Doctor Daniel C. Sullivan, her major adviser, for his kind assistance and guidance; and to Sister M. Withburga Kilger, O.S.B., for her kind encouragement and help in procuring material for this thesis.
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"Pearl Harbor was bombed!" The newspapers and radios announced it; quivering lips passed on that dreadful news. That was on the morning of the feast of the Immaculate Conception, 1941. The people of the Philippines, horror-stricken, faced the stark reality that war had come to their very doors. The residents of Manila frantically evacuated to the provinces; students in the boarding schools who were from Luzon picked up some belongings and hurried home. Schools were closed, and many of them converted into hospitals. Air raids began; air fields, naval bases, and parts of the city rose in flames; and then, explosions, one after another, were heard. These explosions heralded a harder reality: the Filipino-American Army was retreating and the enemies were coming! Manila, a dead city, awaited the Japanese occupation troops on New Year's Day, 1942.

While echoes of the pounding of Bataan and Corregidor filled Manila and the neighboring provinces, people began to return to their homes which would otherwise be under complete control of the invaders or of the looters. Bataan fell! Corregidor fell! The famous Death March took place. Hopes for immediate liberation, kept aflame by news about heroic deeds in Bataan and
Corregidor, slowly waned. The people's faith in MacArthur's "I shall return" did not die; but they knew that its fulfillment would take more than several months. They must live while they waited. Parents did not know how to keep their children of school age busy. To give private lessons to each child at home was an impossibility in most cases. Thus, parents and pupils began to knock at the doors of schools. The school authorities were fully aware of the tremendous harm that would result from a prolonged inactivity of children. But many school buildings, public and private, were occupied by the Japanese Army or Navy; and at the same time everybody was conscious that no school could just open its doors to the students without first securing the new government's permission.

The Japanese Military Administration was not slow in providing for education. On February 17, 1942, while fighting was going on in Bataan and Corregidor, while the Visayan Islands and Mindanao were still waving the American and Filipino flags, the Instruction Concerning the Basic Principles of Education in the Philippines was sent to the Chairman of the Executive Commission. This brochure was transmitted to the Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare, which, in turn, made it the subject of the Department Circular No. 1, s. 1942, dated February 23, 1942. Instructions for implementing the Basic Principles were also given within the same circular.
Many a school authority stared at this three-page circular and realized that a hard task awaited educators during the Occupation. This famous circular revolutionized the whole educational system in the Philippines. Its contents and implications, with the subsequent changes in education that went hand in hand with the political changes, form the subject of this study.

There were few differences between public and private schools during the Japanese Occupation, in so far as the curriculum was concerned. There was a definite path traced upon which both private and public schools had to travel. The Executive Order No. 206 of the Executive Commission defined the terms "private schools or colleges":

The term 'private schools or colleges' as used in Section 38, Article VI, of Executive Order No. 4, dated February 5, 1942, shall be deemed to include any private institution for teaching, managed by private individuals or corporations, which is not subject to the authority and regulations of the Bureau of Public Instruction or of the University of the Philippines, or of the Bureau of Public Welfare. . . . .

The private schools in this discussion are only the "regular schools," that is, those that operated with permission or recognition of the established government. Many were the "private schools" in the far-away homes of evacuees who avoided contact with the new policies; many,

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1Executive Order No. 206, issued by the Chairman of the Executive Commission, Jorge B. Vargas, Malacañan Palace, Manila, Philippines, September 11, 1943.
too, were the "private schools" in the mountain homes of the guerillas; the concentration camps had their schools, too; but these "private schools" are not included in this study.

This work purports to give a picture of elementary and high school education in Philippine Private Schools during the Japanese Occupation. It will show that under the New Order, which Japan aimed to establish, the basic principles of education were diametrically opposed to those which had guided schools during the period of America's sovereignty over the Islands; that the curricula were purged of elements, which, according to the Japanese mind, might alienate the Filipinos to the cause of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere; that the Japanese language, ideals, and ways of life were made to take an important place in school life. Other changes made during that period, as well as those subsequent alterations brought about by Japan's granting the Philippines their "independence" in October, 1943, are treated in this paper. The writer hopes that those among the readers of this work who are interested in uplifting the standards of education in the Philippines will better understand the difficulties encountered at present by educators in the Islands; for many of these difficulties have their roots in the Japanese Occupation. Finally, this work aims to make a contribution, be it ever so little, to the history of education in the Philippines.
School permits, school programs, curricula, memoranda, and circular letters issued by the Bureau of Private Education are the main sources used in this study. The writer has also used notes made by herself or other teachers in her community, taken not only during the educational conventions, but also in the Normal Institute, a training school for teachers established under the Bureau of Public Instruction. In addition to these various sources of information, she has also used Japanese textbooks, magazine articles, and other informational materials. She has drawn upon her personal experiences as one of the first students of the Normal Institute, as a teacher throughout the Occupation period when she had many a chance to hear, and get acquainted with, the educational policies both of the Japanese Military Administration and of the Philippine Government.
CHAPTER I

SCHOOLS REOPEN

Better build schoolrooms for "the boy,"
Than cells and gibbets for "the man."

--Elisa Cook

The imperative need for reopening schools in the Philippines was strongly felt early in 1942 by both the conquerors and the conquered. The Japanese had carefully designed to "renovate" the schools in order to make them serve as agents for the propagation of their political and cultural ideals. Fully aware of the fact that by exercising the prerogatives of conquerors, they, and they alone, held the master-key which could open any school, the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces issued an order prescribing the basic principles of the new education in the Philippines.

The conquered people, although weighed down by the heavy exigencies that accrued from the invasion, were not blind to the demoralizing factors--ignorance was only one of them--that beset the children; therefore, they desired the reopening of schools. Authorities in charge of schools realized this situation; but they knew that drastic changes in the educational policies would be made.
Private schools, like the public schools, decided to choose the lesser evil and to swallow the "bitter pill" supplied by the Japanese, without which there would be no schools for Filipino children. The Catholic schools, moreover, were more than eager to get the children under religious influence during such a turbulent time, when moral dangers were rampant.

The Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare, in its Department Circular, No. 1, s. 1942, transmitted to the school authorities the Basic Principles of Education promulgated by the Japanese Government. These principles, because of their paramount importance during the Japanese Occupation, will be treated separately in the next chapter. In addition, the circular gave the schools implementing instructions, among which were the following:

Permission for re-opening schools shall be given in conformity with the following order:

(a) Reopening shall be started with the elementary grade [sic] and be gradually extended to the higher.

(b) Among higher grade institutions, normal schools, vocational schools, and those of natural sciences, that is, agriculture, fisheries, medicine, engineering, etc., shall be firstly [sic] reopened.

(c) Government and public schools shall be reopened earlier than private schools.

(d) Schools, administered or owned by the Chinese or any other hostile nationals shall not be reopened until further instructions. Proper consideration shall be rendered to the transfer of the
students and pupils of these schools to others.

When any school be reopened or permitted to be re-opened the report of all particulars shall be submitted to the Chief of the Japanese Military Administration.¹

On June 10, 1942, the Bureau of Private Education issued its first memorandum, which solved the problem of the promotion and credits of pupils who had been forced by the outbreak of the war to leave the previous school year uncompleted. Students in senior classes of the school year 1941-42 whose work from June or July to December, 1941, had been satisfactory were considered to have completed the requirements for graduation in March, 1942.² Elementary pupils who attended private schools regularly from July, or earlier, to December, 1941, and who had satisfactorily completed their work might be enrolled, upon receipt of the permit, to reopened private elementary schools in the next higher grade but should take up, during the first term of the school year 1942-43, the work that was missed or not completed in the preceding grade.³ Provisions were also made regarding the pupils in schools administered or owned by hostile nationals.

On the same day Memorandum No. 2 was issued,


³Ibid.
specifying other conditions for reopening of private elementary schools. Instruction No. 35 of the Director General of the Japanese Military Administration, stressing the compliance with regulations regarding textbooks by schools wishing to reopen was quoted. This memorandum likewise mentioned the prescribed course of study, which, as well as the changes in textbooks, will be discussed in detail in subsequent chapters. Changes, though expected, were none too easy for the private elementary schools. Other difficulties, such as the inspection of buildings partly occupied by the Army, meticulous perusal of the nationalities of the teaching staff, and many others, made harder by the language problem met in dealing with the Japanese officials, had also to be faced.

Paragraph six of the above-mentioned memorandum says:

As the application to reopen private elementary schools will be acted upon singly by this Office, no private elementary school will be allowed to function until the usual permit therefore has been received from the Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare.

Applications as prescribed were made; and at last, on June 15, 1942, some private schools in Manila received telephone calls from the Bureau of Private Education, announcing that the first permits for reopening private schools were ready. The following copy of Permit No. 5

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5Ibid., p. 2.
will illustrate the pressure on the private schools and
the conditions under which they were entitled to reopen
or could be kept open:

PHILIPPINE EXECUTIVE COMMISSION
Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare
BUREAU OF PRIVATE EDUCATION
Manila

PERMIT June 15, 1942
No. 5, s. 1942

In conformity with Order No. 2, dated February
17, 1942, of the Commander-in-Chief of the imperial
Japanese Forces in the Philippines and with Instruction No. 2, dated February 18, 1942, of the Director
General of the Japanese Military Administration, and
pursuant to Section 36 of Executive Order No. 4 of
the Chairman of the Executive Commission, the ST.
SCHOLASTICA'S COLLEGE in Manila, Philippines, is
hereby authorized to open and conduct

KINDERGARTEN COURSE
ELEMENTARY COURSE

This permit is given for one year only effective
upon the date of its issuance, provided that the
ST. SCHOLASTICA'S COLLEGE would use only such text-
books as have been authorized by the Director Gen-
eral of the Japanese Military Administration in his
Instruction No. 18, dated April 28, 1942, and would
follow the same curriculum prescribed for the public
schools. The kindergarten class shall not use any
textbooks.

It should be understood that this permit is sub-
ject to revocation at any time when the Commissioner
of Education, Health, and Public Welfare is satis-
fied that the ST. SCHOLASTICA'S COLLEGE has not com-
plied with the basic principles of education enun-
ciated by the Commander-in-Chief of the imperial
Japanese Forces in the Philippines, nor with instruc-
tion No. 18, dated April 28, 1942, or that the school
is not properly managed or does not carry out its
curriculum, or that the teachers and assistant instruc-
tors of said institution do not maintain the standards
hereinafter provided for or are incompetent in their
work, or that fraud has been committed in making the
application.
During the short, but eventful, Japanese Occupation of the Philippines, the private schools were kept, like the world about them, on a very insecure basis. At the beginning of each scholastic year all private schools had to ask for another permit to reopen, conditions for the granting of which were dependent on the government policies that were far from stable.

High school pupils were clamoring for admittance into schools; more than a year of vacation proved too long for them, who, during peace times, found vacations all too short. Following its fundamental principle to reopen elementary schools first, the Japanese Military Administration gave these schools one year's precedence, and on January 25, 1943, gave instruction regarding the reopening of private high schools. This instruction was quoted in Memorandum No. 3, s. 1943 of the Bureau of Private Education, the following sentence of which is indicative of the sort of schools the Japanese desired:

... in view of the policy to be pursued for the establishment of a new Philippines, a careful

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6Philippine Executive Commission, Bureau of Private Education, Permit No. 5, s. 1942, Manila, June 15, 1942.
selection shall be made even of those already established institutions in order to eliminate all educational enterprises of uncontrolled and irresponsible tendencies. 

The same memorandum gave the conditions for reopening of the private high schools. Provisions were made regarding the promotion of prewar pupils and the transfer of those who could not return to the schools they attended in 1941; the requirements were similar to those for the pupils of the elementary grades. "Schools should operate under a school year divided into 4 terms of 12 weeks each"; co-education was prohibited in the high school; and "no private high school shall be granted permit to reopen unless it can employ a qualified teacher to teach the Japanese language." 

Among the conditions set forth in this memorandum was the necessity for "a thorough inspection of the facilities of each high school applying for reopening." The respective private school officials had to go through a considerable amount of work in order to fill out the many forms and prepare the long lists required for the applications for reopening high schools. And yet most of these schools applying for permits to reopen had long

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8 Ibid.
9 Ibid.
10 Ibid., p. 3.
satisfactorily functioned during the American rule, some of them tracing their origins back to the early years of the Spanish regime.

Paragraph four of the same memorandum says:

Only applications for permit to reopen private schools that were in operation before the beginning of the hostilities in 1941 will be considered. Such applications should contain the following data:

a. The vocational courses that the high school will offer from among those listed in the inclosed curriculum.

b. The list in quadruplicate of the equipment and supplies available for each vocational course to be offered.

c. The list in quadruplicate of the equipment and supplies available for these subjects: (a) general science, (b) biology, (c) chemistry, and (d) physics.

d. The list in quadruplicate of faculty members, giving their (a) names, (b) nationality, (c) degrees obtained, (d) major and minor subjects taken, (e) subject assignment, and (f) experience in teaching.11

The Japanese had to be given the assurance of their sovereignty over private schools, and therefore, in addition to the data requested in paragraph four, a statement had also to be submitted, certifying:

a. That the private high school director or head is willing to follow the basic principles of education enunciated in Order No. 2, dated February 17, 1942, of the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces in the Philippines and in Instruction No. 2, dated February 18, 1942 and Instruction No. 29, dated January 25, 1943, of the Director General of the Japanese Military Administration,

b. that no enemy nationals will be employed in the teacher [sic] staff or other personnel of his school; and

c. that no portion of the school building or

11Ibid., p. 2.
buildings or school premises are occupied by the Japanese Military authorities.\textsuperscript{12}

The first permits for reopening of private high schools were issued during the last days of March, 1943; the schools in Manila, naturally, got them first, those of the provinces followed later. Many private high schools could not reopen, or opened only the first two years of the course, because chemistry, which was not a compulsory subject in the high school before the war, was made compulsory in the third year. Adequate laboratory equipments were unobtainable or too costly. However, one high school after another began to reopen; and teachers and pupils who were willing to shoulder the yoke imposed by the new government met in their old or newly-improvised classrooms.

"Independence" offered and promised in the early days of the Occupation was granted to the Philippines in October, 1943. That it was no real independence was very apparent to any thinking person; yet, it resulted in changes in the government which gave the Filipinos an opportunity to get a better grip on the helm of government. The Republic of the Philippines was established; and President Jose P. Laurel made known the educational policies of the new government. On May 23, 1944, the Bureau of Private Education, under the Ministry of Education headed by Camilo Osias, transmitted these policies to the

\textsuperscript{12}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 3.
private schools in its Memorandum No. 8 of that year. The next day the same Bureau sent out, for the "information and guidance" of private schools, the statement of the Minister of Education, "Our Educational and Cultural Orientation," which will be discussed in the next chapter.

Once more the schools had to confront changes—they were many and varied—and as was expected, they received another Memorandum, dated May 29, 1944, announcing the expiration of existing permits and recognitions. It reads as follows:

In view of the new educational reforms and requirements announced by the Administration in Executive Orders No. 206, dated March 31, 1944, all permits and recognitions hitherto granted to private schools, colleges and universities to operate classes shall automatically expire on July 24, 1944, which has been set in Executive Order No. 54 as the opening date for the school year 1944-1945. In order to continue operation for the coming school year, private schools, colleges and universities must file a new application for permit [sic] to operate any course or courses. In filing such application the requirements in the three Executive Orders already referred to above, copies of which were sent to private schools directors in a letter dated May 18, 1944, should be consulted.

The necessary application forms for these permits are being sent to private educational institutions in a letter dated May 25, 1944. These forms should be accomplished in time to reach this Office on or before June 15, 1944.

Schools were again technically closed, and the hard task of applying for reopening had to be repeated. Voluminous application papers sent to the schools had

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13 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 11 s. 1944, Manila, May 29, 1944.
to be worked out. These papers which formed the "Petition for the Reopening of a School, College, or University" required data concerning general information about the school, including the special reasons for the reopening of the particular course; composition of the governing board; teaching staff--nationality, attainment, teaching experience, compensation, subjects to be taught; curriculum and the time schedule of each class; plant facilities; library facilities, with the list of all library books; financial and other resources; instructional and laboratory facilities, equipment, and supplies. Each teacher had still to fill out a form regarding her record. Undoubtedly, school authorities were kept busy for days and nights.

Permits to reopen schools in 1944 were issued by the Ministry of Education; these were no longer based on the "principles" and "instructions" of the Japanese Military Administration, but granted by virtue of the Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines. Giving due importance to the national language, all official papers--hence, also school permits--were in English and Tagalog. The following Permit No. 22, a permit granted to a high school which was originally authorized in 1913, and again in 1943, shows the changed conditions for reopening of private schools:

14 Bureau of Private Education, Form I-A, Revised May, 1944.
Permit

Blg. 22, taong 1944
No. s. 1944

Sa bisa ng Pangkat ika-10, Alituntuning ika-
By virtue of Section 10, Article

IX ng Saligang-Batas ng Republika ng Pilipinas at
IX of the Constitution of the Republic of the

ng mga tatays at kautusang sumasaklaw sa pagtatatag
Philippines and the laws and orders governing the

ng mga paaralan, daluthasaan, a pamantasang sarili,
organization of private schools, colleges, and

ang
universities, the

ST. SCHOLASTICA'S COLLEGE
Manila

ay pinahihintulutang makapagtukas at makapagturo ng
is hereby authorized to open and offer the regular

FOUR-YEAR GENERAL SECONDARY COURSE FOR GIRLS

Ang pahintulot na ito ay may bisa sa loob ng
This permit shall be valid for a period of

isang taon lamang mula sa ika- 24 ng Hulyo, 1944
one year only effective July 24, 1944

at maaaring tawin sa ano mang oras kailanman't
and shall be subject to revocation at any time the

walang alinlangang nakilala ng Kagawad-Bansa sa
Minister of Education is convinced that the

Pagtuturo na ang ST. SCHOLASTICA'S COLLEGE

ay di nakatupad sa alinman sa mga tatays, kautusan
has failed to comply with any of the laws, orders,

at tuntuning ukol sa pangangasiwa at pamamanihala
and regulations pertaining to the administration
Rumors of the coming liberation began to be intensified and more assuring. Schools in Manila, which, after great efforts, had received their permits to reopen, had a school population that varied in number according to the vacillating decisions of the people regarding their residences. A number of pupils who had asked for credentials and gone elsewhere to live came back because their parents, not finding better security in the provinces, decided to return to the city.

On July 25, 1944, the Bureau of Private Education informed the private schools that telegrams had been sent by the President to the Provincial Governors and Superintendents of Public Schools volunteering to place the school buildings at the disposal of the Japanese Army when so requested. Indeed, the great problem for school administrators during that time was how to keep

\[15\] Bureau of Private Education, Permit No. 22, s. 1944.

\[16\] Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 19, s. 1944, Manila, July 25, 1944.
the school buildings from the Japanese Army or Navy.

It happened frequently that, without any previous notice, a Japanese officer demanded the use of a school building and, on being remonstrated with, retorted, "War first, then education!"

By the beginning of September, the Filipino government showed its awareness of the precarious situation of the Islands. Conscious of the advance of the Liberator s, of the Army's occupation of many school buildings, and of the acute difficulties in transportation, the government provided for emergency classes. Two years earlier, and even just some months preceding the date of Memorandum No. 26, September 5, 1944, a long list of requirements had to be fulfilled before any school could be reopened. But this memorandum authorized any Filipino elementary or secondary teacher to organize or to conduct emergency classes. Certain conditions were prescribed for such schools; the teacher had to make a report about the school to the Director of Private Education; he could teach only such subjects and conduct such classes or grades for which he had the necessary training and teaching experience; he must follow a definite prescribed curriculum. There were other requirements also.

The reasons given for the establishment of


18 Ibid.
emergency classes clearly reflect the critical condition
of the time and the need of keeping schools open as long
as conditions, however untoward, allowed:

In order to continue the education of children
of school-age who cannot now go to school because
of the dearth of school buildings; forestall the
development of serious social problems and juvenile
delinquency due to idleness; provide employment to
a large number of teachers who cannot now teach in
the public or private schools; and minimize the
difficulties of transportation especially in the
City of Manila, emergency classes . . . . may be
conducted . . . . 19

On September 21, 1944, while the schools, which
were still open in Manila, were busy at their recita-
tions, the humming of planes, which sounded different
from the Japanese airplanes, caused excited, enthusiastic
groups to scan plane formations aloft. The consequ-
ent warning of the sirens sent the people, including
the school children, running to their air-raid shelters;
many of them, forgetting that they risked their lives,
peeped out in order to see the "show." "They are div-
ing!" "How well they dive!" Such were the cries of
many, husked or stimulated to a higher pitch by the
dropping of bombs and the subsequent shaking of walls
and breaking of windows. Yes, it was no longer the mere
"practice" alert that had been officially announced in
the papers for that day. The Liberators made their
first appearance. Pupils went home during the lulls be-
tween air-raids which continued the whole day, many of

19 Ibid.
them no more to return to their old school buildings. Schools in the provinces were closed according to the progress of the war of liberation. A few schools in peaceful, undisturbed places, being unmolested, were kept open, and continued their classes after the Libera­tors arrived. Such, however, was not the fate of most private schools, especially those in the cities, which were closed and reduced to ashes.
CHAPTER II

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION

Educational relations make the strongest tie.

--Cecil John Rhodes

The following letter of the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces in the Philippines sent to the Chairman of the Executive Commission, during a time when Japanese sovereignty over the Islands was still ably challenged in Bataan, formed the basis of the radical changes made in the system of education in the Philippines during the Occupation:

February 17, 1942

Mr. Jorge B. Vargas,
Chairman of the Executive Commission of the Philippines,
Manila

Instruction concerning the Basic Principles of education in the Philippines

In compliance with the following principles, utmost efforts should be made to renovate the education in the Philippines.

1) To make the people understand the position of the Philippines as a member of the East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, the true meaning of the establishment of a New Order in the sphere and the share which the Philippines should take for the realization of the New Order, and thus to promote friendly relations between Japan and the Philippines to the furthest extent.
2) To eradicate the old idea of the reliance upon the Western nations, especially upon the U.S.A. and Great Britain, and to foster a new Filipino culture based on the self-consciousness of the people as Orientals.

3) To endeavour to elevate the morals of the people, giving up the over emphasis of materialism.

4) To strive for the diffusion of the Japanese language in the Philippines, and to terminate the use of English in due course.

5) To put an importance to the diffusion of elementary education and to the promotion of vocational education.

6) To inspire the people with the spirit to love labour.

Note: In order to popularize the Philippine National Language, Tagalog, proper means should be taken as early as possible, after a study by the Institute of National Language in the Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare.

Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces in the Philippines

Claro M. Recto, Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare, by virtue of his office, had been repeatedly called upon to comment on these basic principles. He was among those who had to pay lip-service to the conquerors. His book written in 1946 speaks of "collaboration in words only"; and about the co-prosperity sphere he says, "But everybody knew that the term 'co-prosperity sphere,' as the Japanese envisaged it, was an ironic misnomer. . . . ."

1Quoted in the Department Circular No. 1, s. 1942, of the Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare, Manila, February 23, 1942.

Conference on June 19, 1942, he said:

You are no doubt already familiar with the basic principles of education in the Philippines announced by His Excellency, the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces. These principles are six in number, but by far the most important of them is that which relates to the position of the Philippines as a member of the East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. . . . This is the focal idea to which, it may be said, the other principles are merely corollary. The eradication of the old idea of reliance upon the western nations . . . all these are calculated to promote the self-consciousness of the Filipinos as an Oriental people and their individuality as a nation, with a definite place and role to perform in the New Order among East Asiatic nations.

The Bureau of Private Education transmitted Commissioner Recto's interpretation of the first basic principle to private schools "for the information and guidance of directors and teachers engaged in private school work." It is interesting to note that the Commissioner had to make use of explanations given by Japanese authorities to the meaning of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere "according to these leaders." The following is an excerpt of one of his addresses:

What is the meaning of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, as the leaders of Japan have conceived and expounded it? Mr. Tatsuo Kawai, formerly spokesman of the Japanese Foreign Office, gives us the answer--the same that is given by many other distinguished public men in Japan, such as Mr. Shingoro Takaishi, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Osaka Mainichi, and the eminent author,

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Dr. Seiji Hishida. According to Mr. Kawai, the idea of Co-Prosperity in East Asia carries no thought of domination, but envisages universal concord on the basis of freedom, equality, and mutual respect. Japan, he says, does not desire to prosper at the expense of the rest of the Asiatic countries, but seeks to find in the common prosperity of the whole of Asia her own happiness and well-being. . . . Co-Prosperity does not involve absorption or annexation, nor is it to rest upon a relationship between conqueror and conquered. It means, in the word of this eminent Japanese spokesman, 'a federation of independent states for a common ideal—a combination calculated to promote individual development of the members of the Sphere as well as the harmony of the whole,' because, if I may quote Dr. Hishida, 'it is with a chivalrous spirit that Japan is now leading her sister nations in Asia to a higher plane of political, social and moral responsibility.'

In another address he said:

On the basis of a recent statement of Baron Kinmochi Okura, member of the Japanese House of Peers, we may conclude that the following cardinal principles will guide our relations with Japan and with the other countries comprising the Co-Prosperity Sphere, under Japanese guidance and leadership: First, independence of the Philippines; second, common defense; third, economic solidarity; fourth, promotion of Greater East Asia culture; fifth, formation of Oriental thought; and sixth, universal brotherhood. Speaking of economic solidarity, Baron Okura said that 'all nations within the co-prosperity sphere should be so organized as to achieve mutual existence and prosperity.'

The teachers in their respective classrooms told the pupils about the Co-Prosperity Sphere, "Universal Brotherhood," and "New Order." Most of them based their knowledge on the above-mentioned memorandum. Both teachers and pupils had to memorize these basic principles;

5Ibid., pp. 1-2.
6Ibid., p. 3.
and the Bureau of Education, in order to ascertain what the private schools were doing, sent out supervisors who tested the pupils on the "Basic Principles." During the school-year 1943-44, the Basic Educational Principles could be taught in connection with Character Education and Citizenship Training.  

These principles were carefully and elaborately explained to the teachers who studied in the Normal Institute, a school established for the training of teachers in accordance with the above-mentioned principles of education. Basic Principles of Education was one of the subjects taught in this Institute, the teaching of which was under the close supervision of the Japanese Military Administration. It would require too much space to enlarge upon these principles as the Japanese conceived them, and therefore, only striking passages will be mentioned in this paper; other significant implications will be mentioned in later chapters.

In this course, explanations were made concerning the "true meaning and correct implications of the establishment of the New Order in East Asia"; the significance—political, economic, and cultural—of the East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere; imperialism in East Asia as practiced by the Western nations; justification of Japan's waging the war; possible contributions of each

member of the Sphere for the greatest good of the "Universal Brotherhood"; the share of the Philippines in the realization of the New Order; all these as viewed by minds illumined by the ambition to give the descendants of Amaterasu Omi-Kami, the sun-goddess of the Japanese, a chosen place in the hierarchy of the world powers.

The geographical scope of the planned Co-Prosperity Sphere is both enlightening and interesting. Premier Hideki Tozyo gave the world a chance to know the far-reaching ambitions of Japan:

The best single source of information on the countries included in the sphere is Premier Hideki Tozyo's address to the Imperial Diet on January 21, 1942. In this address Premier Tozyo clarified the objectives of Japan in waging the Greater East Asia War. He mentions the following regions as component units of the sphere:

1) Japan 5) French Indo-China 9) Philippines
2) China 6) Thailand 10) Dutch E. Indies
3) Manchukuo 7) Malaya 11) Australia
4) Hongkong 8) Burma 12) India
5) French Indo-China 13) Oceania

The conglomerate character of the Filipino culture was discussed, and possible means "to foster a new Filipino culture based on the self-consciousness of the people as Orientals" were suggested. A short study was made about the cultures of the Oriental peoples, that of Japan being, naturally, given emphasis; facts were presented and reiterated to point out Japan's "benevolent"

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8Notes taken by the writer in the Normal Institute, August-December, 1942.
9Ibid.
role of "the stabilizing force of East Asia and as the
defender of the Sphere from outside aggression and en­
croachment." The lecture on "The New Filipino Culture"
concluded in part with the following:

Having thus examined the various sources of a
Filipino code of ethics, the time is ripe to pro­
pose measures for a spiritual renovation. It will
be necessary to:
1) evolve a new Philippine culture based on
our inherent nature as Orientals;
2) revise false concepts of morality and harm­
ful forms of conduct caused by our contact
with the West.

These suggestions are, however, negative in char­
acter; and positive measures in order to help us face
the future with minds undimmed and hearts undaunted
should be adopted. They include the drafting of a
statement of those virtues most useful in the New
Order in East Asia, including those moral quali­
ties, which, according to the scholarly investiga­
tions of Teodoro Kalaw, were most highly prized by
our forebears--courage, self-reliance, courtesy,
honesty, and love of home.10

Japan was presented as the never-failing inspira­
tion to a new Philippines:

Japan's phenomenal rise from a hermit nation to
a world power in spite of her large population, her
limited area, and her lack of raw materials, should
serve as an inspiration to a new Philippines in her
efforts towards reconstruction.11

The educational system of Japan was studied thor­
oughly since it was to be the "model" for that of the
Philippines. The students were astounded when they heard
that there was a Training Institute of Colonization; and
many of them gasped when they had to write on their

10 Ibid.

11 Ibid.
papers about the South Sea Colonization Practice Course. How well armed were our conquerors, our leaders in the Co-Prospereity Sphere? Is it to be doubted that the students remembered the Japanese in Davao and in the Philippine deep waters before the war? Here is what was said about that colonization course:

Every summer since 1933 there has been given a practice course in South Sea Colonization as an educational measure regarding emigration and colonization. The course is intended to foster in pupils of agricultural and fishery schools a spirit of overseas enterprise and adventure, by sending them to the South Sea so that they may learn by experience on the spot. The term of training extends from one month and a half to two months, inclusive of the trip both ways. The pupils, from thirty to thirty-five in number are selected from among the boys in the highest classes of the agricultural and fishery schools who are not eldest sons, and who are firmly resolved to seek fortune in the South Sea, and who are recommended by their respective prefectural governors.12

The hoisting of the Filipino flag and the lowering of Japan’s Hinomaru in the "independent" Philippines relegated the above-mentioned basic principles to an apparent insignificance; other principles supplanted them though their influence was still felt. President Jose P. Laurel aimed at educational reforms along definite lines. Before the reunion of Filipino educators on April 17, 1944, he announced:

The existing system of education in the country has failed to meet the most urgent and pressing needs of national life, and to organize and direct its forces and tendencies into proper channels. . . . . There is, therefore, a demand for the

12 Ibid.
improvement of the present system of education by a more constructive and human system, which will be better integrated with the need and ideals of national life and better able to meet its pressing demands. Any scheme of education designed for Filipino children must in some respects differ from that adopted elsewhere.13

He spoke of the National Education Board which studied and recommended the necessary reforms in the existing system of education. The following shows the trend of changes planned by the new government:

In line with the recommendation of the National Education Board, I issued Executive Order No. 10 on November 30, 1943, (1) prescribing certain essential qualifications for teachers in the public and private schools, colleges and universities, which requirements envision the promulgation of a code of professional ethics for teachers; (2) ordering the teaching of the national language in all public and private high schools, colleges, and universities, including the training of national language teachers on a large scale, so that the national language may become the principal medium of instruction throughout the schools and universities as soon as practicable; and (3) regulating the administration of private schools so as to require the governing board of every school, college or university to be composed of a majority of Filipino citizens, and subjecting the fixing of the rates of tuition and other fees as well as salaries of teachers, instructors and professors, to the approval of the Minister of Education.14

Concerning a Filipino Civic Code which he wished to be used as textbook in all schools, he said:

... a Filipino Civic Code for use as textbooks in all schools and to serve as guide for

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13Statement of His Excellency, President Jose P. Laurel before the reunion of Filipino educators on the Educational Policies of the Republic of the Philippines, April 17, 1944. Inclosure to Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 8, s. 1944, p. 1. Manila, May 23, 1944.

14Ibid., pp. 1-2.
Filipino citizens, stressing the teachings and examples of the national heroes on the cultivation of native virtues such as patriotism, fortitude, civic courage, self-reliance, industry, frugality, honor, justice, love of truth, and faith in Divine Providence.  

He continued:

The primary or elementary course should be made as rich and complete as possible so as to make the primary or elementary school a real university for the masses. This should be the case because the masses have no opportunity to pursue higher education for many reasons, either because they are too poor or because they have to engage early in life in the actual pursuit of earning a living. The Filipino boy or girl who finishes these veritable universities for the masses must meet the following two-fold requirements for which the primary grades must have prepared them: (1) character education, and (2) vocational education.

Camilo Osias, after his induction into office as Minister of Education, proclaimed his views regarding the educational and cultural orientation of the Philippines before the Directors of Bureaus and Chiefs of Offices of the Ministry of Education. He said:

I have more than once before shown that all education in the Philippines should aim at securing for Filipinos the greatest possible measure of efficiency, self-direction, and happiness.

Not forgetting Japan's leadership in the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, he continued:

One source of strength of the educational system of Japan, indeed of the Empire itself, is the clear

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15Ibid., p. 2.
16Ibid., p. 3.
definition and continuity of its educational policy. ... Under the Republic of the Philippines we must take the ideology of the Constitution for our guide and orientation, especially, Article IX, Section 10. ... 18

Here is what the Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines says about education:

All educational institutions shall be under the supervision of and subject to regulation by the State. The government shall establish and maintain a complete and adequate system of national education, and shall provide at least free public elementary instruction, and citizenship training to adult citizens. All schools, colleges, and universities shall aim to develop moral character, personal and collective discipline, civic conscience, and vocational skill, secure social efficiency, and teach the duties of citizenship. Optional religious instruction shall be maintained in the public schools as now authorized by law. The State shall create scholarships in arts, science, and letters for specially gifted citizens. 19

The Minister of Education gave what, to his mind, "are the main pillars of the educational and cultural structure" which the Filipinos should build in the following:

... a balanced educational program for the country should include activities classifiable under four large categories, namely, (1) character education including moral, spiritual, and citizenship training, (2) a workable, practical, and really useful vocational training and instruction, (3) a well-coordinated system and vigorously pursued program of physical and health education. 20

The educational provision of the Constitution,

18 Ibid.


20 Osias, op. cit., p. 2.
together with the views of the President and the Minister of Education which were quoted above in part, left their imprints on the whole educational system during the latter part of the Japanese Occupation, that is, during the span of life of the erstwhile Republic of the Philippines within the "Co-Prosperity Sphere."
CHAPTER III

BOOKS

Books cannot always please, however good.

--George Crabbe

Apart from the promulgation and enforcement of the Basic Principles, no other phase of the "renovation" of education in the Philippines was stressed by the Japanese so much as the control and surveillance of the books in circulation. This policy was especially pronounced during the initial phase of the Occupation. The permit for the reopening of a school, which was cited in Chapter I, illustrates the emphatic and forbidding regulations concerning the use of textbooks. The permit was given only under the condition that the school would use no textbooks except those that had been authorized by the Director General of the Japanese Military Administration. Instruction No. 18--regarding textbooks--occupied first place among the enumerated conditions, which, if not followed, would subject the permit to revocation.¹

Why did the Japanese place such an accent on books? The Philippines is an Oriental country, which, unlike its Asiatic neighbors, had never sealed its ports

¹See Chapter I, p. 5.
and minds and ways of life against the impact of Western civilization. The flow of visible and invisible imports from the West dates back to 1521, when the first Spaniards came to the Philippines and claimed the Islands for the King of Spain. The Americans came in 1898, and, under the Stars and Stripes, the Filipinos learned to idolize democratic ideals, and for these same ideals many of them gave up their lives in battles with the new rulers of the Philippines. Books and other publications bristled with exaltations of democracy and references to the United States of America and other Western nations. It could not have been otherwise. With all these facts in their minds, and with their determined purpose of eradicating the old idea of reliance on the Western nations among the Filipinos, it is not surprising that the Japanese resorted to various means in order to make the reading materials of the Filipino people in accordance with their doctrines and plans.

It seems that no single record is more illuminating on the Japanese policy regarding books in the Philippines than the following:

**TRANSLATION**

April 17, 1942

Order No. 11

Jorge B. Vargas, Esq.
Chairman, Executive Commission
Manila

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2Second basic principle of education. See p. 18.
RE: ORDER CONCERNING THE INSPECTION OF BOOKS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS:

You are hereby ordered to take necessary steps in order that a survey of all books and other publications which are kept in libraries of schools, colleges and universities, except those kept in the libraries which are now occupied or sealed by the Imperial Japanese Forces, shall be conducted in accordance with the principle hereinafter mentioned, and that those which are found to be improper after the survey shall be sent over to the Office of Japanese Military Administration.

All books and other publications already published whose content comes within the purview of the following, shall be confiscated after due inspection.

1. Those that are written for anti-Japanese propaganda purposes;
2. Those that propagate democracy and aim at alienating axis powers from one another;
3. Those that repudiate war;
4. Those that are in contradiction with the fundamental principles of the Philippine educational renovation;
5. Those that are improper in the enforcement of military administration.

DIRECTOR-GENERAL
Japanese Military Administration

The above was transmitted to the private schools with the injunction:

Pending the completion of this survey, all school libraries should be closed and no supplementary readers, library books, and other publications which have not been approved are to be placed in circulation until further instructions.

An announcement regarding textbooks had been made at an earlier date:

3Inclosure to a letter of the Director of Private Education to the directors of private schools, Manila, June 9, 1942.

4Letter cited above.
New text-books shall be compiled in the near future, in order to meet with the changed circumstances, but for the time being the old ones shall be permitted for the purpose of instruction after improper and unsuitable parts of them being eliminated by the Text-book Examining Committee, consisting of Japanese and Filipino experts.  

Compilation of new books is a long and arduous task and with the exception of the Japanese readers and Japanese song books no new textbook was published during the Occupation. It was evident that old ones had to be used and, accordingly, the Textbook Examining Committee worked hard in order to find the "improper and unsuitable parts" in them. The textbooks claimed the Committee's first attention. Next came the supplementary readers and then the library books. By the time of the reopening of the elementary grades in June, 1942, lists of "approved" and "prohibited" textbooks were available.

There are many evidences of the singular importance allotted to textbooks by the Japanese government. Several instructions of the Director-General of the Japanese Military Administration to the Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare point to this fact. The famous Instruction No. 18, repeatedly quoted by both Japanese and Filipino authorities, and Instructions No. 49 and No. 62--also bearing on textbooks--end with the same sentence: "The utmost care should be exercised in

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dealing with the matter to renovate education in the
Philippines in order to meet the changed circumstances."6
These Instructions likewise testify to the Japanese no-
tion of the close relation of textbooks to the "renova-
tion" of education in order to meet, what was briefly
described as "the changed circumstances."

When the Japanese Military Administration gave
authority for reopening private elementary schools, the
condition laid down gives us a further indication of the
significance textbooks had in the new educational plan:

In case the private elementary schools in the
Philippines want to reopen, the permission shall
be given to them after you have instructed them to
use nothing but the textbooks which was [sic] desig-
nated by Instruction No. 18, dated April 28, 1942
to be used in the public elementary schools in the
Philippines.7

The above was supplemented by pertinent instruc-
tions from the Bureau of Private Education and among
them were the following:

The Directors of private schools will note from
the foregoing that the private elementary schools
are authorized to use only such textbooks as have
been approved for the public elementary schools.

The circulation of all prohibited textbooks,
reference books, supplementary readers, and other
books which have not been approved is hereby banned.8

6Instructions of the Director General of the Jap-
anean Military Administration to the Commissioner of Edu-
cation, Health, and Public Welfare, Manila: No. 18,
April 28, 1942; No. 49, July 11, 1942; No. 62, August 3,
1942.

7Instruction No. 35, May 31, 1942.

8Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 2,
Before the war many private schools used textbooks, supplementary readers, and reference books which differed from those used in public schools. This was especially true regarding readers and history books; most of the Catholic schools used Catholic readers. It is obvious that the textbooks used for instruction were approved by the Bureau of Private Education. The following books which were in general use, both in public as well as in private schools, were prohibited:

- Correct English Manual for One and Two [sic]
- Correct English, Grade III
- Correct English, Grade IV
- Essentials of English, Fifth Grade
- Essentials of English, Sixth Grade
- Home Land
- Intermediate Geography
- A Brief History of the Philippines
- Elementary Civics, Grade Five
- Elementary Civics, Grade Six
- Philippine Civics by Benitez

Inclosure No. 2 of this Memorandum gave the list of "Parts To Be Eliminated in the Approved Textbooks." It is to be remembered that the "renovation" aimed not only at the effacement of all reminiscences of Western democracy but also at the oblivion of the Commonwealth of the Philippines. History proves that this was not realized. However, the pursuit of the Japanese ideals had its repercussions in the schools, and these were especially marked in the regulations concerning textbooks. Each textbook had its parts to be eliminated. The following items selected from the list of the parts to be

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9 Inclosure No. 1 to Memorandum No. 2, s. 1942.
eliminated in the approved textbooks will give a clear idea of the types of topics, passages, pictures, and even words and signs which were considered "improper":

"Commonwealth of the Philippines"
"Department of Public Instruction"
Illustration (Filipino and American Flags)
My Country's Flag
Entire song of "America"
Pictures of Quezon and Osmena
Reference to Theodore Roosevelt
The First Thanksgiving
"The Star-Spangled Banner"
Entire song of "Philippine Hymn"
St. George and the Dragon
Denomination of U.S. currency

The process of elimination continued in the same trend with regard to high school books. Parts of certain textbooks were restored when the Philippines became "independent" because then topics dealing with things native were stressed. However, Ministry Circular No. 4, s. 1944, had an Inclosure which gave the parts to be eliminated in the approved textbooks for Social Studies—subjects restored to the curriculum by the Philippine government. The list given in this Inclosure proved to be illuminating and interesting because the reason for each elimination was given. Table 1 gives a list of some eliminated parts in an approved history textbook.

The demand for books exceeded the supply. Numerous public school books were destroyed, private schools demanded books, and publication of new ones was rendered extremely difficult because of the scarcity of

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10 Inclosure No. 2, Memorandum No. 2, s. 1942.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Part to be Eliminated</th>
<th>Reason for Elimination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>21-22</td>
<td>&quot;What is the difference as regards political rights between the Orientals and the</td>
<td>American point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Americans?&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>19-20</td>
<td>&quot;We are justly proud of our democracy the United States.&quot;</td>
<td>American point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>23-25</td>
<td>&quot;Oriental despotism would have crushed out the growing democracy of this liberty-lov-</td>
<td>May be considered anti-Oriental</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>ing people.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>&quot;They established the principles of . . . . . . our country.&quot;</td>
<td>May be considered American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Statement may not be generally acceptable.</td>
<td>propaganda.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>671</td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>All about efficiency of democracy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>721</td>
<td>5-11</td>
<td>&quot;In 1931 she made an attack on . . . . . . Japanese goods. This angered Japan . . . .</td>
<td>May be considered anti-Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>China.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aInclosure to Ministry Circular No. 4, s. 1944, Ministry of Education. Manila, July 26, 1944.
paper. Each school used the ways and means at its com-
mand to secure textbooks, at least enough to carry on
instruction. However, the problem was not solved by hav-
ing the books in hand. Even if they were on the approved
list, no textbooks which contained parts to be elimi-
nated or changed could be issued to the pupils until the
prohibited parts had been eliminated or changed. 11

What procedure was used in order to effect such
eliminations? It was a unique one. The method was,
naturally, not left to the discretion of the school au-
thorities. There were well-defined means prescribed:

The prohibited parts should be deleted either
by pasting strips of thick paper over them or by
covering them with heavy black ink. Each word
that is to be changed should either be covered
with a strip of thick white paper on which is writ-
ten the approved word, or crossed out with heavy
black ink and the approved word written above it. 12

No other experience brought about by the many
changes in the educational system proved to be more un-
precedented than the carrying out of this prescribed
elimination of "improper" parts in textbooks. It was a
new kind of work, it was hard work, and, one might add,
it was irritating work. Many days were spent by teach-
ers, parents, and children in trying to shoulder this
job. Pasting paper over prohibited parts, rather than
covering them with heavy black ink, was resorted to for

11Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 2,

12Ibid., pp. 1-2.
obvious reasons. The Bureau of Private Education sent out supervisors to inspect the textbooks. If it were found out that the paper pasted over the prohibited part happened to be too thin, the process of deletion had to be repeated. It was, undoubtedly, not an easy task to cover well a bright-colored picture of a flag; nor was it easy to paste a tiny piece of paper over a minute dollar sign.

Even the sale and purchase of approved textbooks were made possible only through proper authorization—a phase of the strict control by the government. This fact is amply illustrated by Memorandum No. 15, s. 1943, of the Bureau of Private Education which furnished information regarding the elementary and high school textbooks available and their respective prices; it also included a list of "authorized firms" where these books could be purchased. Furthermore, this Memorandum issued instructions concerning the purchase of these books:

Directors of private schools are urged to purchase these textbooks in order that their students may be adequately supplied therewith. However, before any head of a private school may purchase these books, he should first secure from the Director of Private Education the approval of his requisition, which should contain the following facts:

(a) The name of the firm from which he will purchase the books.

(b) The titles of the books and the number of

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13 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 15, s. 1943, Manila, June 14, 1943.
Recognizing the need of providing the pupils with supplementary readers, the Bureau of Private Education, shortly after the reopening of elementary schools in 1942, sent to each director of the private schools a request that a list of all supplementary readers used in his school together with a copy of each reader be submitted to the Bureau at his earliest convenience. Requested lists were submitted and bundles of books found their way to the Bureau of Private Education. Nevertheless, it was only in March, 1943, that the private schools received the list of approved supplementary readers to be used in the elementary grades. It was to be expected that the Memorandum, which included this list, had among its component parts the list of "Parts to be Eliminated" as well as the repetition of the prescribed procedure for deleting prohibited parts.

When the high schools were reopened library facilities became an indispensable necessity. The permission for reopening school libraries was announced to the directors of private schools on September 28, 1943. The Instruction given by the Director-General of the Japanese

14Ibid.

15Letter of the Director of Private Education to the directors of private schools, Manila, July 2, 1942.

16Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 7, s. 1943, Manila, March 29, 1943.
Military Administration on this point reads as follows:

The opening of libraries, reading rooms, etc., of all reopened schools in the Philippines shall henceforth be permitted; provided, however, that arrangements be made for the destruction, deletion, prohibition of use, etc. of books, publications and documents, etc. which are inimical to the Military Administration and to the sound development of the Philippines.

Due consultation shall be made regarding this matter with the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, Japanese Military Administration. 17

Copies of Order No. 11 18 were once more issued in order that they "may be used as guide in the selection of library books and other publications." 19

The doors of the school libraries could not immediately be flung open to welcome lovers of books. The following instructions imposed a relatively prodigious amount of work on the librarians before any book could be issued to borrowers:

... it is desired that the schools make a survey of all their books and periodicals to determine which of them contain materials that are in conformity with the principles cited in the foregoing instruction. Utmost care should be exercised by school authorities in making their recommendations of the books which they desire to be circulated.

... It is desired that this Bureau be furnished with a list of books which will be circulated in accordance with Instruction No. 77 and Order No. 11. The list to be submitted should contain the following particulars for each book:

17Quoted in Bureau of Education, Memorandum No. 25, s. 1943, Manila, September 28, 1943.
18See p. 30.
19Memorandum No. 25, s. 1943.
Books prohibited from circulation in the "independent" Philippines were those found:

... to be against the law, not conducive to the fomentation of the basic educational policies of the State, or offensive to the dignity and honor of the Government and people of the Republic of the Philippines.\(^{21}\)

Various devices were used to save the "improper" books for the awaited time when they would no longer be among those prohibited. They were not found on the library shelves by those who came to inspect libraries. It is lamentable, however, that the number of books that remained, after the Liberation, was exceeded by those that became a prey to the devastating fire which destroyed many libraries.

\(^{20}\)Ibid.

\(^{21}\)Quoted in Bureau of Education, Memorandum No. 15, s. 1944, Manila, June 23, 1944.
CHAPTER IV

TEACHERS

It is not what you study but with whom you study that matters.

--Emerson

Teacher's Training

No prewar teacher's training institution in the Philippines was reopened during the Japanese Occupation. It was, however, apparent that the teachers were within the purview of the educational program of the government. No new members were added to the teaching corps; the authorities aimed at "re-educating" those already in the field in order to meet the "changed circumstances." Accordingly, the Kyooin Kunrensyo (Normal Institute) was established under the Bureau of Public Instruction in August, 1942.

The reason for the establishment of this institute as well as its aims are clearly set forth in the address of the Director-General of the Japanese Military Administration at its opening ceremonies held on August 31, 1942. He said:

It is clearly evident that the key to the resurrection of the Philippines lies in the spiritual reformation of the Filipino people. ... it is also apparent that education is the nucleus from
which this reformation must evolve and that, therefore, the renovation of education itself is the most fundamental and pressing necessity of the moment. . . .

It is ordained therein that education shall be carried out in spirit which will enable the people of the Philippines, through the acquirement of the Japanese Language, to obtain a full comprehension of the spirit of Japan.

Although it is evident that all educationists should harbor this spirit in the execution of their duties, the influence of many years of occidental education and deep-seated permeation of Anglo-American idea have made it difficult to obtain in them a comprehensive understanding of the radical changes which come over the Philippines. Moreover, the circumstances obstructing the materialization of this new spirit in the actual process of education are by no means few.

In these difficulties may be seen the reason for the necessity of re-educating and retraining Filipino educationists. In these obstacles may also be found the purpose and aims involved in the establishment of the Normal Institute.$^1$

He concluded his speech with this advice for the teacher-students:

I admonish you to grasp fully the significance of the aims and purpose of this institute; to obey implicitly the commands of your instructors; to forge your minds and bodies into fit instruments well-adaptable to the new conditions; to become, with a firm conviction of your Asiatic ancestry, the precursors of a renaissant Philippines; and thus, to stride forward in your endeavors towards the complete realization of the fundamental principles of education as set forth by the High Command.$^2$

The address of Commissioner Recto on the same occasion ran in a similar trend:

The institute was conceived in response to certain pressing needs in our educational system.

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$^1$Address by the Director General of the Japanese Military Administration at the opening ceremonies of the Normal Institute, Manila, August 31, 1942.

$^2$Ibid.
brought by the changed circumstances of our new situation. The purposes which we seek to attain encompass more than mere proficiency in the subjects that are being taught. They visualize a deeper understanding, especially on the part of our youth, of the culture and way of life of the Japanese people. . . . .

The Normal Institute, although under the Bureau of Public Instruction, was also open to private school teachers. When the Director of Private Education announced that the Japanese Military Administration required all private schools to teach the Japanese language, he added a request to the heads of the schools that they recommend the name or names of teachers they would wish to be taught Japanese in a training school which would be organized soon. One section in the Institute was reserved for some forty private school teachers. Public school teachers, naturally, outnumbered those of the private schools. During the first term the ratio was approximately three to one; during the third term it was six to one. The public school teachers received their regular salaries. Because of the limited enrollment possible, every private school was allowed to send only one representative to this Institute but as the training went on, more and more private schools were provided with

3Address by Claro M. Recto, Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare, at the formal opening of the Normal Institute, Manila, August 31, 1942.

4Letter of the Director of Private Education to the directors of private schools, Manila, July 22, 1942.
teachers of the Japanese language. Since the greater number of private elementary and high schools in the Philippines are under the Sisters, nuns formed the majority in the section allotted to the private schools. It was in August, 1942, in San Andres Elementary School (the building used by the Institute) that for the first time in the history of the Philippines such a group of nuns from different congregations met for instruction in a public school classroom.

The term of training was originally planned to be three months; but this plan was not rigidly followed. During the Occupation this Institute graduated several groups. The subjects taught were: Japanese language, basic principles of education, music, and physical education.

Claro M. Recto commented on the subjects offered in the Institute in his address already quoted. Concerning the study of the Japanese language he said:

First and foremost, you will be given such instruction in the Japanese language as will enable you to have a working knowledge thereof and to impart such knowledge to your pupils. You should therefore see to it that the basic knowledge that you will acquire here is constantly augmented and improved by practice and by your own individual studies.

Knowledge of this language is not only convenient for the Filipinos but will become increasingly necessary in their daily activities. It will facilitate official and business transactions, promote amity in personal dealings with Japanese soldiers and civilians, and avoid unnecessary misunderstanding usually caused by the lack of common medium of expression. . . .

In a wider sense, knowledge of Japanese is
necessary not only for the Filipinos but for all Asiatic peoples.

So far as the teacher-students were concerned, they busied themselves in order to have a basic knowledge of the language to enable them to teach it, for without a teacher of the Japanese language, no school could be reopened. However, the study, being a novelty, proved interesting for many. The patient Japanese Buddhist priest, Hideo Yamanouti, was the principal instructor in Japanese. Using the direct method of instruction, he had to exert much effort in drilling

Kore wa. . . . (This is. . . .), Sore wa. . . . (That is. . . .), and similar expressions. Like little children learning to write, the teacher-students clumsily made their first strokes in Japanese calligraphy. **Katakana**, the simplest form, was studied first.

**Hanasi Kotoba** (Spoken Language), composed of three booklets, was the basic textbook. All were expected to read the book and to be able to converse about the pictures therein. There was a certain amount of fun during the first lessons when conversations of this trend were carried on: "Kore wa nan desu ka." (What is this?) "Sore wa hon desu." (That is a book.) "Anata wa donata desu ka." (Who are you?) Later on the sentences got longer; sometimes one or another student came with a "high" word drawn from a dictionary or vocabulary list.

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5Address by Claro M. Recto, August 31, 1942.
and therefore he succeeded in astounding the class. Most of the students supplemented their study of the Hanasi Kotoba with that of grammar from books which were in vogue during the Occupation.

The Basic Principles of Education, already discussed in Chapter II, were taught by Filipino instructors under the close supervision of the Japanese Military Administration. Commissioner Recto summarized for the students the expected results of such a study in the conclusion of his aforementioned address:

You, who have been given the rare privilege of attending the Normal Institute, are expected to pay no mere lip-service to the basic principles to which I have referred, but to learn them, to adopt them as a code of conduct in your daily life, and to strive so that they may be instilled into the character of the youth under your tutelage. Yours is a new and greater responsibility than that heretofore given to teachers, and I trust that you will discharge it fully and without mental reservation.  

One of the requisites in connection with this subject was the writing of a term paper on a topic dealing with Japan. Thus, the students became acquainted with such aspects of Japanese culture as Chanoyu (Tea Ceremony) and Ikebana (Flower Arrangement), with their literature on their national flower, Sakura (Cherry Blossom), and with other phases of Japanese life.

The Japanese were eager to have their songs known and appreciated by the Filipino people, to whom such melodies did not sound familiar. As early as

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6Ibid.
June 6, 1942, eighteen Japanese songs were made obligatory in the public and private schools and an injunction, "Teachers should be trained to handle the materials properly," was added. It is, therefore, obvious that music was chosen to be one of the subjects in the Normal Institute. Japanese and Filipino songs were simultaneously taught there. Melodies formerly sung in English were then sung in Tagalog.

Osias' ideas regarding physical education for teachers, expressed when he was Minister of Education, were worked out in the Normal Institute. It is to be remembered that he was the Assistant Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare when this Institute was established. The following are his words on this point:

Such teacher education should also provide training and instruction which would make prospective teachers healthy and physically able to endure long and sustained physical and mental effort, and which would give them a working knowledge of the mechanism of the human body and its proper care.

Under competent instructors, physical education was a favorite course in the Institute. The theory and practice of "foreign" gymnastics as well as Filipino folk dances were given due attention. The primary

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7 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 4, s. 1942, Manila, June 26, 1942.

interest of the Japanese in the course was the teaching of the Radio Taiso, a Japanese form of exercises, which they wanted to be made part and parcel of Filipino life. It was, accordingly, given prominence in the physical education program. More facts about these exercises will be given in a later chapter.

In pursuance of the aim to make the teacher-students "the precursors of a renaissant Philippines," extra-curricular activities in keeping with this aim formed part of the Normal Institute program. Once a week a Japanese lecturer came to the Institute and talked to the students about the Co-Prosperity Sphere, Japanese culture, and the like. The Educational Adviser of the Japanese Military Administration was usually present and the speaker was accompanied by an interpreter—Japanese or Filipino. To this sort of lectures, English following Japanese after short or long intervals, the Filipino audience became familiar during the Occupation.

Each section in the Institute had to organize a Nippongo (Japanese) Club and to prepare programs. Japanese songs, poems, stories, playlets, and dances featured such programs. These performances, attended by Japanese and Filipino officials, formed a sort of manifestation of the "interest" the teacher-students had in the study of the language of Nippon. At regular intervals, contests in physical education—gymnastics, folk dances, and
games—were held and they were well attended and well appreciated by the invited guests.

The short sessions in the Normal Institute were followed by comparatively grand graduation exercises; high Japanese and Filipino officials graced the occasions. The graduates heard the "Instructions by His Excellency, the Director-General of the Japanese Military Administration," and the "Instructions by His Excellency, the Chairman of the Executive Commission."

They sang the famous Japanese graduation song, Aogeta Tootsi; and went home with their diplomas, written in Japanese characters and in English, including the "Year of Showa" in the date, and testifying that they had:

... satisfactorily completed the Teacher's Courses of Study in Basic Principles of Education and in Japanese Language prescribed for the Normal Institute by the Office of the Japanese Military Administration. ... 9

Were these graduates capable of shouldering the job as teachers of the Japanese language after such a short study? The question is difficult to answer, but in any case the teachers knew more than the pupils. Moreover, the Japanese and Filipino authorities as well as the teachers were aware that after some time the knowledge of the teachers would fall short. Consequently, Saturday classes were held in the Normal Institute for those teachers who already had their diplomas but wanted to have "advanced" knowledge of Japanese. A

9 Normal Institute, Diploma No. 125.
separate gakko (school) was also established for more "advanced" teacher-students. Many teachers in the provinces were helped by the Japanese soldiers who volunteered to teach them; and the Catholic schools in Manila were greatly aided in the discharge of the obligation to teach Japanese by the Japanese Catholic nuns and ladies who came to the Philippines. In order to meet the demand for teachers of the Japanese language, examinations were given by the Japanese Military Administration in Manila and in the provinces for those who studied Japanese privately. After passing such an examination they were entitled to teach Nippongo. In sum, the knowledge of the Japanese language sufficed for the need during the Occupation.

The Bureau of Private Education realized the need of demonstrating to the teachers of Home and Community Membership Activities the different methods of making baskets, handbags, and the like from native materials. Because of the scarcity, or rather, unavailability of imported materials, making of native articles comprised the principal activity in this course. A supervisor of industrial work of the Bureau was assigned to instruct the teachers as to the procedure in their work, and a school in Paco was designated as the meeting place for this purpose. Many private school teachers availed themselves of this valuable help.

The Executive Order No. 10 of President Laurel
of the Republic of the Philippines included among other things "... the training of national language teachers on a large scale shall commence immediately."\(^{10}\)

Hence, the establishment of the \textit{Paaralan sa Pagtuturo ng Wikang Filipino} (Institute for the Teaching of the Filipino Language) in the early days of 1944.

The courses offered in this Institute were: Filipino language, Filipino literature, oriental culture, music, physical education, and home and community membership activities. This enumeration indicates the turn taken in the educational field by the "independent" Philippines. There was a definite predominance of things Philippine. This Institute was established when Liberation was near, and the consciousness of its proximity caused the interest in the study of Japanese to wane.

This \textit{Paaralan}, like the Normal Institute, was under the Bureau of Public Instruction, and the administration was, therefore, similar. Private school teachers also attended this Institute. Because the National Language (Tagalog) is the native dialect only of those living in Manila and in the neighboring provinces, Tagalog and non-Tagalog sections were organized.

In several distant provinces similar Institutes were held, which, to give justice to the Japanese, were run simultaneously with those for the training of

\(^{10}\)Executive Order No. 10 by the President of the Republic of the Philippines, Manila, November 30, 1943.
teachers of the Japanese language.

It is regrettable that for reasons unknown to the writer, this Paaralan turned out only one group of graduates. From June to July, it continued its work under the roof of the Normal Institute (San Andres Elementary School), though it was considered a separate entity. But the lasting effects of this short-lived institution are felt at the present time, because most of the teachers trained in it are now actively engaged in teaching the National Language. The insufficiency of such a preparation is obvious; but at a time when national language teachers are badly needed and the well-trained teachers are relatively few, the training received in the Paaralan, supplemented by study, proves to be a valuable asset of the Philippine schools.

Such were the institutions for the training of teachers in order to meet the "changed circumstances" during the Japanese Occupation. Today, the teacher, who, during the Occupation, learned ito (Tagalog) instead of kore (Japanese) for "this," is in a better position to meet the demands of her profession in the present Republic of the Philippines.

Teacher's Qualifications

Of all the qualifications required of teachers during the Occupation, nationality was the most outstanding. A teacher who could solve with ease formidable
problems of calculus was not qualified to teach second grade arithmetic if he happened to be a citizen of a "hostile" nation. No quantity or quality of academic and professional training entitled anyone to have a place in the school if his nationality stood in the way. That was precisely why hundreds of teachers, who up to 1941 had been standing at the forefront of the educational field, had to give up their positions. The burden of Catholic elementary and high school education rests in large proportions on the shoulders of missionaries. It is evident, therefore, that such a provision as "no enemy nationals will be employed in the teacher [sic] staff or other personnel of his [director] school"\textsuperscript{11} meant a great loss for Catholic education. Despite this drawback and other adverse conditions, most of the Catholic schools tried to continue their work throughout the Occupation.

Important though a "friendly" nationality was, other qualifications had to accompany it to make an acceptable teacher. The items included in the list of faculty members, quoted in Chapter I, show that the professional and academic training of the teacher was among those that had to be strictly perused before any private high school was permitted to reopen.\textsuperscript{12} Teachers were allowed to teach only their major and minor subjects,

\textsuperscript{11}Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 3, s. 1943, p. 3. Manila, March 10, 1943.

\textsuperscript{12}See p. 8.
but a teacher who did not teach her major could not teach her minor. Teachers who majored in history, a subject excluded from the curriculum, were automatically eliminated from the teaching staff, except in some instances where especial concessions were granted.

Changes in the teaching staff had likewise to be under strict control. The prior approval of the Bureau of Private Education was required before any change could be effected. The announcement bearing on this point was made on August 18, 1942, and with it went a threat:

Heads of private schools are hereby requested to secure the prior approval of this Office on any changes that they may make in the composition of the teaching staff of their schools. The request for such changes should include the full name of the teacher, his nationality, and his educational qualifications. It is understood that private schools will not employ nationals from hostile countries.

Strict compliance with this request is enjoined. This Office reserves the right to take whatever steps it may deem necessary against any private school that is found to be employing teachers whose names have not been included in the application of the school to open or whose names have not been otherwise approved by this Office.

Nationalism, intense and dynamic nationalism, was the by-word of the Republic of the Philippines. It was this doctrine, preached from the housetops, that had to animate the teachers, so that they in turn could transmit their glowing enthusiasm for the Philippines to their

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13Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 8, s. 1942, Manila, August 18, 1942.
pupils. In the light of this doctrine the teachers were expected to lead their pupils to better citizenship, to heroic citizenship. The statement of Minister Osias on the primary aim of education in the Republic and the implications it was supposed to have for the teachers is as follows:

The development of an intenser and more dynamic nationalism among our people being a paramount educational objective, it follows that the teacher should himself be intensely and dynamically nationalist and should possess a personality which commands respect, inspires emulation, and can galvanize his charges for more effective service.\(^\text{14}\)

It has been mentioned in an earlier chapter, that President Laurel aimed at educational reforms. Significant, indeed, was the place of the teachers among the elements to be subjected to a reform along lines directed towards a fixed goal—intenser nationalism. The President's Executive Order No. 10, prescribing certain educational reforms dealt in the first place with the qualifications of teachers. After reading these qualifications one can easily trace the path of the proposed reforms. The telling requirements for teachers were:

1. All teachers in elementary and secondary schools, whether public or private, must first obtain a license after proper examinations. The good moral character of every applicant for a teacher's license must be vouched for by two Filipino citizens of established national reputation not related to the applicant. No license shall be issued, unless the teacher has satisfactorily proved that he or she sincerely believes in and earnestly endeavors to help carry out the declared policies of the

\(^{14}\)Osias, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 4.
State.

2. A code of professional ethics for teachers shall be promulgated by the Minister of Education, Health, and Public Welfare. Violation of the code will, after due hearing, cause the suspension or cancellation of the teacher's license. This code shall also govern the conduct of school, college, and university administrators.

3. Every teacher of religion in the public and private schools, colleges, and universities shall at all times abide by the declared policies of the State.

4. Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-1945, only Filipino citizens may teach the national language, character education, and Philippine history in public and private schools, colleges and universities.¹⁵

Pursuant to the President's order, the Ministry of Education promulgated the "Code of Professional Ethics for Teachers and School Officials."¹⁶ In the words of the Minister: "This Code shall serve as the norm of conduct for teachers and school officials, public and private, in the discharge of their professional duties and obligations."¹⁷

Some days later, the "Rules and Regulations for the Certification of Teachers" were issued.¹⁸ Applications for certification entailed preparation of records and compliance with a score of other requisites and prerequisites. It is noteworthy that this requirement was unprecedented in the history of the Philippines.

¹⁵Executive Order No. 10 by the President of the Republic of the Philippines, Manila, November 30, 1943.

¹⁶See Appendix A.

¹⁷Ministry of Education, Ministry Order No. 5, s. 1944, Manila, May 23, 1944.

¹⁸See Appendix B.
After the schools had been closed in September, 1944, when the war of Liberation began, the Ministry of Education continued the work of certification of teachers through one of its divisions created for this purpose. Temporary licenses were issued to the teachers who were compliant to the rules and regulations promulgated. The certificates were worded in Tagalog and in English and they authorized the recipients "to teach in, supervise, or administer" the course for which they had applied and been found qualified.19

The above-mentioned educational reforms planned in 1943 have left their imprints on the post-Liberation educational system of the Philippines. The coming years will show whether teachers will be required to have licenses and whether teacher examinations will be given prior to the granting of the same.

19 Certificate No. 760-S.
CHAPTER V

CURRICULUM CHANGES

The curriculum is a tool for realizing the educational aims and objectives of the educators.

--Cassian E. Papillon

Since the American Occupation of the Philippines the curricula of the private schools have differed very little from those of the public schools. In the curricula of the Catholic schools religion, naturally, headed the list of subjects offered. All schools conformed to the minimum requirements; the reason for this is clearly given in the following:

... the right of a free transfer to the corresponding public school, under the provisions of section 10 of Act 2706, is in effect only when the course from which a pupil transfers is the same as that required of similar pupils in the corresponding public schools. As most transfers from private to public elementary and secondary schools affect only the "general" course, the latter is within very definite limits standardized by the Department, and no private-school course may be termed "general" unless it fully meets the requirements of the corresponding public-school course with such limited deviations as are approved by the Department.1

In 1940, Commonwealth Act No. 586, known as the

1Department of Public Instruction, Manual of Information for Private Schools, p. 34. Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1930.
Educational Act of 1940, provided that the elementary course be shortened to six years (it had been seven years). In pursuance of this Act, the Bureau of Education announced in June, 1941, that the elementary-school curriculum had been shortened to six years and had been "made simpler, more practical, and more economical."2 This curriculum was made effective that school year.

In the same year the Catholic Educational Association prepared three curricula for Catholic private schools, providing for a six-year elementary course, a three-year high-school course, and a three-year college course leading to a Bachelor's Degree. The first two curricula were approved by the Secretary of Public Instruction and hence followed by the Catholic schools in 1941. The objectives of these two curricula are noteworthy. The following was the objective of the elementary curriculum:

\[\ldots\quad \text{to mould the child into a literate citizen, whose actions will be dominated by Christian ideals and Christian motives. This can be adequately attained in six years provided the following substantials are stressed: reading, writing, arithmetic; the more simple notions of geography; Philippine history and government; some very elementary hygienic notions; and the Duty to become good citizens. The appended curriculum, by eliminating unnecessary and overlapping subjects, purports to do this.}\]

The objectives of the high school were:

\[\text{\ldots}\]

2\(\text{Bureau of Education, Circular No. 23, s. 1941, Manila, June 23, 1941.}\)

3\(\text{Report of the Catholic Educational Association, Manila, June, 1941.}\)
... the uniform and fuller development of the faculties—the senses, imaginations, emotions, intellect, will—for a wider life, which development is to be completed in the college.  

In June, 1941, a new era seemed to have started in the elementary and secondary private-school education. But the fruits of the efforts exerted in making the revisions of the old curricula did not endure long because the war came in December, 1941, and put an end to their utility.

The new regime, which began in 1942, ushered in a series of curriculum revisions. The new elementary curriculum of June, 1942, was used only for a year. The next school year saw a new one, which gave to the Japanese language a place of prominence. The high schools, reopened in 1943, were also provided with a new plan of studies. Both curricula were once more revised in 1944 by the Ministry of Education. The tables included in this chapter show the different revisions made from 1941 to 1944.

These many changes, undoubtedly, brought much work to the school authorities; with them came new and varied demands on the schools. In 1943, a course in Japanese language was required for all grades and years; hence, teachers for that subject were needed in greater numbers, and there were comparatively few who were qualified for that particular task at that time. In

\[\text{Ibid.}\]
1944, national language, character education, and nationalism were stressed, and they could be taught only by Filipino citizens. Time-tables were correspondingly revised, and copies of them had to be sent to the Bureau of Private Education. Preparing time-tables was rendered more difficult by the combination of different subjects to make one unit. For instance, the following were the components of a unit: health education given once a week, physical education and English, each twice a week. In most cases these three subjects were taught by different teachers. It was not surprising that teachers and pupils got confused as to what subject would be taken the next period. Many periods in the elementary grades were so short that in some schools the ringing of the bell between periods was discarded.

What about religion in the curriculum? There was an unvoiced fear early in 1942 that the Japanese would provide that no religion could be taught in school. Happily, this fear did not materialize. It is true, there were handicaps in teaching it, but the Catholic schools did their best to overcome them. The provision was: "Religion may be taught before or after school hours but no textbooks shall be used." It was consoling that the pupils, like the rest of the people about them, turned with renewed fervor to God during

5 Inclosure to Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 3, s. 1942, Manila, June 11, 1942.
this period of adversity. The need of God's help was felt more than ever; prayer was recognized as the only weapon. This is one of the very few bright spots during the Occupation.

**Elementary Curriculum**

Figure 1 will amply illustrate the trend of modifications of the subjects of the elementary grades from 1941 to 1944. The time allotment given to each reflects its importance in the minds of the authorities during that period.

Arithmetic retained its place in the curriculum. Moreover, the time devoted to it remained relatively steady, averaging two hundred minutes a week, except in 1944 when it was reduced to one hundred fifty minutes for all grades.

The English subjects—language, spelling, reading, and phonics—were the target of many revisions so far as time allotments were concerned. This important phase of the curriculum changes will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Physical and health education had their respective places in the curriculum throughout the Occupation. These subjects were closely interwoven with the plan of making the Filipinos a strong people. Character education was among the required courses, and it was raised to a preponderant position in 1944, when it was combined
Min.

Key: 1 - 1941 (Bureau of Education)
2 - 1941 (Catholic Educational Association)
3 - 1942
4 - 1943
5 - 1944 (First Semester)

Fig. 1—Time allotments in minutes per week for each subject in Grade Five.
with the teaching of nationalism.  

Music was considered an important subject. Prescribed Japanese songs had to be taught; among them were Kimigayo (Japanese National Anthem), "Patriotic March," and other songs contained in the Japanese song books. Before October, 1943, the singing of the Philippine National Anthem and other Filipino patriotic songs was banned, but after that date the "independent" Philippines resumed her right to sing her songs, and school buildings resounded with native melodies. The Philippine National Anthem, Diwa ng Bayan, was sung in Tagalog; other songs were composed by Filipino musicians—Isang Bansa, Isang Watawat, Isang Wika (One Nation, One Flag, One Language), Awit sa Paglikha ng Bagong Pilipinas (Song for the Creation of the New Philippines), and others.

In 1942 and 1943 elementary science was retained only in grade four and made a part of home membership activities. In 1944 it was required in grades three, four, five, and six. Home membership activities will be given special consideration in Chapter VII.

Social studies were purged from the curriculum in 1942 and 1943, and were restored only after the "independence" of the Philippines. However, the pupils were required to know about the Co-Prosperity Sphere. The schools were provided with maps of Greater East Asia, where the flag of the Rising Sun marked each Japanese

6See Chapter VII.
conquest. As was mentioned in Chapter II, the pupils had to know very well the Basic Principles of Education, and their knowledge was tested. Thus, the children were kept ignorant of events that happened in the past. They were kept aware of only that reality which was the present, a present which was full of fears, oppression, and horrors.

High School Curriculum

In 1941, a minimum of seventeen units was required for graduation from the general secondary course: five units in English, three in mathematics, three in natural sciences, five in social sciences, and one in national language. Physical education was obligatory, except for those exempted by medical certificates; but no credit was given for it. The ruling was:

Physical education, required of all pupils who are not physically incapacitated for such work, is not counted as one of the regular subjects in the preceding rules, but pupils must pass the equivalent of four years of physical education before being graduated from secondary schools.

The three-year high school curriculum prepared by the Catholic Educational Association, which was followed by the Catholic schools for a little over five months, also demanded the minimum, seventeen units, before graduation. Religion, counting as character education, was equal to one credit a year. Required units

7Department of Public Instruction, op. cit., p. 55.
### TABLE 2

**REVISED CURRICULUM FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES UNDER THE TWO-SINGLE-SESSION PLAN**

**BUREAU OF EDUCATION, 1941**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Time Allotment Per Week in</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opening Exercises</td>
<td></td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td></td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic (3) Social Studies (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art Education (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>75b</td>
<td>75b</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character Education (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Education (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>100b</td>
<td>100b</td>
<td>100b</td>
<td>100b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language and Spelling</td>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>100c</td>
<td>100c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading and Phonics</td>
<td></td>
<td>175</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>100c</td>
<td>100c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td></td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardening and Elementary Science</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recess</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>125</td>
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<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>675</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>725</td>
<td>825</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aTwo single sessions every day; that is, one class of one grade in the morning and another class of the same or a different grade in the afternoon, under the same teacher. There is no unsupervised seatwork.*

*bIn the second semester, reverse the time allotment.*

*cOne period a week is devoted to the teaching of the vernacular.*

*dPhysical education, 20 minutes a day, will be conducted by other teachers; if not possible, by the teacher himself on Saturday mornings. Boys ten years of age or over will take premilitary training 20 minutes a day, two times a week.*

Source: Bureau of Education, Circular No. 23, s. 1941, Manila, June 23, 1941.
### Table 3

**Revised Curriculum for the Intermediate Grades Under the One-Teacher-One-Class Plan**

Bureau of Education, 1941

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Time Allotment Per Week in V</th>
<th>VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Music and Opening</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character Education</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Science</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Education</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics and Industrial Arts</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language and Spelling&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading and Phonics&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>150&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>150&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td>150&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>150&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>1400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>min.</td>
<td>min.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Spelling taught incidentally.

<sup>b</sup>Phonics taught incidentally.

<sup>c</sup>World geography covering important foreign countries with which the Philippines has commercial relations will be given.

<sup>d</sup>Philippine history and government will be taken up.

Source: Bureau of Education, Circular No. 23, s. 1941, Manila, June 23, 1941.
# TABLE 4

**SIX-YEAR ELEMENTARY COURSE CURRICULUM**

**CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1941**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Time Allotment Per Week in</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language and Spelling</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational English; Social Science; Health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography: Homelands and Oriental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography: World</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippine History and Civics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music and Drawing</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education and Recess</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Assigned Time</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>1350</td>
<td>1250</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unassigned Time</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Required Time</td>
<td>1350</td>
<td>1350</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>min.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the discretion of the Head of the school, unassigned Time shall be made up EITHER by increasing the time-allotment of the prescribed subjects, OR from the following subjects approved by the Government:

- **Elementary Science** (for Grades III & IV)
- **Industrial Arts** (for Grades IV, V, & VI Boys)
- **Home Economics** (for Grades IV, V, & VI Girls)
- **Spanish** (for all Grades)

### TABLE 5
**TIME ALLOTMENTS FOR THE ELEMENTARY GRADES 1942-1943**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Time Allotment Per Week in min.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td>I  200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing (3)* and Music (2)*</td>
<td>I  200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>I  100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character Education and Citizenship Training (2)*</td>
<td>I  100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education (3)*</td>
<td>I  100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language and Spelling*</td>
<td>I  400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>I  100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Membership Activities</td>
<td>I  125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading and Phonics</td>
<td>I  400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recess</td>
<td>I  50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>I  1575</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Reverse the time allotment at the beginning of the second semester.

*No Spelling in Grade I. Spelling taught incidentally in Grades V and VI.

*One period a week is devoted to Writing in the Vernacular in Grades III and IV. Two periods a week to be devoted to the teaching of the National Language, if teachers are available, in Grades V and VI.

*Elementary Science included.

*One period a week is devoted to Reading in the Vernacular in Grades III and IV. Phonics taught incidentally in Grades V and VI.

Source: Inclosure to Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 3, s. 1942, Manila, June 11, 1942.
TABLE 6
TIME ALLOTMENTS FOR THE ELEMENTARY GRADES
REVISED JUNE, 1943

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Time Allotment Per Week in</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese Language</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Citizenship Training (2)a and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Education (3)a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing (3)a and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music (2)a</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language and Spelling b</td>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading and Phonics c</td>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home and Community Membership</td>
<td></td>
<td>175</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recess</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1075</td>
<td>1075</td>
<td>1225</td>
<td>1225</td>
<td>1325</td>
<td>1325</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Reverse the time allotment at the beginning of the second semester in the Intermediate Grades and at the beginning of the third term in the Primary Grades.

bNo Spelling in Grade I. Spelling taught incidentally in Grades V and VI.

cPhonics taught incidentally in Grades V and VI.

dThree periods a week are devoted to Reading in Tagalog and two periods a week to Writing in Tagalog.

eElementary Science included.

Source: Inclosure to Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 18, s. 1943, Manila, June 28, 1943.
TABLE 7
ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM
REVISED JULY, 1944

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Time Allotment Per Week in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character and Nationalism and the Social</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studies</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino Language</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language; Reading</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home and Community Membership</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nippongo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing; Music; Drawing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music; Drawing</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recess</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Physical</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aIn every subject the teacher should be alert to take advantage of opportunities which may contribute to the development of character and nationalism.

bIn Grades I and II the course will be mainly character and nationalism; in Grade III it will include, in addition, home geography or the study of immediate environment to which at least two periods a week may be devoted; in Grade IV it will include geography of the Philippines and easy material in Philippine history and civics, which may be given approximately three periods a week; in Grade V it will include geography of the Orient and the world at large to which approximately three periods a week may be devoted; and in Grade VI it will include Philippine history and civics, also for approximately three periods a week.

cIn Grade I the Filipino language is the medium of instruction and the 100 minutes of Filipino language shall be omitted. The time thus saved should be applied to language and reading. Where it is not possible to use the Filipino language as the medium of
TABLE 7--Continued

instruction because of special conditions obtaining, the time allotment as indicated for Filipino lan­guage shall be observed.

dLanguage and reading will be allotted the same length of time. The two-to-three ratio in the first semester shall be reversed during the second semester.

eAs much as possible of the half day during which the pupils are not in their classes should be devoted to home and community membership, particu­larly food production.

fIn Grades III and IV writing shall be given two days a week, music two days, and drawing one day.

gIn Grades I and II music and drawing will be allotted the same length of time, the two-to-three ratio in the first semester to be reversed in the second semester. In Grades V and VI music shall be given four days a week and drawing one day a week.

hHealth and physical education will be allotted the same length of time. The two-to-three ratio in the first semester shall be reversed dur­ing the second semester.

in mathematics and in social and natural sciences were reduced, while two units of foreign language were added. This program was not given enough time to prove its efficiency.

It was not till 1943 that the high schools in the Philippines were reopened. Knowing by this time the basic principles of education of the new regime, and having been schooled in the process of "renovation" by one year's experience in conducting the elementary courses, the school authorities were prepared for the changes made in the high school curriculum.

All history subjects were erased from the list of subjects, while natural sciences were given more weight, one unit of them was made a requirement for each year. Elementary chemistry was added to the curriculum and made a prescribed subject in the third year. The changes regarding languages will be treated in the next chapter. Home economics for girls and vocational courses for boys were made obligatory. Before the war, these subjects had not been included in the general secondary curriculum; they were taken under the vocational secondary curricula. Physical education, health education, and music for girls were made credit-giving subjects.

The year 1944 once more brought a new curriculum. The principal changes made were those regarding the time allotments for the three languages (English, Tagalog, and Japanese) and the restoration of history subjects to the
list of required subjects. Supplementary school activities and other devices designed to make nationalism intense and active will be mentioned in a later chapter.

This curriculum, put into effect in July, 1944, yielded to some modifications when food production became, as it were, the primary activity of the schools. The nation, nearing its liberation but threatened with famine, tried to utilize the schools as an agency in averting disaster. More will be said about this in Chapter VII.

The curriculum was hardly put into use, and probably many a private school in the provinces had not got hold of its copy—means of communication were very insecure and slow—before Liberation came and with it liberation from the curricula of 1943 and 1944.
TABLE 8
FOUR-YEAR ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOL
CURRICULUM, 1941

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Number of Periods per Week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature and Composition</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II - General Science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III - Biology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year IV - Physics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year I - World History</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II - United States History</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oriental History</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III - Philippine Social Life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year IV - Philippine History</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year I - Algebra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II - Geometry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III - Advanced Algebra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced Arithmetic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Physical Education (1) for girls, Preparatory Military Training, 300 minutes a week (for boys).

*aIn some schools General Mathematics was taught instead of Algebra.
TABLE 9
MODEL THREE-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL COURSES OF STUDY
CULTURAL CURRICULA
CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1941

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Number of Units Required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebra</td>
<td>1½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometry</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trigonometry</td>
<td>½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Sociology</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 1) Religion is required for Catholic students only.
2) Physical Training or Military Drill is to be added.

## THE REVISED HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM
### 1943

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Number of Periods per Week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (Reading)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character Education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year I - Arithmetic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Mathematics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II - Algebra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III - Geometry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced Algebra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Courses (Boys)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics (Girls)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year I - General Science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II - Biology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III - Elementary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year IV - Physics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and Health Education</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including Music for girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Inclosure to Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 3, s. 1943, Manila, March 10, 1943.
### TABLE 11
THE REVISED GENERAL SECONDARY CURRICULUM
1944

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Number of Periods per Week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character Education and Nationalism and Social Studies</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year I - General History</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II - History of Japan and other Oriental Countries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III - Philippine Social Life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year IV - Philippine History and Government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
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<td>Mathematics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year I - Arithmetic</td>
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<tr>
<td>General Mathematics</td>
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<td>Year II - Elementary Algebra</td>
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<td>Year III - Advanced Algebra</td>
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<td>Economics</td>
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<td>Natural Science</td>
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<td>Year II - Biology</td>
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<td>Year III - Elementary Chemistry</td>
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<td>Year IV - Physics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Health and Physical Education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploratory Vocational Education or Home Economics</td>
<td>10</td>
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</tbody>
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**Total** .................................. 35 35 35 35

<sup>a</sup>The two-to-three ratio in the first semester shall be reversed in the second semester.

CHAPTER VI

THREE LANGUAGES IN SCHOOL

Speaks three or four languages word for word without a book.

—Shakespeare

The above statement of Sir Toby in "Twelfth Night" could have been well applied to every school child in the Philippines during the Japanese Occupation. The children were expected to study three languages; and in addition, a fourth one was spoken at home by those who belonged to Spanish-speaking families or whose dialect was one other than Tagalog. The following pages will give the reader an idea as to whether or not the children learned, or could have learned English, Tagalog, and Japanese "word for word without a book."

Within four and a quarter centuries the Philippines saw three conquerors: the Spaniards, the Americans, and the Japanese. The advent of new rulers meant the studying of the A B C's of their languages by the Filipinos.

The earliest of the educational decrees— one from Spain, framed by the Council of the Indies, dated
July 17, 1550, and issued in the name of Charles I (later Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire)—ordered the use of the Castilean language in the teaching of Christian Doctrine. Another decree, dated March 2, 1634, exhorted the archbishops and bishops to teach the Filipinos the Christian doctrine and the Spanish language. The Spanish government was bent on making the Filipinos learn the language of Cervantes, a desire undoubtedly prompted by the necessity of having a common medium of communication in the Islands. The following is indicative of this trend:

A decree of December 22, 1792, went as far as to forbid the use of the local dialects by the Filipinos and ordered that in the convents, monasteries, and the courts, only the Castilean language should be used.

Spanish was made the medium of instruction, but because the benefits of education were not widespread during the long years of the Spanish regime, the percentage of those who learned Spanish was by far smaller than that of those who learned English under the American rule. Filipino writers in the Castilean language budded forth, and many of them went to Madrid and Barcelona in order to further their educational pursuits. To mention the best example, Dr. Jose Rizal, the greatest

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2Ibid.

3Ibid., p. 21.
Filipino hero, wrote his famous books *Noli Me Tangere* and *El Filibusterismo* in Spanish. He even wrote his "Ultimo Adios" (Last Farewell) in the Castilean language while he was in his prison cell, condemned to death by the Spanish government. In spite of the coming of the Americans, Spanish remained in use, especially in society. Besides this, the number of Spanish words in the different dialects of the Islands would, if counted, accumulate to an impressive number.

The Americans came in 1898, and they considered it of primary concern to diffuse the English language in the Islands. Speaking about the establishment of schools during the early days of the American Occupation, a correspondent of the *London Times* wrote:

> From the first the American military governor put faith in efficient schools, 'as a means calculated to pacify the people and expedite the restoration of tranquility'; he considered it the first duty of the conquerors 'to diffuse the elements of knowledge and of the English tongue.' Troops were sent out from Manila with orders to build schools wherever possible.

> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

> The main business of these schools is to teach the pupils to become literate in English.  

A little over forty years after Admiral Dewey's victory in the battle of Manila Bay, an American writer included the following in his appraisal of the American system of education in the Philippines:

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4Correspondent of the *London Times*, "Quotations," *School and Society*, XLIV (February, 1937), 188-89.
Spanish, when we [the Americans] came, was the official language. 'Now if children wish to learn Spanish,' President Quezon told me, 'they have to hire private teachers. English is becoming the universal tongue. Your pioneer American teachers taught it; then their pupils became teachers and passed it on to millions of others.'

But leading Philippine newspapers and magazines are all printed in English, and every Filipino seeks to learn it.

When the Commonwealth Government was established in 1935, one of the outstanding problems it had to meet was that of language. The Philippines had at that time some sixteen million inhabitants who did not have language solidarity, each region having its own dialect. It is obvious that this constituted one of the great barriers to the development of national cooperation. After much controversy, Tagalog, the dialect spoken in Manila and in the nearby provinces, was proclaimed the national language. Towering difficulties had to be overcome, and the nation had hardly begun to wrestle with the language problem when other conquerors landed on Philippine shores.

The Japanese were not outdone by the preceding rulers in their enthusiastic attempt to diffuse their language. On July 12, 1942, Tagalog and Japanese were declared the official languages of the Philippines. But it is curious to note that the government could not, for very obvious reasons, eradicate the use of English immediately. Military Ordinance No. 13, sent by General

\[\text{5}^{\text{Frederick Simpich, "Facts about the Philippines," The National Geographic Magazine, LXXXI (February, 1942), 200.}\]
Homma to the Chairman of the Executive Commission, reads:

"It is declared that hereafter the official language shall be Japanese and/or Tagalog. However, English may be used for the time being."  

Soon after the American occupation of the Islands, American teachers came in large numbers to teach the Filipinos. Since then, English has been the medium of instruction, and its place in the curriculum had not been questioned even when Tagalog was proclaimed the national language. The latter was added to the list of subjects but not at the sacrifice of the time allotted to the study of English. Language, spelling, reading, and phonics have been given regularly in the grades, and five units in English have been a traditional feature of the high school requirements for graduation.

Then came the Japanese and announced as one of the basic principles of education, "... to terminate the use of English in due course."  

Ironically enough, after declaring this principle in February, 1942, the elementary curriculum issued in June of the same year gave to the English subjects time allotments which totalled 2,520 minutes per week in the six grades, almost a thousand minutes more than those devoted to them prior

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6 Inclusion to Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 6, s. 1942, Manila, August 7, 1942.

7 See p. 18.
to the war. In 1943, despite the introduction of the Japanese language into the curriculum, English subjects were still given due importance in the grades. The number of minutes was reduced to 1,800 but this was still more than that of 1941. It was in 1944 that English received a definite setback; the time allotment was reduced to 800 minutes. Nevertheless, as Figure 2 shows, English was never superseded by any other language in the elementary curriculum. At its lowest ebb, it equalled the national language in importance.

The curtailment of English in the high schools clearly indicated a closer conformity to the above-mentioned basic principle. The prescribed curriculum of 1943 relegated English to mere reading and this was to be given only twice a week. In 1944, English was combined with health and physical education to make up a unit. The fruits of such a procedure are reaped in the form of difficulties in the post-Liberation period.

Filipino

The Filipino, or national language, is Tagalog. These terms are used interchangeably, and, in fact, there are some disagreements among the Filipinos regarding the permanent term to be used to designate the national language. For the sake of clearer comparison "Filipino" is used in the graphs included in this chapter.

It was not till 1940 that the Filipino language was made a compulsory subject in the schools and then
Fig. 2.—Minutes per week devoted to the study of the three languages in the elementary grades.
Fig. 3.—Minutes per week devoted to the study of the three languages in the high school.
only in the fourth year. Many barriers had to be re­
moved before such a plan could be carried out; not the
least among them was the dearth of proper textbooks and
of teachers. In 1941, the vernacular was prescribed for
grades three and four in order to enable the schools in
places where Tagalog teachers were unavailable to teach
the dialect of the province.

The Institute of National Language compiled a
standard grammar, *Balarila*, which, since its publication
in 1940, has provided invaluable help in the study and
teaching of the language. The work of this Institute
and the awakened interest in the study of the Filipino
language promised a brighter, though not radiant, future
for the language problem of the Islands.

Luckily, the Japanese rulers did not prohibit
but rather gave their approval to the use of the Filipino
language. However, as the graphs show, the diffusion of
the Japanese language was of paramount importance. This
became especially evident in 1943, and it was only when
the Philippine government gained more power that the
Ministry of Education was able to give the Filipino lan­
guage a greater time allotment in the elementary grades
and to place it on an equal basis with Japanese in the
high school.

As soon as the Philippines obtained her "inde­
pendence," impetus was given to the teaching and propaga­
tion of the Filipino language. The Constitution of 1943
provided that: "The government shall take steps toward the development and propagation of the national language." Executive Order No. 10 of President Laurel included the following:

Effective immediately the national language shall be taught in all public and private high schools, colleges, and universities.

Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-1945, the national language shall be taught in all elementary schools, public and private, and the training of national language teachers on a large scale shall commence immediately.

All efforts shall be exerted to accelerate the diffusion of the national language so that it may become the principal medium of instruction throughout the school and college courses as soon as practicable.

The tables in the previous chapter show that this order was executed. It has been mentioned earlier that a training institute for the teaching of the Filipino language was established. The Minister of Education did not fail to remind the schools of their duty in disseminating the Filipino language:

A common language being a fundamental need, the dissemination of Tagalog as the Filipino language in the speediest and most effective manner possible constitutes an inescapable duty and obligation.

On December 7, 1943, the President proclaimed the week from December 24-30 as "Filipino Language Week."

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9Executive Order No. 10 of the President of the Republic of the Philippines, Manila, November 30, 1943.

10Camilo Osias, "Our Educational and Cultural Orientation," Inclosure to Bureau of Private Education Memorandum No. 9, s. 1944, Manila, May 24, 1944.
which aimed at bringing about the early realization of a closer national unity among the people, and to give special emphasis to the urgent need of having a common tongue among the Filipinos. The Bureau of Private Education transmitted this proclamation to the private schools with the following instructions:

In order to implement the above-quoted proclamation, it is suggested that private schools observe the period from December 24 to December 30, 1943 as a "Filipino National Language Week" and hold on December 27th a "Tagalog Day" by rendering a public program composed of numbers all prepared in the National Language.

During the week beginning December 24th, the schools in session may hold the activities suggested below. Schools that are on vacation during the official "Filipino National Language Week" should undertake these activities during the first week following their Christmas vacation.

1. Conduct all recitations in National Language.
2. Write themes centering on the importance of having one national language for the Filipinos. These themes should be written in the national language.

And in order to ascertain the compliance of the private schools the memorandum thus ended:

For the information of this Bureau every private school head is requested to furnish this Office on or before January 15, 1944 with a brief report on the manner the National Language Week and the Tagalog Day have been observed in his school.

A convention of public school superintendents, in which public and private school authorities and

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12 Ibid.
13 Ibid.
teachers took an active part, was held in Manila, June 26 to July 1, 1944. At the opening of the convention, President Laurel reiterated what he had said on previous occasions, that he wanted to see the development of our national language, which is one of the manifestations of an assertive nationalism. This statement was re-echoed by the Minister of Education, who added certain hints regarding the development of the language (some Filipinos insisted on the "purity" of Tagalog). He said that in our choice of words we must be guided by three characteristics--frequency, utility, and cruciality.

A Committee on the Teaching and Propagation of the Filipino Language had been created and during the session of the Convention devoted to this topic, it gave a detailed report on the policies and aims, methods, and materials used in the teaching of the Filipino Language. The Committee also gave its recommendations and one of them was:

To hasten the use of the national language as the medium of instruction, teachers should begin at once to use Tagalog freely in the teaching of the different subjects in the primary and the intermediate grades whenever the pupils are able to understand and express themselves in this language. In the high schools, the subject-matter and topics that can be feasibly developed or explained in the national language should be discussed in this language.

14 Notes of the writer on the Superintendents' Convention, June 26 to July 1, 1944.
15 Ibid.
Thus gradual and eventual adoption of the national language as the medium of instruction in our schools should come as the language acquisition of the pupils and students warrants, and trained teachers, courses of study, and textbooks are made available. It is the sense of the committee, however, that without waiting for the trained teachers and instructional materials, which certainly will take some time to produce, much of classroom instruction in the Tagalog-speaking provinces and in some non-Tagalog communities which are in a position to do so, may now be given in the national language.16

It can be said that the Filipino language gained more importance and solicited more interest on the part of the pupils during the Occupation. To a lover of the national language, this is certainly one of the redeeming aspects of the whole educational system during that period. The independent Philippines of 1946 has taken up the task of continuing to promulgate the national language. However, the following will throw light on the magnitude of the task:

According to the 1939 Census, only 25.4% of the population in 50 provinces of the Philippines were able to speak Tagalog, 74.6% were not able. In 37 out of the 50 provinces only from 0.9% to 29.6% of the population were Tagalog speaking.17

The above speaks of the condition before the Filipino language was introduced in schools. The efforts and accomplishments of the intervening years were by no means negligible, and it is hoped that the uphill efforts of the Filipinos to cope with the language


17 Ibid.
problem of the Islands will one day redound in the realization of the ideal: one nation, one language.

Japanese

The fourth basic principle of education was, "To put an importance to the diffusion of the Japanese language in the Philippines..." It was evident that the elementary curriculum could not immediately conform to this principle when schools were reopened in 1942. Teachers had to be trained first.

After the first students in the Normal Institute had completed their training, the teaching of the Japanese language was made compulsory. The letter of the Director of Private Education, dated February 12, 1943, shows the importance attached to the language of Nippon during the early part of 1943:

As the Japanese Military Administration has ordered the compulsory teaching of the Japanese language in all private elementary schools in the Philippines effective January, 1943 (see Memorandum No.1, s. 1943), it is requested that you submit to this Office by return mail the name or names of the instructors in Nippongo in your school, together with their qualifications. If instructors other than those who graduated from the Normal Institute are employed, the schools where they studied the Japanese language, the name of the professor who taught them, and the length of time they attended the Japanese class should be definitely reported.

If the order of the Japanese Military Administration cannot be complied with at once due to your inability to employ qualified instructors, you should request permission from the Japanese Military

18 See Chapter II.
19 See p. 42.
Administration, through this Office, for postpone-
ment of the teaching of the Japanese language until
such time as qualified instructors can be employed.  

In March of the same year, the regulations regard-
ing the teaching of Japanese became more rigid. Among
the conditions for the reopening of the private high
schools was the following:

Upon the instruction of the Educational Adviser
of the Japanese Military Administration, no private
high school shall be given permit to reopen unless
it can employ a qualified teacher to teach the Japa-
nese language. This teacher should be either a
graduate of the Normal Institute for the instruc-
tion of teachers in the Japanese language or one who
is duly certified by the Japanese Military Adminis-
tration as having passed an examination given by
said Administration.  

In 1943, the Japanese language was made to out-
shine all the other subjects in the curriculum. The
tables in the preceding chapter as well as Figures 2
and 3 illustrate this fact.

The teaching and diffusion of Nippongo (Japanese
language) was, naturally, one of the topics discussed in
the aforementioned Superintendents' Convention. The
Minister of Education said that Rizal studied Nippongo
and that the Filipinos should follow his example for sev-
eral reasons: it is an asset to know one more language;
a knowledge of the language establishes friendship and

20 Letter of the Director of Private Education to
the directors of private schools, Manila, February 12,
1943.

21 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 3,
s. 1943, Manila, March 10, 1943.
understanding with the Japanese; it is one more agency toward the diffusion of culture; Japanese is the *lingua franca* of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere; the language will help us to know more of our neighbors.\textsuperscript{22} Nevertheless, and despite these reasons, he announced that Nippongo should be taught from the fifth grade up and in the high school and that it should be taught alternately with the national language, with equal emphasis on both.\textsuperscript{23} This policy, followed in the revision of the curriculum, definitely minimized the importance of the Japanese language in the curriculum.

The methods of teaching prescribed in the teaching of Nippongo as well as the books and teaching aids used deserve special mention. The oral aspect of the language study was emphasized; the direct method was employed. In spite of the shortage of paper, linguistic equipments—illustrated books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets—were made available especially to the teachers. Books were brought from Japan, and the increased demand for them in 1943 was met by printing books in Manila. The schools were also kept informed about the purchase of books, for this was done through the Bureau of Private Education.

The illustrated texts, *Hanasi Kotoba* (Spoken

\textsuperscript{22}Notes of the writer on the Superintendents' Convention.

\textsuperscript{23}Ibid.
Language) for beginners and Toku Hon (Readers) for those who finished the former, were in the form of dialogues or conversations and, therefore, lent themselves to repetition or drill in many ways. For example, a page with a picture of a teacher facing his pupils contained the following sentences:

Watakusi wa sensei desu. (ワタクシ わ センセイ デス。 I am a teacher.) Anata wa seito desu. (アナタ ウ セイト デス。 You are a pupil.)

Besides the books, there were colored charts corresponding to the text. Much chorus recitation was done. The classes began with "Ohayō gozaimasu" (オハヨー ジョ ヤマス。 Good morning.) and throughout the day one passing near the classrooms would hear: "Hai" (ハイ。 Yes), "Kore wa hon desu." (コレ ウ ホン デス。 This is a book.) "Watakusi wa onna no ko desu." (ワタクシ ウ オンナ ノ コ デス。 I am a girl.) "Iti, ni, san. . . ." (一、二、三、 . . . . One, two, three. . . . ) and similar expressions. And these were said with a certain inflection of the voice. When the time for dismissal came, the echoes of "Sayōnara" (サヨーナラ。 Goodbye) resounded in the building. The different practices in connection with the conduction of classes will be treated more specifically in Chapter VII.

Reading and writing were not neglected. The children had to get used to writing from top to bottom and right to left. Page one of the Japanese books
corresponds to the last page of our books. By the end of 1943 most of the school children from grade two up knew how to write the katakana alphabet. The pupils of the upper grades and high school could also write sentences and engage in simple conversations.

While the pupils were still trying to read Japanese sentences, the Liberators signalled their coming. Many of the pupils did not find time to say "Sensei, sayonara" (セ ヌ タ イ 、 ヨ ニ ラ ラ。 Teacher, goodbye), as they were wont to. The awaited end of the Occupation also terminated the study of Nippongo.
CHAPTER VII

SOME SPECIAL FEATURES

All things must change
To something new, to something strange.

—Longfellow

The foregoing chapters attempted to give a general picture of the educational system during the Japanese Occupation. But that period was marked by certain special features, curricular and extracurricular, which in retrospect will stand out vividly in the minds of teachers and pupils. Some of them were unprecedented in the Philippine school system because they formed, as it were, segments of the new importation of Japanese culture. Other features, also worth special consideration, did not belong exclusively to the Japanese regime; like streams, they had been running through definite paths during the prewar period, but during the Occupation, their beds were made wider and deeper, and their waters were dyed with special colors. That was what happened to character education and to those subjects calculated to instill love of manual labor.

Japanese Ways

It has been mentioned previously that the
Japanese aimed to inculcate an appreciation of their culture upon the Filipinos. Efforts were made to intensify the "homeward" campaign to things Oriental. It was obvious to the Japanese that certain of their customs would be out of place in a Christian country like the Philippines. Such practices as ancestor-worship and *hara-kiri* (a form of suicide) could not be held up as ideals to the Filipinos and no attempt was made to do so. With certain aspects of Japanese life such as tea ceremony, flower arrangement, moon viewing, and many others, the Filipinos had to be familiarized through the school, press, radio, and other agencies, but it seemed evident that such customs could not be made a part of Filipino life. However, there were Japanese ways that became features of the school life, or at least, were reflected in the educational system during the Occupation.

Although President Laurel lauds the virtues of the Japanese people in his book, *Forces That Make a Nation Great*, yet in the conclusion he points out that there are many things Japanese which are unacceptable to the Filipinos. We read:

I have perhaps depicted the brighter side of Japan but I did so, not because I am a blind admirer of Japan and things Japanese, but in order to present the object lessons of her experience and her people's ingenuity. I realize that we should guard against any exaggerated inclination to accept and admire everything Japanese. In fact there are many things Japanese that are perhaps unacceptable to us either because of our own idiosyncrasies as a people or because certain time-honored traditions that we have must be preserved.
unalloyed for if they are reconciled with or modified by what obtains, or is prevalent practice, in Japan they might become rather unserviceable to our people.

Among the primary lessons taught by the Japanese through both force and persuasion was that of bowing. These object lessons could be learned in the streets and at every meeting with Japanese. Before the schools were reopened, young and old, educated and illiterate, had already been conscious of the reality that bows were due to the conquerors. Bowing is part and parcel of Japanese life and non-performance of it by others was not easily tolerated.

A Japanese bow is not a simple nodding of the head with a pleasant smile. It includes a preliminary standing in position, followed by bending so that the body forms a right angle. Girls are supposed to do it more gracefully by slightly swinging their arms sidewards and then touching the knees with their hands.

Children in school certainly learned to bow. When the teacher entered the class, the pupils stood and while teacher and pupils bowed to each other, the latter said, "Sensei, ohayo gozaimasu" (Teacher, good morning). In the afternoon they would say, "Sensei, konitiwa" (Teacher, good afternoon). In many schools "Sensei" was omitted. When there was a change of

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teachers and before dismissals, all the pupils said, "Arigato gozaimasu" (Thank you) with a bow; then, "Sayonara" (Goodbye) with another bow.

The procedure of bowing was changed after the establishment of the "Republic." The above-mentioned manner was kept for the lessons in the Japanese language. In other classes "Magandang umaga po" (Good morning), "Magandang hapon po" (Good afternoon), "Salamat po" (Thank you), and "Paalam na po" (Goodbye) was substituted for the Japanese greetings and the accompanying bow, called "Kalitapi bow," was made with a slight inclination of the body with the right hand placed above the heart.

Another outstanding Japanese way of doing things which the Filipinos had to learn and practice especially in their dealings with the Japanese was the use of san (Mr. or Miss) after the name of the person spoken to or spoken of. Thus, in Japanese language classes san was appended to the names of the pupils when they were called for recitation. The teacher would say, "Pedro san," and Pedro would stand and respond, "Hai" (Yes) before answering the teacher's question. Sama, which means the same as san but is considered a higher form of honorific, especially for girls, was not used as much in schools as san.

Japanese national festivals found their way into the school calendars while the American holidays, such
as Washington's Birthday and Thanksgiving Day, were erased. The four national festivals observed in Japanese schools were also kept as holidays in Philippine schools: **Shihohai (New Year's Day), Kigensetu (The Empire of Foundation Day) on February 11, Tencho-setu (The Emperor's Birthday) on April 29, and Meiji-setu (Emperor Meiji's Birthday) on November 4.** In Japanese schools these days were celebrated in the following manner:

The student body is gathered in the auditorium. Portraits of the Emperor and the Empress are unveiled; the *Kimigayo* is sung; all bow to the portraits as an expression of loyalty. Then the Principal reads the Imperial Rescript on Education and gives a speech on its meaning.2

The above practice was not followed in Philippine schools. However, there were parades held on special Japanese festivals, and sometimes the private schools were required to participate in them.

All programs and celebrations during the early part of the Occupation included the "National Ceremony" which consisted of:

a. Homage to the Imperial Palace.
b. Meditation as an expression of gratitude to the soldiers who gave up their lives, to their families, and to those who are fighting in the field.3

The first was performed by turning in the

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2 Notes of the writer taken in the Normal Institute.

3 Program for the Graduation Exercises of the Normal Institute, held at the Philippine Normal School Auditorium, Manila, July 31, 1943.
direction of Japan (to the Imperial Palace) and then, at a given sign, usually in Japanese, all made a right angle bow. After another sign all straightened and returned to the original position. The subject of the "meditation" was said in Japanese, followed by an order, and then all had to bow (this time only the head) till the silence was broken by another command. This idea of national ceremony did not die out with the coming of "independence." Its influence will be mentioned in a later part of this chapter.

Japanese influence in schools receded with the gradual decline of Japan's political power in the Islands, or rather, with the progress of the Liberators in the Pacific. Japan's hope of making her culture predominant in the Co-Prosperity Sphere was shattered because of her military defeat.

Radio Taiso

Among Japan's ready offers as contribution in the building of a strong New Philippines, was the "Radio Taiso," a set of gymnastic exercises designed to be made a daily practice and to result eventually in the physical improvement of the nation. It seems that in Japan these exercises were performed by the people according to the announcement and with the musical accompaniment provided by the radio. This form of exercises was promulgated in the Philippines under the auspices of the Department of
Information of the Imperial Japanese Forces. Instructions pertinent to it were made available to the public.

As was to be expected, the school children were among the first who had to learn this series of calisthenics. Aside from those physically incapacitated, every school child performed the "Radio Taiso" during the Occupation. It was not only in schools that the performance of these exercises was made a requirement; all government employees had also to make them daily at certain appointed times. The directions were given through the radio, which also furnished the musical accompaniment during the performance. The Japanese voice counting iti, ni, san, si. . . . (one, two, three, four. . .) heard through re-conditioned radios became a familiar one during the Occupation. The school children did not follow the radio hour but made the exercises during the prescribed physical education periods.

In October, 1942, a "Radio Taiso Week" was held and at its closing there was a mass demonstration of the exercises performed by over 13,000 school children and employees of the government and of private firms. In connection with the first anniversary of the Greater East Asia War, December 8, 1942, Commissioner Recto made "Radio Taiso" the subject of his talk. He said:

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4Claro M. Recto, Address delivered on the history of the introduction of "Radio Taiso" in the Philippines, New Luneta, Manila, December 8, 1942.
As we celebrate today the first anniversary of the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, our thoughts naturally turn to the manifold changes and improvements that have been introduced in the Philippines by the victorious Imperial Japanese Forces. One of them is "Radio Taiso," which has been welcomed with enthusiasm by our school children, by officials and employees of the Government and of private concerns, and by men and women in all walks of life who know the value of keeping physically fit by going through a series of calisthenics every day.

"Radio Taiso" was conceived in Japan by the Imperial Government as early as fifteen years ago, in order to provide exercises for all ages and groups of people. The idea immediately became popular and sets for free-hand exercises were designed by expert gymnastic teachers from societies and educational institutions. After a relatively short period of time these exercises gained widespread interest throughout the Empire until almost all the people from cities and towns and villages perform the "Radio Taiso" as a daily practice.

Further on in the same address, he emphasized the importance of such a national program of physical activity and envisaged its good results:

In the past years we have adopted the "Play-for-Everybody" movement. But in practice this only benefited the children in schools, students of colleges and universities, and a small portion of the government employees. "Radio Taiso," if properly organized and well directed, can be extensively fostered to reach and benefit every boy and girl and every man and woman, in all walks of life—in schools, in business, in the professions, in farms, and industrial establishments. With such a national program of physical activity there is bound to be an improvement in the general efficiency of the masses in their ability to meet successfully the demands of their daily work and perhaps also improve their mode of life, resulting ultimately in better health, greater efficiency, and more happiness.

"Radio Taiso" was composed of three group

5Ibid.
6Ibid.
exercises. While the smaller children performed only the first group, the high school pupils learned also the second, and even the third group. These exercises were graded in difficulty and were considered efficient means of physical improvement. "Radio Taiso" does not differ much from other gymnastic exercises but its dissemination aimed at uniformity of the physical exercises performed in the Islands, nay, in Greater East Asia. Such a uniformity was conducive to mass demonstrations. Several times during the Occupation all the private schools in Manila had to send a prescribed number of pupils to the Normal School grounds in order to perform the "Radio Taiso" en masse, while school and other government officials—Filipinos and Japanese—witnessed their achievements. Schools in the provinces were not exempted from such performances in their respective localities.

"Radio Taiso" is no longer a part of Physical Education in the Philippines. However, it can be presumed that every child who attended classes during the Occupation will long remember that he once upon a time performed physical exercises to the counting of iti, ni, san, si, go, roku, siti, hati . . . .

Character Education and Nationalism

The Philippines may rightly be proud that character education has always been among the objectives of its school system. During the Spanish regime this work was done through the teaching of religion, a task
carried on by the Catholic schools. Despite the secularization of education during the American regime, character education has not been relegated to the background. The subject, Good Manners and Right Conduct, has always been in the curriculum, usually included in Conversational English in the grades. But curiously enough, in 1941, when war was soon to grip the Islands, its time allotment was increased. One may rightly infer that the tremendous force of nationalism, made greater by the threat of the coming hostilities, called for greater accent on better citizenship. The following pages will attempt to show how it was, as it were, identified with nationalism.

In 1941, the Bureau of Education gave the following as one of the main features of the revised primary and intermediate curricula:

The time allotment of 40 minutes a week for Character Education in Grades V and VI in the old curriculum is increased to 100 minutes a week in the revised curriculum for these grades in order to carry out to a fuller extent the provisions of Section 2 of Commonwealth Act No. 586 in so far as the section refers to more practical citizenship training.7

Since then, Character Education in lieu of Good Manners and Right Conduct was tied up with Citizenship Training. The subject was called in 1942 and 1943 "Character Education and Citizenship Training" in the

7Bureau of Education, Circular No. 23, s. 1941, Manila, June 23, 1941.
grades and in the high school, merely "Character Educa-
tion." The tendency to synchronize character education
with love of country began before the war, but its emo-
tional element was repressed during the days when the
power of the new rulers did not permit its manifestation.

Then came the political change in October, 1943,
and the Filipino leaders called for intense, assertive,
dynamic nationalism. It has been mentioned in Chatper
V that in 1944 Character Education and Nationalism was
made the most important subject in the curriculum. The
first instruction appended to both elementary and high
school curricula of 1944 was: "In every subject the
teacher should be alert to take advantage of opportuni-
ties which may contribute to the development of charac-
ter and nationalism." 8

What is nationalism? Hayes defines it as "a
modern emotional fusion and exaggeration of two very old
phenomena--nationality and patriotism." 9 It is a force
so tremendous that it has produced the world's great
tragedy--international anarchy--staged in the two World
Wars which have left indescribable misery in their wake.
We read:

Of all forces tending to divide the world's
population into competing, suspicious, and at

8Ministry of Education, Ministry Circular No. 2,
s. 1944, Manila, July 18, 1944.

9Walter R. Sharp and Grayson Kirk, Contemporary
International Politics, p. 94. New York: Rinehart and
Company, Inc., 1946.
times hostile communities, nationalism is by all odds the most potent and ubiquitous.\(^{10}\)

Nationalism is both constructive and destructive. The world is aware that many a nation owes its integrity and strength to nationalistic movements. Nationalism is appealing; men cling to their "national honor" and "national prestige." This is true of all members of the world's community. The Filipino people, as soon as they felt the least "independence," gave vent to the surging emotions of love for their own country and this even in the midst of the troubled Occupation period. The government, like those of most, if not all, nations of the world, made use of the schools for the indoctrination of nationalism.

During the Superintendents' Convention explanations about character education and nationalism were given by the Minister of Education and by the Committee on Character Education. What is character education as conceived by Minister Osias? He emphatically said: "Character education includes the development of nationalism and love of country."\(^{11}\) Furthermore, he explained that character education includes moral, social, and spiritual education; it trains citizens for the state.\(^{12}\)

\(^{10}\)Ibid., p. 93.

\(^{11}\)Notes of the writer on the Superintendents' Convention.

\(^{12}\)Ibid.
Besides classroom instruction and the good example of the teachers, various means were suggested to put into effect the program of character education and nationalism. These means, designed to permeate the whole educational system with love of country, consisted of certain special features which were introduced into the school life during the last months of the Occupation.

The "National Ceremony," which was analogous to the Japanese one mentioned in the early part of this chapter, was prescribed for all schools. Ministry Order No. 7 left no detail of it unexplained and the instructions were not only graphic but suggestive of the spirit of the time during which they were written. The following are the instructions in full:

1. In order to set the proper emotional tone in programs and celebrations, to help create a spiritual center of gravity for our people and to foster a stronger spirit of national solidarity and of consecration to the Republic of the Philippines, the following National Ceremony in English and in Tagalog is hereby prescribed for strict observance at all programs and celebrations held in all schools, colleges and universities, and under the auspices of the Ministry of Education or any Bureau or office under it.

**National Ceremony**

a. Salute to the Flag.
b. One-minute meditation and silent prayer in honor of the heroes and martyrs of Philippine Freedom and for the success of the Republic of the Philippines.

**Pambansang Parangal**

a. Pagyukod sa Watawat

b. Isang minutong paggunita at tahimik na pananalangin sa karangalan ng mga layunin
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at martir ng kalayaang Pilipino at sa pagtatagumpay ng Republika ng Pilipinas.

2. Either the English or the Tagalog version may be used as the circumstances may require.

3. Everyone present at the program should salute the Flag at the given command (Bow in English, Yukod in Tagalog) by slightly bowing to the Flag, his right hand placed over the heart. When the command As you were (in English) or Sa dati (in Tagalog) is given a split second after the bow, all those present at the Ceremony should resume their original standing position.

4. When the second feature of the National Ceremony, namely, the one-minute meditation and silent prayer, has been announced and the command Begin (in English) or Magsimula (in Tagalog) is given, all bow slightly from the neck to meditate and pray accordingly. After a minute, the command As you were (in English) or Sa dati (Tagalog) will be given; thereupon everyone resumes his original position.

5. Both features of the National Ceremony should be observed with earnestness, reverence, and solemnity.

6. Everyone attending a program or celebration should participate in the National Ceremony, and the pupils, the students, the teachers, and employees and officials connected with the Ministry of Education should, by precept and example, help the people learn and observe the exact phraseology used in announcing its features and the corresponding commands, and the proper attitude and behavior during its observance.13

Another unprecedented means used for inculcating love of one’s country, which showed Japanese influence, was the patriotic shrine. Its description and symbolism are as follows:

This [patriotic] shrine would consist of our flag flanked by a picture of Rizal on the right and one of the President of the Republic on the left.

13Quoted in Bureau of Education, Memorandum No. 16, s. 1944, Manila, June 27, 1944.
The picture of Rizal should recall the rich traditions with which our history is replete. The picture of the President of the Republic should symbolize the unity of the present, and the hope that we as a people may reach the zenith of our aspirations. The flag is a symbol of our past struggles and our future hopes; each color has a meaning to each and everyone: red for courage and bravery; blue for constancy, fidelity, truth; white for purity. The flag is a sacred symbol, the symbol of our country. Her three stars stand for Luzon, the Visayas, and Mindanao. The sun, that ever warms the heart, stands for unity, solidarity. It should signify the essence of nationalism, the organic unity of the common interests of our people.14

Teachers were told to give to character education a positive and negative aspect—to aim at the cultivation of the virtues of our forebears and to eradicate our undesirable traits—in order to develop good, dynamic, and serviceable Filipinos.15 The study of the lives of the national heroes was given much emphasis in connection with character education. The virtues of Rizal, Matini, Bonifacio, Del Pilar, Tandang Sora, and others were presented in bright colors not only in the classrooms but also during school programs. In some schools the "National Heroes Corner" provided visual appeal for the pupils.

The recommendations made by the Committee on Character Education during the Superintendents' Convention gave a wide range of devices, designed to foster nationalism. Some of them follow:

14Notes taken by the writer on the Superintendents' Convention.
15Ibid.
1. All teachers should learn by heart that section of character education that is contained in the Constitution. They should develop personality and character and set an example for the youth.
2. Our efforts as educators should be directed to the moulding of a type of citizenship that should be animated by a deep-seated love for God and country, a citizenship with faith in Divine Providence, patriotism, filial piety, fortitude . . . . a citizenship that shall be self-directing, free, and happy.
3. Character Education should dominate the curriculum and should top all school subjects.
4. Customs like kissing of the hands of parents and elders, cooperative labor, family prayer should be revived.
5. Bad habits like lack of discipline, the 'manaña habit' (putting off till tomorrow), 'lingas kugon' (lack of perseverance), love for easy living should be eradicated.
6. The spirit of neighborliness should be promoted by encouraging children to come and go to school together.
7. A form of salute should be adopted which would consist of putting the hand over the heart and making a slight bow.
8. Representations should be made to the proper authorities to enforce the laws and close all gambling centers.
9. A campaign should be undertaken against vulgar expressions.
10. Children should be encouraged to pray.16

It has already been remarked that during the brief days of the "Republic" the singing of Filipino patriotic songs and other native melodies was very much fostered. Rules regarding the singing of the Philippine National Anthem, Diwa ng Bayan, were issued.

Also designed to promote nationalism were the celebrations of festivals such as Rizal Day, National Heroes' Day, Constitution Day, Kapariz Day, and others. The schools were carefully instructed as to the manner

16 Ibid.
of celebrating them. Prewar schools were familiar with such celebrations, but during the Occupation definite injunctions, designed to make them more meaningful, were issued. The instructions pertaining to the National Heroes' Day celebration is representative of the spirit of nationalism that such festivals aimed at:

1. In order that National Heroes' Day, November 30, may be observed in a manner befitting its importance, the following activities are suggested for observance in all authorized private schools:

   (a) The holding of a simple but appropriate program or convocation stressing loyalty and patriotism to the fatherland.

   (b) Pilgrimage to historical places and floral offering at monuments of Filipino patriots.

   (c) In classroom recitations, the biographies of national heroes or feats of bravery and loyalty which have immortalized them could be recounted.

2. Private school heads are urged to exert efforts in celebrating this holiday fittingly in order that love of country may be instilled deeper in the hearts of the pupils and students by immortalizing and glorifying the deeds of our national heroes.17

In order to inspire, encourage, and help the Filipino youth "to live the Rizal way," the Kapariz or Kabataang Pangarap ni Rizal (Youth the Dream of Rizal) was established. Among the purposes of this organization were: to instill in the Filipino youth an abiding love of Rizal's life and teachings; to encourage youth to follow his example; to develop in the youth of the land love of

17Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 31, s. 1943, Manila, November 19, 1943.
country, love of God, and love of parents. The Kapariz Circular No. 1, entitled "Organization, Management and Maintenance of Local Kapariz Chapters," was sent to the private schools on August 22, 1944, just a month before the first appearance of the Liberators. Obviously, not much was done towards the materialization of the plans stated in the above-mentioned circular.

It seems not out of place to mention in this connection a relieving feature of the Occupation period. By and large, the discipline problem in schools was minimized during that time. The children were simpler, more willing to endure the hardships of life which circumstances imposed upon them. The war gave them practical character education.

Home and Community Membership

"To inspire the people with the spirit to love labor" was the sixth basic principle of education promulgated by the Imperial Japanese Forces. This was not a new principle of education in the Philippines, for it had been a working one long before the Japanese invaded the Islands. Cooking, housekeeping, sewing, poultry-raising, gardening, carpentry, and other industrial arts had been included in the prewar program of studies. The giving of such courses was one of the principal attempts

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18 Notes of the writer on the Superintendents' Convention.

19 See Chapter II.
of the schools to overcome the disinclination towards manual labor among the Filipinos.

In 1942 the course, Home Membership, was introduced to meet the needs of the child and make him as useful as possible in the home. The major aim was to develop worthy members of Filipino homes, members who would promote an ever-improving Filipino way of life.

The general objectives were:

1. To become familiar through actual participation with the most effective methods of producing food and other products for home use and for the market (food production).
2. To develop an ability in the preparation, preservation and serving of food (food preservation).
3. To take an active part in making the home and premises healthful and beautiful (home upkeep).
4. To be able to make, care for, and repair useful articles like ladles, tools and utensils needed in the homes (making of useful articles and their repair).
5. To develop ability in the making, care and mending of clothing (clothing).
6. To help care for other members of the family and household pets (caring for others).
7. To help the family in efficient buying and selling (buying and selling).

In January, 1943, the course was renamed Home and Community Membership and "as the title implies, the activities include not only membership in the home but in the community as well." Theoretically, this course covered a very wide range of activities. According to the outline of the course for the intermediate grades, it included the study of health, cooking, clothing and

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20 Notes of the writer taken in the Normal Institute.

21 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 2, s. 1943, Manila, January 12, 1943.
textiles, industrial training—dressmaking, native cooking, catering, operating a beauty parlor, running a store, weaving, poultry-raising, bookbinding, and a long list of other industrial arts.

In keeping with the fifth basic principle (to foster vocational education) and the sixth one mentioned above, vocational training for boys and home economics for girls became obligatory in all reopened academic high schools in 1945. Such courses also aimed to make the pupils worthy members of their respective homes and communities. The theoretical aspect of the course was not neglected in the upper grades and in the high school, but the practical one received more emphasis.

It is obvious that during a time when foreign materials were unavailable, and even native ones scarce and costly, Home and Community Membership activities would be confined to the making of native articles. Recipes followed in the cooking lessons included only those that used ingredients obtainable in the market. Wheat flour was absent in almost all homes, and therefore varied recipes were prepared in order to make use of casava, rice, or corn flour. Soon cooking had to be reduced to a minimum and gradually it became an impossibility when scarcity of food and rigid rationing reached its worst.

The Filipinos had many needs which, during the prewar period, were satisfied by imported goods.
During the Occupation much ingenuity was exhibited in meeting such needs by making use of native materials. Wooden shoes with fancy carvings replaced leather shoes; buri bags were substituted for foreign-made ones; in lieu of aluminum, coconut shells and clay were used in fashioning cooking utensils. It would take very much space to mention the list of substitutes the people used in order to keep up, as far as possible, the customary standard of living, even under adverse conditions.

Accordingly, the children had to be trained to meet these conditions, so that they could become worthy members of the homes and the communities to which they belonged. Rolls of buri and bundles of abaca found their way into the classrooms. The pupils took no little pride in being able to make belts, slippers, bags, and other articles for their own use, and sometimes they made them for their mothers and other relatives. Boys made ladles, baskets, vases, and other household articles for their homes.

On September 22-24, 1943, the private schools displayed samples of the accomplishments in the making of Philippine articles at the Philippine Women's University, Manila. The exhibited works included remodeled and renovated articles, things made in applied arts and other vocational courses, and work done in the chemistry laboratories. The objects exhibited had to be labelled in Nippongo, Tagalog, and English, and on the labels of
articles done by the elementary pupils, the age had also to be indicated. The articles to be exhibited were selected on the basis of utility, workmanship, presentation, and variety. The following shows the variety of the exhibits:

a. Buri  c. Embroidery, etc.  h. Tin or metal
b. Abaca  d. Bamboo
e. Macrame  f. Rattan  i. Sea shells
Crochet  g. Remnants  j. Beads
Braiding  k. Wood, etc.

Vocational Training and Character Education were the two subjects stressed again and again, during the days of the so-called independent Philippines. In 1944, Home and Community Membership was directed towards a still more realistic goal--how to meet the threat of starvation. This topic is discussed next.

Food Production

As the days of the Occupation dragged on the Philippines increasingly felt the drain that was made on her economic resources. Farmers neglected production because they discovered that they were working only for the Japanese army. Places where foodstuffs had been stored were raided by the Japanese--barely any remote corner of the Islands escaped this horror. Prices went sky-high, and Japanese money, so-called "Mickey-Mouse money," flooded the Archipelago. Means of transportation became

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22Letter of the Director of Private Education to the directors of private schools, Manila, September 2, 1943.
more and more difficult to secure; foodstuff shipments were always in danger of confiscation. Manila was in a very precarious position, for added to insecurity were the black forebodings of famine.

Many means were employed in a futile attempt to avert the danger of famine. The Food Production Campaign was launched by the "Republic" as the last means of salvation from hunger. Naturally, the schools had to take an active part in the campaign. The first announcement to this effect was sent to the private schools in November, 1943:

All private schools especially those in the provinces should wage a more intensive campaign for increased food production. The increasing price of foodstuffs in every community makes it imperative that our schools should lead in cultivating school and home gardens and in raising pigs, chickens, ducks, etc.

The following procedure is suggested in carrying out the food production campaign:

a. The school should make a survey of lots available for gardens and animal projects in each locality. Unused portions of the school site, pupils' home lots, etc. should be utilized. Arrangement may be made with private land-owners for the use of their lots by those who do not have garden lots in their homes.

b. Steps should be taken to provide a strong garden fence to provide protection from stray animals such as pigs, goats, horses, carabaos, etc.

c. Arrangement may be made with local municipal or city officials or representatives of the Bureau of Plant Industry or Animal Industry for seeds, seedlings, cuttings, piglings, chickens, etc. for raising purposes. In rural regions, farmers often keep enough seeds in stock.

The Bureau worked out a plan providing for

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23 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 30, s. 1943, Manila, November 12, 1943.
supervision:

a. The students in the whole school may be divided into as many groups as there are barrios represented.

b. Each barrio is placed under a teacher who visits each home project of students at least once a month. The teacher may assign one assistant from each section to help him or her check up on the home projects.

c. Each student submits a report of his home project to the teacher in charge. The report should cover the following:

Home Garden: location, dimensions, vegetables planted, time of planting and harvest, use made of crops.

Animal project: location, kind, number, disposal of livestock.

Every teacher in school should be assigned to supervise the food production of projects of students. The students should receive grades for their home projects equivalent to \( \frac{1}{2} \) of the grade in the vocational or home economics subjects. These grades should appear in the B. E. Form 137 and 138.24

And in order to ascertain compliance, the following was added:

All schools are requested to submit a report to this Office not later than March, 1944 on the work done in connection with the food production campaign. The report should also state the area planted to various crops and the estimated value of the products raised. The livestock products should be reported in a similar manner.25

Trees were cut, ornamental plants were rooted up, and school gardens were prepared. After a month, the Bureau announced that it desired to encourage all

24 Ibid.

25 Ibid.
private schools to substitute at once vegetable gardening, poultry, and swine-raising for the vocational courses in arts, music, trade and industries which were being then offered in the schools. Again, a report for such projects was required. Two weeks later, the Bureau of Private Education called for greater food production and ordered adjustments in the school program to be made. Among the instructions from the Ministry of Education transmitted to the directors of private schools for "immediate compliance" were:

Adjustments in the school program should be made in all schools now holding Saturday classes so that these schools could run on a five-day-a-week program and Saturday morning could be devoted exclusively to food production activities.

Home gardening should be encouraged in all schools, especially in schools with limited sites and other facilities for food production activities. Home gardening under proper supervision may be taken by school boys and girls in lieu of school gardening. 26

Food production was the by-word of the day. Teachers and pupils were asked for active cooperation. On February 17, the private schools were given additional instructions to be carried into effect "at once." School programs had to be revised and these programs had to be submitted to the Bureau not later than March 1, 1944. The food production campaign called for no little adjustment and work by teachers and pupils. The following

26 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 36, s. 1943, Manila, December 29, 1943.

27 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 1, s. 1944, Manila, January 12, 1944.
was the instruction of the Vice-Minister of Education:

Referring to a letter of this Office dated January 12, 1944, which was quoted in your Memorandum No. 1, s. 1944, I desire to inform you that Section (2) of the said letter is hereby modified so that the regular school and classroom work in the intermediate and secondary schools shall be done on a half day, the other half day to be devoted exclusively to food production. The necessary adjustments in the school programs should be made so that the arrangement indicated above may be given full effect.

In view of the emergency now obtaining concerning our food supply, and in response to the several appeals made by His Excellency, the President, it is desired that all teachers, as well as pupils, be led to realize the necessity of extending every possible effort to utilize all our available resources for greater food production. Teachers and school officials should not only themselves engage in gardening and other food-producing activities, but they should likewise take advantage of every opportunity to get their neighbors and the people in their respective communities in general to devote all the time that they can spare to help in the production of foodstuff so that the general welfare of the country may be maintained. Saturday mornings will be devoted as at present, exclusively to food production activities.

By March, no credit could be given for Home and Community Membership, if the child did not do any food production work in his home. It meant that no promotion was possible without food production. More specific details were issued by the Bureau of Private Education:

On the occasion of the birthday anniversary of His Excellency, Dr. Jose P. Laurel, President of the Republic of the Philippines, on March 9, an intensified drive for food production, particularly in the city of Manila, will be launched. Owing to the critical food situation it is believed that, instead of celebrating the day with programs, the private schools will do better to dedicate it to the

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28 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 4, s. 1944, Manila, February 17, 1944.
planting of staple food crops, thereby enabling them to contribute towards attaining the objective of self-sufficiency in food. Every private school pupil or student, therefore, beginning on March 9 this year, is required to plant and take care of staple food crops as follows:

a. Primary school pupils: Not less than 20 cuttings of camote, or 10 cuttings of camoteng cahoy, or 10 shoots of gabi, arrowroot, or any other staple food crop.

b. Intermediate school pupils: Not less than 30 cuttings of camote, or 15 cuttings of camoteng cahoy, or 15 shoots of gabi, arrowroot, or any other staple food crop.

c. Students above the intermediate school: Not less than 40 cuttings of camote, or 20 cuttings of camoteng cahoy, or 20 shoots of gabi, arrowroot, or any other staple food crop.

If pupils cannot raise the staple food crops mentioned above due to lack of ground, they may raise chickens, ducks, geese, and other animals for food as follows:

aa. Primary school pupils: Not less than a pair of fowls or one pig or any other domestic animal for food.

bb. Pupils and students above the primary grades: Not less than two female and one male fowls or one pig or any other domestic animal for food.

Credit for food production work, taken in lieu of home and community membership activities in the elementary grades and any vocational subject in the high school, should not be given until the requirements indicated in Paragraph 1 above are complied with. To carry out this food production drive effectively it is necessary that teachers visit and see actually the children's projects. Supervisors from this Office have been instructed to inspect these projects, evaluate them, and if necessary suggest ways of attaining effectively the objectives of self-sufficiency in food.

Pupils who have no backyard for gardening should be given preference in the cultivation of the school grounds. Vacant places along sidewalks and public parks are often made available to those who want to
contribute their efforts in food production. Whenever and wherever possible teachers should help pupils make arrangements with the proper authorities for utilizing these vacant spaces.29

Teachers spent their after class hours and Saturdays going to the homes of the pupils to inspect their home gardens and to grade them accordingly. Many a home garden in Manila was on the sidewalk, or even on the parking in the middle of a wide avenue. By March 31, a special report had to be submitted to the Bureau, for the above-mentioned Memorandum included the following:

A special report on the work begun on March 9 should be submitted to this Office not later than March 31, 1944, in the following form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>High School &amp; above</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment (for the month) ..</td>
<td>Number of camote cuttings planted and taken care of .................</td>
<td>Number of camoteng kahoy cuttings planted and taken care of ...............</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of gabi and arrow-root shoots and others planted and taken care of ................</td>
<td>Number of fowls raised .....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of other animals .....</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Bureau of Private Education sent out supervisors to inspect the school and home gardens. Gardening became the core of the curriculum during the last days of the Occupation. The schools did their best.

29 Bureau of Private Education, Memorandum No. 6, s. 1944, Manila, March 6, 1944.

30 Ibid.
What about the results? Surely the gardens of school children supplied many a home with vegetables and other food crops of which they would have been otherwise deprived. But the food problem was so great that it was beyond remedy by the efforts of the schools. Moreover, bombs, shells, and other lethal weapons, supplemented by direct slaughtering of innocent victims, contributed their major share in making the primary aim of the food production campaign a failure. It aimed to save the lives of the people in the Philippines. Few, indeed, were the lives it saved, and many were the lives demanded by the bloody conclusion of the Japanese Occupation.
CHAPTER VIII

LIBERATION

People of the Philippines: I have returned. . . . . The hour of your redemption is here. . . . . Rally to me. Let the indomitable spirit of Bataan and Corregidor lead on.

—General MacArthur

Over the radio, in its "Voice of Freedom" broadcast, the above words rang out on October 20, 1944, after the American armed forces had landed on Leyte. With General MacArthur the exiled Philippine Commonwealth officials came home. While the great campaign of Philippine liberation was being pushed forward, the Commonwealth government was not unmindful of the education of Filipino youth. Barely two weeks after the first landing on Leyte, the Department of Public Instruction, headed at that time by Carlos P. Romulo, ordered the immediate reopening of classes in liberated areas. It is interesting to note that the following proclamation announced the return to the old order of things as they were before the outbreak of the hostilities:

In accordance with the instructions of the President of the Philippines, Honorable Sergio Osmeña, schools in all liberated areas shall open on Wednesday, November 8, 1944. Enrollment should take place on Monday and Tuesday preceding the
opening of classes. Schools in municipalities liberated after the date mentioned above may open classes immediately, and the date of opening should be reported to the Office of the Division Superintendent of Schools.

The school curriculum in effect in December 1941 under the Commonwealth of the Philippines shall be followed. All orders and regulations promulgated by the Bureau of Education regarding employment of qualified teachers, size of classes, classroom programs, lesson plans, etc., shall be enforced.

The Department, conscious of the inevitable problems of promotion and enrollment concomitant with the troubled situation, offered solutions in the aforementioned order:

In order that pupils and students may not be retarded in their schooling the following regulations shall be followed in enrolling pupils and students:

a. Pupils and students shall be admitted to the grade or year they were enrolled (sic) on October 20, 1944, and shall be required to take all the subjects offered in the curriculum approved by the Commonwealth of the Philippines which they failed to take.

b. Pupils and students, who were in schools in December, 1941 and did not attend classes until now will be given a review class of the unfinished work and then a test covering such work will be administered and if they obtain satisfactory grades, they may be enrolled in classes immediately above the grade or year they were attending at the outbreak of the war in 1941.

c. Work satisfactorily done by senior classes at the commencement of hostilities in 1941 may be deemed equivalent to the requirements for graduation or completion of the year's work for 1941-42.2

President Osmeña made plans regarding education

1"Schools Reopen in the Philippines," Education for Victory, III (February 20, 1945), 1.

2Ibid.
in the liberated Philippines and envisaged an educational system imbued with the principles of liberty and democracy. While still in Tacloban, Leyte, he said:

Following closely military operations that are rapidly destroying the Japanese military power, the Government of the Commonwealth will restore to the people all the school facilities obtaining before the war. Special emphasis will be given in the school to instill in the mind of the youth the principles of democracy, liberty, and human dignity. As soon as the central office of the Department of Instruction is re-established in Manila, a complete educational survey will be undertaken by experts that I will bring from the United States with the purpose of making our system of public instruction up-to-date and enable the people to cope with the new responsibilities that will be ours in the new world of freedom that will be established after the war. Every effort will be exerted to extend our established cultural relations with the United States and Latin America.

How many Filipinos heard the awaited "I have returned" of MacArthur? How many schools received the Order issued by Romulo? The number cannot be given, nor can conjectures claim accuracy. Nevertheless, it is certain that at the time when the above tidings of liberty regained were announced, they reached only a very insignificant minority of the population of the Philippines. Instead, deafening noise of tombs, shells, anti-aircraft, machine guns, tanks, and airplanes reached the ears of many. Rumors of atrocities were spreading like wildfire, driving people in all directions, even to places where refugees were met by death rather than safety. In some municipalities less molested by battles

3Ibid., pp. 1-2.
and other tragic happenings, schools were kept open for
children whose parents were daring enough to stay in
spite of the insecurity.

The war of Liberation progressed rapidly. By
the end of January, 1945, the armed forces had made their
landings in Luzon. The cataclysmic march of events
brought indescribable horror and misery. The southern
section of Manila was almost wiped out and in this part
of the city many of the private elementary and high
schools of the Philippines were situated. At least fif­
ten private schools located south of the Pasig River
went up in flames. Nothing was left of the schools--
libraries, laboratory equipment, desks--all were reduced
to ashes. No words will suffice to tell of the material
losses of the schools in the Philippines.

The following article in Time amply describes
the school situation in the Islands after the gloomy end
of the Japanese Occupation:

Few Philippine school buildings survived the
years of war (and the best of those that were left
had been taken over for hospitals and by the Army).
Some classrooms had neither desks nor chairs. Few
pencils, little paper and no chalk was [sic] to be
had. The books that remained were encrusted with
the paste marks of Japanese censors. This was the
Filipino education picture last week, as tens of
thousands of children went back to school for the
first time since the Jap occupation.

What the war has done to 40 years of patient
educational progress was plain to see in battered
Manila. Only 20 of the 48 big elementary schools
could open. Their makeshift quarters accommodated
only a third of the pre-war enrollment (112,000).
Three of the city's four high schools which nor­
mally served 26,000 students were hard put to it
to take 4,000. In two of them, students found refu-

gee squatters who refused to budge.

The universities were in even worse shape. The
once-handsome campus of the University of the Philip-
pines was a shell-pocked wreck. Santo Tomas Uni-
versity, which has housed civilian war prisoners dur-
ing the occupation, managed to reopen its law, edu-
cation, commerce and liberal arts colleges, but most
of its halls are filled with hospital beds. Luzon's
small private colleges, which once had 22,000 stu-
dents, reopened with only skeleton courses for their
few thousand registrants.

Said the Commonwealth's Under Secretary of In-
struction Florentino Cayco: 'It is a case of start-
ing all over.'

Yes, it is a case of "starting all over." In the
absence of material equipment for education, the challenge
to the teacher's ability reached an unprecedented level.
Francisco Benitez voiced his plea for a better teaching
force after his appointment as Secretary of Instruction.
His statement reads in part:

Now that our school plants, equipment, and books
have been destroyed, we can test begin the rehabili-
tation of our educational system by rehabilitating
the teaching profession. More than ever before are
competent teachers the truly essential factor in our
educational work.

Despite prodigious difficulties and the havoc
wrought by war, the announcement for reopening of pri-

tate schools was issued by the Department of Instruction
and Information soon after the liberation of Manila. De-
partment Order No. 1 is dated March 20, 1945, when a good

4"Back to School," Time, XLVI (July 16, 1945),
84.

5Quoted in "Education in the Philippines,"
School and Society, LXIII (March, 1946), 223-24.
part of the Islands was still awaiting emancipation from the fetters of the retreating rulers. Applications once more had to be submitted, and permits had to be secured before schools could be officially reopened. Subjects banned during the Occupation were restored to the curriculum, and the present program of studies is very similar to that of 1941. Naturally, the Japanese Language and Basic Principles of Education were energetically erased from the pages of the plan of studies. Certain provisions are noteworthy because they form the antithesis of the principles promulgated by the Japanese. The lone footnote in the curriculum for private elementary schools, issued on May 28, 1945, says:

Social studies shall include much of the material formerly included in Character Education and Citizenship Training and will stress the democratic ways of life.6

Another provision directly aimed to counteract a practice in use during the Occupation was made soon after the Liberation:

The Philippine and American National Anthems should be taught early in the term and should be sung at the beginning of the school day. The English version of the Philippine Anthem should be used. Any version composed during the Japanese occupation or the puppet Republic shall not be used.7

Bulletin No. 1, s. 1946, issued by the Office of Private Education on February 1, 1946, gives the numbers

6Office of Private Education, Memorandum No. 6, s. 1945, Manila, May 28, 1945.
7Office of Private Education, Memorandum No. 1, s. 1945, Manila, March 31, 1945.
of the authorized private elementary and secondary schools; Primary, 130 (in 1938: 279); Intermediate, 122 (in 1938: 228); High School, 260 (in 1938: 279). Since then many more schools have been reopened or newly opened. Where are these schools? Many of them are in their old location, in the ruins of their former school buildings. Patched tin roofing, pulled out of the debris, covers the standing walls of many a school. Some schools are made of bamboo and nipa. Teachers and pupils meet in every possible school situation. However, many school buildings are being reconstructed.

Inadequate school housing and equipment and mounting economic handicaps do not comprise all the post-liberation private school problems. There are other problems, the solutions of which require more than carpentry and masonry. The Catholic Educational Association of the Philippines made a survey of the effects of wartime experiences on the pupils. The report of the Survey Committee is not only revealing and interesting, but can also be taken as a description of the conditions prevailing now in most, if not all, Philippine private schools, of which a large proportion are Catholic schools. Most of the findings presented by the Committee will not be surprising after the reading of the preceding pages of this paper. The first finding presented reads as follows:

In general, students were found to be woefully unprepared for the work of the grades or years in
which they were enrolled during the schoolyear 1945-46.

In a sense, this was to be expected. Three years of systematic Jap looting of the curriculum content of the school system, were bound to produce their effects.®

Remembering the minor consideration given to English during the Occupation, the following was to be expected:

Students are most deficient in English, both as an ordinary medium of expression and as a vehicle for the study of literature. This deficiency extends even to grammar. And when it comes to rating their literary taste as indicated by the reading matter they seek, the students' mark is very low, indeed. Whether deficiency is due to poor literary taste or vice versa, will remain a moot question. At any rate, their taste for reading material seems to revolve not very far around the comics and cartoon strips. The one undeniable phase is the unanimous agreement among all educators questioned, that the post-liberation adolescent is very ill at ease with English and is definitely unprepared for the work of the curriculum level he is enrolled in, as far as this subject is concerned. And remember, this is how the student stands with reference to 1941—which was no golden year with respect to this subject!®

That Home and Community Membership activities, fostered and emphasized by the school authorities, and enforced by the inescapable circumstances during the Occupation, proved a success can be gleaned from this passage:

The post-liberation student is rated highest in Domestic Science. Here,--obviously the result of the occupation struggle for survival--he, or


9Ibid.
rather she, is better off than her 1941 sister. Her familiarity with the use of locally produced foodstuffs, her superior knowledge of food substitutes, as well as her resourcefulness in making the most of the scarcity in textiles and other items of apparel, augur well for an independent national existence.¹⁰

Concerning other subjects it was found that:

The deficiency observed in English is also present, though to a lesser extent, in Mathematics. In this subject, at least, they are learning with normal speed and retain quite well, current matter thus learned.

In the social science field, the student gives a better showing. The internationally important events that he has been witness to, have aroused in him an interest not noticeable in the 1941 adolescent. Being interested in the subject, it is not difficult for him to acquit himself creditably in it. Furthermore, his experience with Jap propaganda has developed in him a sort of a protective sixth sense against this type of 'fact reporting' in other garbs.

No symptoms worthy of any special mention are noted in Natural Science.¹¹

Other good effects of war-time experiences on the pupils are:

He is however basically 'more grim' about the practical aspects of life, in spite of a veneer of frivolity and levity. Thus, while he is addicted to 'swing' and the 'Jitterbug,' the movies, pin-ups, etc., he has become more self-reliant (in the sense that he is not prone to seek advice), more industrious, that is, less averse to manual labor than before the war, more thrifty, and more sociable, as evidenced by his helpfulness, and to a certain extent, his charity. In a sense the veneer of frivolity mentioned above may well be considered a mere accompaniment of something that is not so trivial, and that is a deep-seated attachment to occidental culture, more specifically, to things American. It is interesting to note that this pro-Americanism is not limited to the questionable

¹⁰Ibid., pp. 2-3.
¹¹Ibid., p. 2.
features of American civilization but goes deeper to the bases of a democratic way of life, namely, tolerance, fair play, and equality of opportunity for all! Furthermore, this pro-Americanism has developed side by side with, and may even have strengthened, the pro-Philippinism of the post-war adolescent. This, of course, is the very opposite of what the Japanese overlords intended to effect during their hated occupation. . . . Students nowadays exhibit a more than usual tendency to voice out their opinions relative to political and social matters. This tendency even extends to administrative matters in the school. Whether or not this is considered a good sign depends largely on the personal attitude of the school director as well as the matter about which the opinion is expressed.

Within the student's appreciation for school discipline has improved, the majority of replies to the questionnaire indicating a firm tendency from the normal to the superior.12

Additional findings regarding the mental, moral, and physical aspects of the children's life, present a rather dismal picture and form not the least of the difficulties of the post-liberation educational system:

The post-liberation student lacks concentration, depends too much on memory work and last minute cramming, and hence has only a superficial knowledge of the subjects in the curriculum.

The questionnaire asked for three bad habits the students had acquired, as a consequence of the war. Several of the replies indicate the following:

a. Self-indulgence, manifesting itself in restlessness, a lack of the usual self-restraint, and a tendency to pleasure-seeking. . . .

b. Lack of ambition. This probably means lack of the proper ambition. . . .

c. A sort of religious indifference. . . .

The majority of the students are impaired in health, as a result of malnutrition. The

12Ibid., p. 3.
nervousness and lack of endurance observed by the school heads among their students, are obvious consequences of this impairment.\textsuperscript{13}

The Committee drew conclusions from its survey, which are as follows:

a. There is a crying need for a re-statement of educational objectives in all levels of the curriculum.

b. This will be the lodestone for thorough revision of the curriculum.

c. This revision in order to be fruitful must cover more than mere subject substitution, modification or elimination. It must be infused by the integration and relation of all the parts to the one central principle or set of principles underlying the objectives.

d. As a consequence, textbooks have to be completely revised, such revision to extend as far as to provide different text-books for boys and girls.\textsuperscript{14}

The fruits of war are bitter, indeed. The number and magnitude of the postwar educational problems call for courage and determined effort on the part of the school authorities, teachers, and pupils. Not only material concerns, as construction or repair of school buildings, securing of tables, chairs, blackboards, and other school needs, claim attention; but measures to remedy the ill effects of the war and better the educational system beckon every educator to a higher plane of work, ingenuity, and sacrifice.

The Survey Committee of the Catholic Educational Association, in the above-mentioned report, cites measures taken by the affiliated schools in order to effect

\textsuperscript{13} Ibid., pp. 3-4.

\textsuperscript{14} Ibid., p. 6.
the desired changes in the student picture that they have reported. The measures are:

A. **Physical**: Athletics, relief work among the students and their families, modifying the time schedule in order to allow students more sleep, free but limited medical and clinical service, and instruction of the students and their parents in diet and other nutritional matters.

B. **Mental**: The encouragement of library work, the introduction of extra-curricular activities like debating societies and glee clubs, student aids in the form of mimeographed or typewritten notes to make up for lack of textbooks, home visits in order to help effect the environmental changes required as a condition for better study, special lessons and tutoring for the weaker students, and in those schools that can afford it, free textbooks for the students.

C. **Moral**: Religious instruction is being intensified in all Catholic schools. Furthermore, the better trained students are being sent out as catechists in the public schools. Children's Mass is a regular activity in all CEAP schools reporting. Other measures being adopted are the development in the student of a sense of continuity with the more exemplary of the alumni, the introduction and effective carrying out of the merit system with the religious as the dominating motive for good action, and emphasis on the power of prayer and the necessity of penance in the development of good moral character.\(^\text{15}\)

It seems that the private schools do not allow the many difficulties to discourage them. Although unsolved educational problems of the present remain formidable in their dimensions, courage and determination to wrestle with them and to overcome them, if possible, are present among educators in the Philippines. The school environment may be very poor and the many adverse factors may not be conducive to the process of education,

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\(^{15}\text{Ibid., p. 4.}\)
but the beauty of the work among youth, though unseen, remains real. Shared by all teachers, and by those in Philippine schools, too, is the inspiring and beautiful task which is poetically described by Lionel Johnson:

Fair though it be, to watch unclose
The nestling glories of a rose,
Depth on rich depth, soft fold on fold:
Though fairer be it, to behold
Stately and sceptral lilies break
To beauty, and to sweetness wake:
Yet fairer still, to see and sing,
One fair thing is, one matchless thing:
Youth, in its perfect blossoming.16

APPENDIX

A
CODE OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS FOR TEACHERS AND SCHOOL OFFICIALS

PREAMBLE

By virtue of the powers conferred upon the Minister of Education in Executive Order No. 10 of His Excellency, the President of the Republic of the Philippines, and in order to set the proper norm of conduct for teachers and school officials in their manifold relationships, elevate the standards of the teaching profession, and make education secure for the individual and the Nation the highest and fullest measure of efficiency, self-direction, and happiness, this CODE OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS FOR TEACHERS AND SCHOOL OFFICIALS is hereby promulgated.

ARTICLE I - SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

SECTION 1. Since the Constitution provides that all educational institutions shall be under the supervision and subject to regulation by the State, the provisions of this Code apply with equal force to all schools in the Philippines whether public or private.

SECTION 2. By teacher is meant any person directly engaged in teaching from the Kindergarten to the graduate department of a university. School official refers to any person engaged in educational work other than classroom teaching, in a supervisory, administrative, or directive capacity. It includes principals, supervisors, superintendents, college-deans, university presidents or rectors, members of the governing board of a school and other supervisory and administrative officials.

SECTION 3. School embraces all educational institutions irrespective of grade or type and includes kindergarten, primary, intermediate, elementary, secondary, collegiate, and graduate, whether academic, vocational, special, technical, or professional.

ARTICLE II - THE TEACHER AND THE STATE

SECTION 1. The schools are the nurseries for future citizens of the State. School-officials and teachers are trustees of the cultural and educational heritage of the nation. They are under obligation to elevate national morality, promote racial pride, cultivate love of country, instill respect for constituted authorities, and inculcate obedience to the laws of the State.

SECTION 2. Every school official or teacher must sincerely believe in and earnestly endeavor to help carry out the declared policies of the State and shall take an oath or make an affirmation to this effect.
SECTION 3. The interests of the State demand that every school official or teacher be physically, mentally, and morally fit for the service he has to render. Devotion to duty, honesty, punctuality, and efficiency are expected of him.

SECTION 4. No school official or teacher in his capacity as such shall directly or indirectly solicit, require, collect, or receive any money or service or other valuable material from any person or entity for the promotion of any political, religious, or other partisan interest.

SECTION 5. School officials and teachers may vote and exercise other constitutional rights. However, no school official or teacher may use his position or official authority or influence to coerce the political action of any other person.

SECTION 6. School officials and teachers may attend church and worship as they please but are not permitted to use their position and influence as such to proselyte.

SECTION 7. A school official or teacher has the privilege of expounding the product of his research and investigations. However, such exposition must not undermine the declared policies of the State.

ARTICLE III - THE TEACHER AND THE COMMUNITY

SECTION 1. As moulders of the youth, all school officials and teachers should strive loyally and devotedly to render the best service and to have active participation in community movements for moral, social, educational, economic, and civic betterment.

SECTION 2. If the school official or teacher is to merit reasonable social recognition, it is his duty to be socially acceptable by keeping himself morally upright, refraining from gambling, abhorring drunkenness and other excesses, and avoiding immoral relations.

SECTION 3. The teacher can immeasurably enhance his social usefulness by living for and with the community. He should therefore study and understand the local customs and traditions so that he may have a sympathetic attitude and refrain from disparaging the community in which he lives.

SECTION 4. Every school official or teacher should keep the people in the community informed as to the work and accomplishments of the school as well as its needs and its problems.

SECTION 5. As an intellectual leader in the community, especially in the barrio, the school official or teacher should welcome every opportunity to serve as a counsellor in matters affecting the welfare of the people.

SECTION 6. All school officials and teachers should endeavor to maintain harmonious and pleasant personal and official relations with other professionals and government officials.
ARTICLE IV - THE TEACHER AND THE PROFESSION

SECTION 1. All school officials and teachers should feel that teaching is among the noblest of professions. They should manifest genuine enthusiasm and pride in their calling.

SECTION 2. Every school official or teacher should uphold the highest possible standards by making the best preparation for his calling. He should fearlessly oppose the admission into the profession of any person who is physically, mentally, or morally deficient or who is inadequately prepared.

SECTION 3. All school officials and teachers should strive to broaden their cultural outlook and deepen their professional interest. They should pursue such studies as will improve their efficiency and enhance the prestige of the profession.

SECTION 4. It is highly unethical for any school official or teacher to resort to extravagant claims and misrepresentations through personally inspired press notices or lavish advertisements in order to attract public attention and secure patronage for his school.

ARTICLE V - THE TEACHER AND HIS ASSOCIATES

SECTION 1. All school officials and teachers should at all times be imbued with the spirit of professional loyalty, mutual confidence and faith in one another, self-sacrifice for the common good, and cheerful cooperation with one's colleagues. When the best interest of the children, the school, or the profession is at stake, it is the duty of school officials and teachers to support one another.

SECTION 2. Every school official or teacher should give due credit for assistance received from his associates. He should not appropriate for himself the work of others.

SECTION 3. A school official or teacher before leaving a position should organize and leave for his successor such records and other data as are necessary to carry on the work.

SECTION 4. A school official or teacher should hold inviolate all confidential information concerning his associates and school; he should not divulge to interested persons documents which have not yet been officially released or remove records from the files.

SECTION 5. Professional criticism of associates should be made only for the welfare of the children of the school, and only in formal accusations before those who have the authority to try the case on its merits. Anonymous or fabricated criticism of an associate is unwarranted. Justified criticism, however, in the interest of the service, should not be withheld, but should be presented with the supporting evidence. No criticism of an associate should be made in the presence of pupils or students, fellow-teachers, or patrons.
SECTION 6. Marking and promotion of pupils or students are generally determined by the teacher within standards set by the administration. This, however, does not preclude the exercise of general supervisory and administrative powers of a superior authority over such matters, especially when there has been gross or manifest abuse of judgement on the part of the teacher.

SECTION 7. No school official or teacher should apply for a position that is not vacant or definitely known about to be vacant, nor criticize the qualifications of a competitor even if given the opportunity to do so.

ARTICLE VI - THE TEACHER AND HIS SUPERIORS
SECTION 1. Every school official or teacher should support loyally the legitimate policies of the school and the administration. The teacher or school official should make an honest effort to understand those policies and regardless of personal feeling or private opinions faithfully carry them out so long as he remains in the organization.

SECTION 2. A teacher or school official should make no false accusations or charges against superiors, especially under an anonymous or fictitious name. If he has charges to make against his superiors, he should have the moral courage to present them before competent authority and be willing to prove them.

SECTION 3. Teachers and school officials should transact all official business through channels except when special conditions warrant a different procedure, as when reforms are advocated which are opposed by the immediate superior, in which case teachers should feel free to write directly to a higher educational authority.

SECTION 4. As individuals or groups, teachers and school officials have a right to protest against injustice and discrimination, but the important nature of their service renders any recourse to a strike or walkout indefensible.

SECTION 5. Teachers and school officials should realize that appointments, promotions and transfers are made only on the basis of merit and in the interest of the service.

SECTION 6. A teacher or school official accepting a position either in a public or a private school assumes a contractual obligation. He is duty-bound to live up to this contract and should, therefore, have full knowledge of the terms and conditions of his employment.

ARTICLE VII - THE SCHOOL OFFICIAL AND HIS SUBORDINATES
SECTION 1. Effective school supervision and administration demand responsible leadership and direction by all school officials who should show professional
courtesy, helpfulness, and sympathy towards their subordinates.

SECTION 2. In the interest of the service, a school official, before formulating major policies or introducing important changes in the system, should give his teachers and other subordinates opportunity for broad-minded discussion and constructive criticism in the spirit of earnest inquiry for the good of the pupils or students.

SECTION 3. No school official should stand in the way of the just promotion of a deserving subordinate. Moreover, school officials should encourage and carefully nurture the professional growth of worthy and promising teachers by recommending them for promotion.

SECTION 4. No school official should dismiss or recommend for dismissal a teacher or other subordinate except for cause. It is unethical to dismiss or suspend a teacher or other subordinate, reduce his salary or abolish his position for alleged lack of funds or reduced enrollment.

SECTION 5. No school official should employ a teacher who is not subject to Civil Service rules and regulations without a definite written contract specifying the terms and conditions under which the latter is to work.

ARTICLE VIII - THE TEACHER AND THE STUDENT

SECTION 1. The teacher or school official should recognize that the interest and welfare of the pupils or students are his first and foremost concern.

SECTION 2. The teacher or school official should deal justly and impartially with every pupil or student. Exhibitions of prejudice or discrimination because of differences in the pupils' or students' intellectual ability, social standing, favors received from them or their parents, should have no place in the relations between a school official or teacher and his pupils or students.

SECTION 3. No teacher or school official should accept directly or indirectly for tutorial services of any of his pupils or students remuneration or other than the compensation authorized for his services as teacher or school official.

SECTION 4. No teacher or school official should allow himself to be influenced by any consideration other than merit in the evaluation of the students' work. It is improper for a teacher or a school official to accept or ask, directly or indirectly, personal service, gifts, or other favors from any of his students or their parents that would tend to influence his professional relations with them.

SECTION 5. A school official or teacher should never take advantage of his position in courting any of his pupils or students.
SECTION 6. No school teacher or official should inflict corporal punishment on offending pupils or students; nor should he make deductions in their scholastic ratings for acts that are clearly not manifestations of poor scholarship.

ARTICLE IX - THE TEACHER AND THE PARENT

SECTION 1. The schools exist to render service to the public. Parents should be welcomed at school and treated with every consideration. School officials and teachers should establish and maintain cordial relations with the parents of their pupils or students.

SECTION 2. The school official or teacher's conduct should be such as to merit the confidence and the respect of the parents.

SECTION 3. In communicating with parents, especially on matters pertaining to their children's limitations, a school official or teacher should exercise the utmost candor and tact. It is his duty to point out the children's deficiencies hitherto unknown or overlooked by the parents and seek their cooperation for the proper guidance and improvement of the children.

SECTION 4. The school official or teacher should hear parents' complaints with sympathy and understanding. He should discourage parents' unfair criticism of his associates, the administration, and the school system in general.

ARTICLE X - THE TEACHER AND PRIVATE BUSINESS

SECTION 1. All school officials and teachers should have and maintain a good reputation with respect to financial matters. They should pay their just debts or otherwise arrange satisfactorily their private financial affairs with their creditors.

SECTION 2. No school official or teacher should contract loans from his superiors, associates, subordinates, pupils or students, or their parents.

SECTION 3. No school official or teacher should act, either directly or indirectly, as agents for, hold stock in, or be financially interested in any commercial venture, the business of which is to furnish textbooks, supplementary readers, stationery, magazines, periodicals, athletic goods, and other materials, in the purchase and disposal of which for school purposes he can exercise in any manner his official influence.

ARTICLE XI - PENAL PROVISION

Violation of any provision of this Code will, after due hearing, cause the suspension or cancellation of the teacher's license, the possession of which is a prerequisite to admission to the teaching profession, in accordance with Executive Order No. 10 of His Excellency, the President of the Republic of the Philippines.
MINISTRY ORDER
No. 6, s. 1944

RULES AND REGULATIONS FOR THE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

Pursuant to Sections 1, 2, and 8 of Executive Order No. 10, dated November 30, 1943, the following Rules, and Regulations governing the certification of teachers are hereby prescribed:

1. All teachers in kindergarten, elementary, secondary, collegiate, and special schools, including school supervisors and administrators, must each obtain a teacher's license from the Ministry of Education before they can engage in educational work.

2. The following are not required to obtain the license mentioned in the foregoing section: (1) exchange professors detailed with the approval of the Minister of Education; (2) specialists from abroad under contract with the Republic of the Philippines; and (3) school officials and teachers appointed by His Excellency, the President of the Republic of the Philippines, or with his approval.

3. Certificates will be issued for license to teach in the following levels of instruction: (1) kindergarten and elementary schools; (2) secondary schools; (3) colleges and universities; and (4) special schools.

4. All applicants for the teacher's license shall be required to qualify in an examination which shall be determined by the Minister of Education. This examination may be dispensed with in the case of the head of a school, college, or university in the discretion of the Minister of Education.

5. Teachers who have qualified in a teacher examination conducted by the Bureau of Civil Service may be exempted from the examination for certification provided their civil-service eligibility has not expired.

6. A person applying to be licensed as a teacher shall have the following prerequisite qualifications: (1) the applicant must have satisfactorily proved that he or she sincerely believes in and earnestly endeavors to help carry out the declared policies of the State; (2) he must be of good moral character as vouched for by two Filipino citizens of reputable standing not related to the applicant; (3) he must be in good health as evidenced by a medical certificate duly accomplished by a Government
medical officer; (4) he must not suffer from any physical deformity or defect that would seriously handicap him in the efficient performance of his duties; and (5) he must be at least eighteen years old.

7. Applicants for the different certificates shall possess the following minimum professional training: (1) kindergarten and elementary-school teacher-graduation from an approved two-year collegiate normal curriculum, or its equivalent; (2) secondary school teacher-graduation from an approved four-year college of education, or its equivalent; and (3) collegiate teacher-graduation from a professional school or possession of a degree of M.A. or its equivalent.

8. Violation of the CODE OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS FOR TEACHERS AND SCHOOL OFFICIALS promulgated by the Minister of Education will, after one hearing, cause the suspension or cancellation of the teacher's license.

9. Applicants for license to teach shall be required to pay the following fees: kindergarten and elementary schools, ten pesos (P10); secondary and special schools, fifteen pesos (P15); and colleges and universities, twenty pesos (P20).

10. A certificate issued to a teacher who meets the requirements prescribed in this Ministry Order shall be valid for a period of three (3) years, unless sooner revoked for cause. A life certificate may be granted upon the expiration of this period and upon presentation of evidence indicating satisfactory teaching service as certified by the Director of Public Instruction or the Director of Private Education.

11. A temporary license valid for one year but renewable at the discretion of the Minister of Education may be issued to persons who do not possess the professional qualifications prescribed in this Ministry Order.

12. Any certificate issued under this Ministry Order is valid only for the particular level of instruction for which it is issued. A teacher may, however, possess more than one certificate provided he possesses the necessary qualifications.

13. Until the Ministry of Education can conduct examinations for certifications, teachers will be granted temporary licenses on the basis of the data submitted in their application form. Copies of this form may be obtained from the Ministry of Education.

14. The Ministry Order takes effect at the beginning of the school year 1944-1945. However, in view of the conditions obtaining at present with regard to transportation and communication, teachers in remote provinces are given until October 1, 1944 to file their applications for the license.

CAMILO OSIAS
Minister of Education
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Memoranda issued by the Bureau of Private Education, Manila:
No. 1, s. 1942, June 10, 1942.
No. 2, s. 1942, June 10, 1942.
No. 3, s. 1942, June 11, 1942.
No. 4, s. 1942, June 26, 1942.
No. 5, s. 1942, July 7, 1942.
No. 6, s. 1942, August 7, 1942.
No. 7, s. 1942, August 10, 1942.
No. 8, s. 1942, August 18, 1942.
No. 9, s. 1942, September 21, 1942.
No. 1, s. 1943, January 5, 1943.
No. 2, s. 1943, January 12, 1943.
No. 3, s. 1943, March 10, 1943.
No. 6, s. 1943, March 27, 1943.
No. 7, s. 1943, March 29, 1943.
No. 8, s. 1943, April 29, 1943.
No. 12, s. 1943, May 28, 1943.
No. 13, s. 1943, June 7, 1943.
No. 14, s. 1943, June 12, 1943.
No. 15, s. 1943, June 14, 1943.
No. 18, s. 1943, June 28, 1943.
No. 20, s. 1943, July 27, 1943.
No. 21, s. 1943, August 17, 1943.
No. 22, s. 1943, August 17, 1943.
No. 25, s. 1943, September 28, 1943.
No. 26, s. 1943, October 12, 1943.
No. 28, s. 1943, October 26, 1943.
No. 29, s. 1943, November 4, 1943.
No. 30, s. 1943, November 12, 1943.
No. 31, s. 1943, November 19, 1943.
No. 33, s. 1943, December 10, 1943.
No. 34, s. 1943, December 11, 1943.
No. 35, s. 1943, December 11, 1943.
No. 36, s. 1943, December 29, 1943.
No. 1, s. 1944, January 12, 1944.
No. 2, s. 1944, January 20, 1944.
No. 4, s. 1944, February 17, 1944.
No. 5, s. 1944, February 29, 1944.
No. 6, s. 1944, March 6, 1944.
No. 7, s. 1944, March 9, 1944.
No. 8, s. 1944, May 23, 1944.
No. 9, s. 1944, May 24, 1944.
No. 10, s. 1944, May 25, 1944.
No. 11, s. 1944, May 29, 1944.
No. 12, s. 1944, June 7, 1944.
No. 13, s. 1944, June 13, 1944.
No. 14, s. 1944, June 16, 1944.
No. 15, s. 1944, June 23, 1944.
No. 16, s. 1944, June 27, 1944.
No. 17, s. 1944, July 4, 1944.
No. 18, s. 1944, July 24, 1944.
No. 19, s. 1944, July 25, 1944.
No. 20, s. 1944, July 26, 1944.
No. 21, s. 1944, July 26, 1944.
No. 22, s. 1944, July 27, 1944.
No. 23, s. 1944, August 5, 1944.
No. 24, s. 1944, August 29, 1944.
No. 25, s. 1944, September 1, 1944.
No. 26, s. 1944, September 5, 1944.
No. 27, s. 1944, September 19, 1944.
No. 29, s. 1944, September 28, 1944.
No. 30, s. 1944, September 29, 1944.

Memoranda issued by the Office of Private Education, Manila:
No. 1, s. 1945, March 21, 1945.
No. 6, s. 1945, May 28, 1945.

Ministry Circulars issued by the Ministry of Education, Manila:
No. 2, s. 1944, July 18, 1944.
No. 3, s. 1944, July 24, 1944.
No. 4, s. 1944, July 26, 1944.

Ministry Orders issued by the Ministry of Education, Manila:
No. 5, s. 1944, May 23, 1944.
No. 8, s. 1944, June 30, 1944.

Notes taken by the writer in the Normal Institute, August-December, 1942 and during the Superintendents' Convention, June 26-July 1, 1944.
Program of the Graduation Exercises of the Normal Institute, Manila, July 31, 1943.

Recto, Claro M. Address delivered at the Educators' Conference held at Philippine Normal School, Manila, June 19, 1942.

Recto, Claro M. Address delivered on the history of the introduction of "Radio Taiso" in the Philippines, New Luneta, Manila, December 8, 1942.

Recto, Claro M. Address delivered at the formal opening of the Normal Institute held at the San Andres Elementary School, Manila, August 31, 1942.


School Permit No. 22, s. 1944, issued by the Director of Private Education and approved by the Minister of Education on August 3, 1944.

Teacher's Certificate No. 760-S issued by the Ministry of Education, Manila, September 13, 1944.

Teacher's Diploma, No. 125, Normal Institute, Bureau of Public Instruction, Manila, December 11, 1942.