

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 244 379

EA 016 812

**AUTHOR** Straka, Gerald A.  
**TITLE** Current Tendencies of Educational Politics in the People's Republic of China.  
**PUB DATE** Apr 84  
**NOTE** 26p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New Orleans, LA, April 23-27, 1984).  
**PUB TYPE** Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

**EDRS PRICE** MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.  
**DESCRIPTORS** Developing Nations; \*Educational Development; Educational History; Educational Opportunities; \*Educational Policy; \*Educational Practices; \*Educational Trends; Education Work Relationship; Enrollment Trends; Foreign Countries; Futures (of Society); Labor Force Development; National Programs; National Surveys; \*Politics of Education; Statistical Data; Tables (Data); Trend Analysis

**IDENTIFIERS** \*China

**ABSTRACT**

Beginning with an overview of the development of the country's educational policy since the death of Mao Zedong in 1976, this paper provides an information survey on the current state of education in the People's Republic of China. After brief sections on the relations between Chinese society and the educational system and current trends in the areas of economic production and employment, the paper's fourth and longest section discusses the Chinese educational system in terms of its general structure, enrollment patterns in general and in secondary education in particular, and the current state of Chinese higher education. In the paper's final section, which examines the achievements, problems, and future prospects for education in China, it is noted that, although the Chinese population has doubled since 1949, the illiteracy rate has decreased from 80 percent to 23.5 percent. Since 1983/84, political attitudes seem to have been accorded increased importance in the new criteria for college admittance. The paper concludes by emphasizing the importance of analyzing the new national school books in China to determine more precisely the current direction of Chinese education. Extensive statistical data as well as bibliographical references are included. (JBM)

\*\*\*\*\*  
 \* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made \*  
 \* from the original document. \*  
 \*\*\*\*\*

ED244379

AREA 1984 Annual Meeting, New Orleans, April 23-27, 1984

Gerald A. Straka  
Bremen University/FRG

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION  
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION  
CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as  
received from the person or organization  
originating it.  
Minor changes have been made to improve  
reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this docu-  
ment do not necessarily represent official NIE  
position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS  
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

*G. A. Straka*

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES  
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Current Tendencies of Educational Politics in the People's  
Republic of China

Contents:	page
1. Some remarks on the development in the PR China since 1976 .....	1
2. Relations between society and educational system .....	1
3. Basic indicators for the production and employment system .....	2
4. The educational system	
4.1 The general structure .....	6
4.2 Total enrolment .....	7
4.3 Enrolment secondary education .....	8
4.4 Higher education .....	8
5. Conclusions, outlook, further questions .....	14
6. Notes and references .....	20

EA 016 812

## 1. Some Remarks on the Development in the PR China since 1976

After the death of Mao Zedong (9/8/1976), the fall of 'gang four' (10/5-6/1976) the XIth Party Congress of the Communist Party of China (8/12-18/1977) initiated a new orientation of the Chinese development policy. Its goal is to built up China to a powerful socialist country 'with modern agriculture, modern industry, modern national defence and modern science and technics' till the end of this century.<sup>1)</sup> The key for these Four Modernizations is lying in the modernization of science and technics as Deng Xiaoping told in his speech on the National Conference about Science, March 18, 1978.<sup>2)</sup> On the following National Conference about Education Deng Xiaoping required (4/22/1978) to 'train a huge army of working class intellectuals and to lift up substantially the scientific and cultural level of the whole Chinese nation'.<sup>3)</sup>

These general directions of the Chinese development policy: Four Modernizations, key role of science and technics, qualitative and quantitative improvement of education was kept up on the XIIth Party Congress of the Communist Party of China (9/1-11/1984).<sup>4)</sup> The educational system will play a fundamental role in the successful realization of the Four Modernizations. Therefore, the relation between society and educational system in modern China will be of specific interest.

## 2. Relations between Society and Educational System

The educational system is a social institution which is in relation between other parts (sub systems) of the society like the production and employment system, the social structure and the political system. Following the conceptions of Parsons<sup>5)</sup> and later developments in this field by Fend<sup>6)</sup>, the educational system has to fulfill the functions of qualification, selection and integration. With the function of qualification the relation between the educational system and the production and employment system is specified in the following dimensions: In the qualitative dimension the question is which types of qualifications should be trained/produced by the educational system, consequences for the establishment of types of schools,

curriculum, teaching methods, teaching materials, teacher training etc. In the quantitative dimension questions are how many qualifications should be trained, the capacity of the different streams of the school system, the number of teachers needed, the expenses etc. The function of selection concerns in relation to the social structure. Under this topic questions, like reconstruction of social structures by the educational system, equal opportunity of social classes, sex, regions, ethnic-religious-cultural origin. The function of integration includes the relation between the educational and political system. The core questions are values, attitudes, patterns of interpretation. These three functions are related to each other. For example: The necessity of social legitimation of selection criterias - like the proportion of 'red and expert' in the PR China - bridges to the function of integration. Therefore, a separate treatment of these functions is justified only from an analytical point of view.<sup>7)</sup>

In the following, there will be a concentration on the quantitative dimension of the qualification function in the PR China. Therefore, some basic indicators about the production and employment system will be introduced, followed by a description of the educational system, enrolments on different levels and types of the educational system from pre-school up to higher levels. The paper will close with some tentative conclusions about the functions of qualification, selection and integration, a short outlook of the educational policy in the future and the announcement of a project concerning qualitative aspects of the functions of qualification and integration just started at Bremen University by the author.

### 3. Basic Indicators for the Production and Employment System

In the World Development Report of the World Bank (1983)<sup>8)</sup> you will find the following figure for PR China. For giving the American reader only some tentative evaluation criterias the basic indicators of the USA are added. Concerning the figures in the following chapters the following has to be mentioned:

All figures should be interpreted and handled carefully. They are indeed 'only' rough indicators for the development process in a country and for the policy run.

Table 1: Basic indicators of the economy for the PR China and the United States of America

	China		USA	
Population mid 1981 (millions)	991,3		229,8	
Gross National Product (GNP) per capita (US\$) 1981	300		12,820	
Percentage in:	<u>1961</u>	<u>1981</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1981</u>
-Agriculture	47,9)	35	4	3
-Industry	33	46	38	34
-Services	20	20	58	63
Gross Domestic Product (GDP)				
-growth rate	5,2	5,5	4,3	2,9
Average annual growth rate in:	<u>1961-70</u>	<u>1970-81</u>	<u>1960-70</u>	<u>1970-81</u>
-Agriculture	1,6	2,8	0,5	1,6
-Industry	11,2	8,3	4,6	2,3
-Services	5,7	4,4	4,4	3,3
Average annual growth rate of labour force:	<u>1960-70</u>	<u>1970-81</u>	<u>1960-70</u>	<u>1970-81</u>
-past	1,7	1,8	1,8	1,9
-estimated		<u>1980-2000</u>		<u>1980-2000</u>
		1,6		0,9

Source: World Development Report, 1983, World Bank, Washington D.C., 1983

Following the classification of the World Bank the PR China belongs to the countries with low income. Compared with industrialized countries the portion gross national product per capita is low, but slightly high compared with countries with low income. The portion of agriculture has decreased in the last twenty years, the portion of industry has increased in the opposite way, the portion of services has been constant. Compared with agriculture and services the annual growth rate in industry was the highest, the average annual growth rate of labour force remained constant. Nevertheless the labour force has doubled since 1952.

Table 2: Labour Force (Year-end Figures)

Year	Total (millions)	Staff and workers %	Individual labourers in cities and towns %	Collective and individual labourers in rural areas %	
1949	180,82	4,5	4	91,5	100
1952 <sup>10)</sup>	207,29	7,7	4,3	88	100
1960	258,880	23,1	0,6	76,3	100
1970	344,32	18,1	0,3	81,6	100
1980	418,96	24,9	0,2	74,9	100
1981	432,80	25,2	0,2	74,5	100
1982	447,06	20,4	0,3	74,4	100

Source: Statistical Yearbook of China 1983, p. 120.

The proportion of employment in rural areas decreased since 1949. But in 1982 still three quarters of the 447 millions worked in rural areas. This should be remembered during the discussion about regional equal educational opportunity. An interesting figure is the constance since 1970 and nowadays the slight increase of the portion of 'individual labourers in cities and towns'. This is an indicator for the new employment policy in the PR China. Actually about 20 millions of young people are trying to enter the employment sector yearly, and there are not enough jobs for them. The government allows and encourages these persons - especially the unemployed - to rise up small own enterprises since 1979. In 1978 there have been 150,000 'individual labourers', 1979: 320,00 and in 1982: 1,470,000 in cities and towns only.<sup>11)</sup> Table 3) shows that they are concentrated in commerce, catering, trade, service trade etc.

In this table the sector 'others' might be a rough indicator for unemployment. Scientific research, culture etc. total of 3.7 % is overrepresented in cities and towns ( 4.3 %) and underrepresented in rural areas (1.1 %).

Table 3:

**Labour Force Employed by Sector of the National Economy  
(End of 1982)**

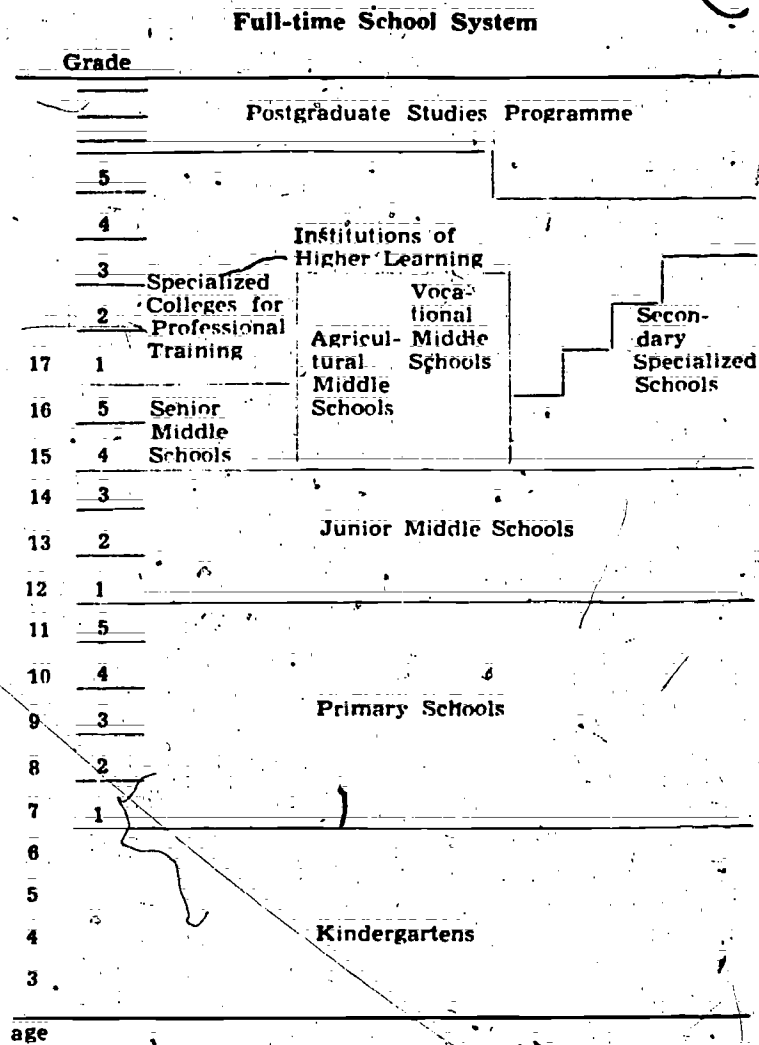
Sector	Total	Staff and workers in state-owned units	Staff and workers in collective-owned units in cities and towns	Individual labourers in cities and towns	Collective and individual labourers in rural areas
<b>Proportions</b>					
<b>(%)</b>					
Industry .....	13.2	40.6	57.8	10.9	2.7
Construction and resources prospecting .....	3.0	7.9	10.6	0.6	1.1
Agriculture, forestry, water conservancy and meteorology .....	71.6	9.3	2.1		93.6
Transport, posts and telecommunications .....	1.9	6.0	8.2	1.4	0.3
Commerce, catering trade, service trade and supply and marketing of materials .....	4.1	13.7	14.4	87.1	0.4
Scientific research, culture, education, public health and social welfare .....	3.7	3.6	4.3		1.1
Government agencies and people's organizations .....	1.1	6.5	0.5		0.1
Others .....	1.1	2.4	2.1		0.7
Absolute figures (bases)	447.06	86.3	26.51	1.47	332.78
<b>(millions)</b>					

Source: Statistical Yearbook of China 1983, p. 121.

## 4. The Educational System

### 4.1 The General Structure

Figure 1:



Source: China Handbook Series. Education and Science. Beijing 1983, p. 31.

Pre-school or kindergarten starts at age three-four years. It consists of up to three years groups. There are five years of primary school, three years of junior middle school, two years of senior middle school, and two-five years higher education.<sup>12)</sup> To enter the next type of school system an entrance examination has to be passed. This is new since 1977. There are additional examinations at the end of each term.



#### 4.2 Total Enrolment

To get a brief impression about the administrative work which has to be done, here some late figures about student enrolments on different levels of the educational system:

Table 4: Total School Enrolment (millions)

	1980	1981	1982
Pre-school	11.508	10.562	11.130
Primary level	146.270	143.332	139.720
Secondary level (middle school)	56.778	50.146	47.028
Higher level (college, university)	1.144	1.279	1.154
Total	215.700	205.319	199.032

Source: Statistical Yearbook of China 1983, p. 511, Henze 1983, pp. 210.<sup>13)</sup>

The student enrolment is about 200 millions (compared with the population of the USA mid 1981 of 229.8 millions). The enrolment figures are decreasing since 1980. Several reasons led to this tendency: The decrease of birth rate since 1971<sup>14)</sup>, a phase of consolidation in educational expansion. For instance: The student enrolment in higher education started 1977 with 625,000. The index of expenses for culture, education, science and health increased during this time (1977 = 100) up to 210.6 and the projection for 1985 is 242.8. The increase rates of expenses in relation to the year before decreased since 1980.<sup>15)</sup> For the pre-school the target population are children from three to six. Nowadays these are about 70 millions.<sup>16)</sup> This means that about 15 % get a place in a pre-school. On the other hand pre-school education has a high priority since 1976. The national conference about general education (July 18-28, 1983) recommended to take care that all children can go at least for one year to pre-school before primary school is starting. Officially it was also to be told that in urban as well as in rural areas the demand for pre-schools is increasing.<sup>17)</sup>

### 4.3 Enrolment Secondary Education

Table 5: Student Enrolment Secondary School (millions, %) (s.p.9)

The student enrolment on secondary education increased from 14.323 (in 1965, before the Cultural Revolution) to 47.028 millions in 1982. Since 1977 (68-69 millions) the enrolment is decreasing rapidly, especially in ordinary middle schools or general education. The number of students in vocational schools increased from 728,000 in 1976 to 1,743,000 in 1982. This is an indicator for the new educational policy to force vocational education in charge of general education in order to get a better harmonization between school and production system. Nevertheless, the portion of vocational scholars (4%) has not yet reached that in 1965 (35%). But a portion of 35% of vocational scholars does not guarantee employment for all graduates nowadays. Further has to be mentioned that this portion was realized partly with pupils in 'half school - half work' schools, and the ordinary middle school curriculum may also contain vocational courses nowadays and especially in the future when the new directives of more vocational orientation will be realized. If you relate the vocational enrolment with the senior secondary enrolment you get a portion of 17.5 % in 1980 and 22 % in 1981. According to the proposal made by the National Conference about General Education in 1983 till 1990 the portion general/voc tional is planned 50:50.<sup>19)</sup>

### 4.4 Higher Education

An important change since the Cultural Revolution is, that since 1977 a national examination has to be passed to enter the higher educational system, whereas two years of practical work after finishing secondary education during the Cultural Revolution are no longer compulsory. There are two types of national entrance examinations: For social sciences the candidate has to pass written examinations in politics, Chinese language, mathematics, history and geography. For the natural sciences the subjects of the examination are politics, Chinese language, mathematics and chemistry. Since 1978 a foreign language has

Table 5: Student Enrolment Secondary School (millions, %)

	1965	%	1976	%	1980	%	1981	%	1982	%
(1) Ordinary middle schools	9.338	65	58.365	99	55.081	97	48.596	97	45.285	96
Secondary technical schools	0.392		0.117		0.761		0.632		0.628	
Secondary teacher training schools	0.155		0.304		0.482		0.436		0.411	
Secondary agricultural and vocational high schools	4.438		0.307		0.454		0.481		0.704	
(2) Total vocational schools	4.985	35	0.728	1	1.697	3	1.549	3	1.743	4
Total (1) + (2)	14.323	100	59.093	100	56.778	100	50.145	100	47.028	100
(3) Senior secondary schools					9.698		7.150			
Proportion (2) to (3) in %					17.5		22			

Source: Education in China 1981, p. 28, Statistical Yearbook of China 1983, p. 511, Henze 1984<sup>18)</sup>

been added to the compulsory subjects.

From 1977 to 1981 the following statistics are available (millions)<sup>20)</sup>:

years of examination	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
candidates <sup>21)</sup>	5.7	5.9	4.6	4.5	3.6
examination passed	0.278	0.290	0.270	0.285	0.279
percentage of success	4.8	4.9	5.9	6.3	7.8

To get the permission to participate in the entrance examination, the following conditions have to be fulfilled:

- a) not older than 26 (exceptions are possible),
- b) unmarried (exceptions are possible),
- c) good health,
- d) graduation from senior secondary schools or having the same level like a senior secondary graduate,
- e) for employees: the permission of the unit.

In recent times - especially since the study year 1983/84 - more attention has been paid to the 'moral' qualification of a student (for instance activities in the Communist Party, in Youth League, which are registered in the school files). Teachers of senior middle schools are therefore requested to write expert opinions about their graduates. These evaluations can be used as a criteria for admission to higher education.<sup>22)</sup>

#### - Some statistics about Higher Education

The Chinese Education Association for International Exchanges gathered the following statistics concerning the academic year 1980: 675 institutions of higher education, 96 of them key ones, 172 teacher colleges and normal universities. In these institutions 1,143,700 undergraduates studied, 338,000 of them at teacher's colleges and normal universities. The faculty staff included 246,900 members, with 4,200 professors, 13,800 associate professors, 119,100 lecturers and 109,800 assistants. The statistics concerning the academic year of 1965 are as follows: 434 institutions of higher education, 674,000 students and

138,000 teaching-staff (faculty). The student-teacher-relation in the years 1965 and 1980 is as follows - differentiated as well as possible - concerning the different types of faculty<sup>23)</sup>:

	1980	1965
teachers and assistents (=faculty)	4.63:1	4.88:1
a) professors (only)	272.3:1	
b) associate professors (only)	82.8:1	
c) lecturers (only)	9.6:1	
d) assistants (only)	10.4:1	
a - c) altogether	8.3:1	

Since 1965 the student-faculty-relation has slowly improved. Not considering the aspect that the function of an assistant is in first line researching and not lecturing, the student-teacher-relation increased to 8.3:1. This is much lower compared with the student-teacher-relation at secondary and primary school level.<sup>24)</sup> The student-teacher-relation concerning professors sums up to 272.2:1 and that of the lecturers to 9.6:1. Both statistics and relations indicate a broad fundament of assistants and lecturers, a small number of associate professors and even a smaller one of professors. That is much the same with the structure of the salaries. The range of monthly salaries in RMB (without cost of living bonus and premium) is the following:<sup>25)</sup> professors 360-250, associate professors 205-157, lecturers 133-94, assistants 82-60.

#### - Studying at Normal Universities<sup>26)</sup>

Students which study at a normal university will become teachers at secondary schools. Enrolled students are assigned to classes with the same time-table. Lately the studies in a certain faculty have been differentiated into subjects (e.g. The East China Normal University has 14 faculties with 22 subjects (1982)). Whereas in former times all students in one faculty had the same time-table. Another innovation is compulsory courses and a certain amount of courses which can be chosen by the students (optional courses).

Higher education does not end with one final examination. On the contrary, the students have examinations and controls during and at the end of the terms. The date of examinations are fixed by the bureau of education and administration. The topics are either formulated by the course lecturers or by a committee of lecturers, if parallel courses are offered. The results of the examinations are registered. The controls are evaluated with passed/failed. Both results will be registered in the personal files. Students, who failed, can repeat the examinations or controls at the beginning of the next term. A student will not be able to achieve the next grade if he fails the repeated examinations in two main subjects. If he fails again, he must leave the institution.

Recently a credit system has been approved in several institutions of higher education - e. g. Beijing Normal University and East China Normal University (both visited by the author for several weeks). For instance during the four years of studies in education at the Beijing Normal University 134 credits have to be acquired, 108 in compulsory and 26 in optional courses or works (cf. table 6). Generally one point can be obtained per one term-week-hour. In the last term the student has to write his thesis. Either he chooses the topic himself and a supervisor is assigned to him, or he chooses the supervisor, who will assign a topic to him. The topic and supervisor are to be reported to the bureau of education and administration, which provides the means (for instance equipment, instruments etc.) and controls the date of delivery. The execution of the thesis can take up to 16 weeks. The East China Normal University's schedule of studies prescribes five weeks for the subject 'education'.

The thesis will be evaluated by the supervisor and another competent evaluator. The best and the worst theses will then be examined by a committee of the faculty. It will decide which thesis should be published or which one has to be written again.

# Study Schedule for Education. Beijing Normal University (about 1978)

Subjects/Courses	Hours	Credits	Term/Week-Hours								Sum
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
<b>Compulsory Courses</b>											
History of the Communist Party of China	102	6	3	3							6
Chinese	102	6	3	3							6
Foreign Language	204	12	3	3	3	3					12
Sport	136	4	2	2	2	2					8
Physiology	102	4	6								6
Marxism, Leninism, Moaism	102	5				3	3				6
Psychology	102	5	3	3							6
Child Psychology	68	4	4								4
Educational Psychology	51	3			3						3
Education	204	11			6	6					12
History of Chinese Education	119	6				4	3				7
History of Foreign Education	102	5					3	3			6
Teaching Methods and Materials for Primary Education	102	4					3	3			6
<b>Optional Courses</b>	500	26					2	4	12	12	30
Teaching Practice	-	10									
Thesis	-	10									
<b>Sum</b>	<b>2217</b>	<b>134</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>118</b>

### - An Example for a Study Schedule

The study schedule for education of the Beijing Normal University will here be recorded and analysed. The subject 'education' has been chosen because these graduates of this University will become assistants, research workers, post-graduates, teachers/lecturers at educational secondary (normal) schools/institutions of higher education or at different levels of the educational administration.

The study schedule (cf. table 6) prescribes exactly which course has to be chosen in what term, if credits have to be gained and therefore examinations and controls have to be passed. Assigning the courses to subject classes the result (in %) is as follows: subject courses (compulsory) 43 %, optional courses 25 %, ideological education, sport 17 %, foreign language, Chinese 15 %.<sup>27)</sup>

### 5. Conclusions, Outlook, further Questions

Looking back on a thousand-year-old-tradition in history and culture, nevertheless China has reached in certain sectors, as economic and educational indicators show, the status of a Third-World-Country at the present time. The main pedagogical goal is the all over-developed worker with socialistic perception. Following the directives of Mao Zedong (1957), the goal should have to be realized with an education for the proletariat combined with productive labour.<sup>28)</sup> Directives are still nowadays the leading ideas in the educational work in China.<sup>29)</sup> Nevertheless, the directives allow some interpretations. Especially in key-schools and key-colleges/universities in urban areas the concept of 'productive work' is broadly defined nowadays. According to own observations and discussions the cleaning of schools, parks, supervising of libraries are activities which are subsumed to productive work. Productive work is not to be done exclusively in factories, farms like during the Cultural Revolution. And there, where productive work is to be done in schools, the size of the classrooms,



the age of the 'students', the complexity of the operations do let suppose, that productive work does not play the same important role than before 1976.<sup>30)</sup> Concerning the rural areas it might be different, because 'half school, half work' schools are there still running.<sup>31)</sup>

According to a decision of the State Council the vocational orientation within the secondary level should be strengthened in order to meet the interests of the Four Modernizations.<sup>32)</sup> More vocational secondary schools should be founded, general schools should be changed in vocational ones, vocational contents (curriculas) should be introduced to the general education.<sup>33)</sup> Therefore, it will have to be analyzed in which extent these educational goals are going to be reflected in the national school books since 1978.<sup>34)</sup>

Latest news indicate that this forced vocational educational orientation will lead to an increasing importance of physical work. In a conference in Beijing (8/1-10/1982) about the working and learning program of primary and secondary education was reported, that in 43% of the schools in 28 provinces (Tibet excluded) physical work is running. The net value of this work reached 1981 the amount of 576 millions Yuan. These are 8.03% of the public expenses for general education. The vice minister of education further mentioned, that physical work does not only produce economic values, it also contributes to the all-over-development of the scholar. Therefore, the ministry of education demanded of pupils of primary schools a productive/physical work of 45 minutes and of pupils of secondary schools 100 minutes per week.<sup>35)</sup>

In this conference it was also reported, that some colleges, run by the ministry of education, try to introduce experimentally physical work and military training. This indicates that the liberation from this type of work since 1976 is declining slowly. It should be investigated in the future if this tendency will spread over the other colleges.<sup>36)</sup>

An indicator for basic social qualification is the literacy rate. The PR China has been very successful in this sector. In 1949 the illiteracy rate was 80%. According to the latest census (7/1/1982) this rate has now reached 23.5% on the average.<sup>37)</sup> 93% of the age group enrolled primary schools in 1982.<sup>38)</sup> The constitution of 1982 embodies the right and the obligation to education for the first time since 1949. Till 1990 the general primary education should be realized all over the country.<sup>39)</sup> This should be examined in the future, because of apprehensions, that with the initiation of the new economic system in agriculture, i. e. the free market for over-production, leads to the tendency, that farmers' children have to work in the field instead of attending school.<sup>40)</sup> Nevertheless, the successful educational policy in this field should not be deminished. Remembering, that 80 % of the population are still living in rural areas and the total population has doubled since 1949, the actually reached rate of illiteracy is an unsurpassable achievement of area country in the Third World.

Let's have a look at the dimension of expenditure in education. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1981-85) plans a 96.7 billion Yuan expenditure in culture, education, science and health. These are 15.9% of the total public spendings in this period. In the Fifth Five Year Plan (1976-80) this portion will be 11 %.<sup>41)</sup> Experts estimate that the spendings in education have been 2 % of the Gross National Product in 1980 and 3-4% in science. Representatives of schools and sciences are demanding a portion of 15-17% of the total public spendings (arguementing that this is the analogue portion in the USA and Japan).<sup>42)</sup> This portion is to be reached in the planned public spendings in 1981-1985. However, it should be noticed that additional spendings in education have to be spent on the self-governmental level. The central government subsidizes this activities. Experts estimate that there will be further increases in these spendings in the future. Remembering this, the slight decrease of enrolments in the last year might be an indicator in consolidation of the new educational policy.<sup>43)</sup>

The adjustment of educational output and manpower demand is neither quantitatively nor qualitatively realized. Indicators are the rates of unsuccessfulness in the national entrance examinations for higher education (see 4.4), the unemployment of youngsters (experts estimate about 20 millions unemployed youngsters<sup>44)</sup>), and the demand for strengthening the vocational orientation of education by Chinese officials.

The educational system is selective. Since 1980 about 5 % of the graduates of secondary education entered higher education. These are about 1.5 % of a year-group.<sup>45)</sup> This portion rose because of the decrease of graduates from upper secondary schools. It might have reached 10-15 % in 1983.<sup>46)</sup>

Equal educational opportunity is not guaranteed. Women are underrepresented. Their portion in primary school enrolment was 44.6%, on higher education level 23.5% in 1980. In technical secondary schools the portion is 35%, in secondary teacher training schools 25%, and ordinary/general middle schools 39.6% in 1980.<sup>47)</sup>

A similar positive correlation exists between the portion of women and the increasing level of the educational system.

The urban-rural-inequality in education is proved. Messages like 30% of a town year group attending pre-school whereas only 20% of rural year groups;<sup>48)</sup> the greater willingness of rural parents to withdraw their children even from primary schools; the plan to realize a nation wide primary school system till 1990; the difficulties to find cadet or higher educated graduates to work in rural areas<sup>49)</sup>, are strong indicators resulting this type of inequality. The same can be postulated in relation with the ethnical minorities. Their portion is 6.7% of the total population. These students don't need the same amount of scores in national entrance examinations, as the Han-Chinese. Nevertheless, their portion in higher education decreased from 1977-79 from 5.9% (1977) to 3.66% (1979). In 1980 the amount of scores has been decreased for these graduates. The rate of success in the national entrance examinations in higher education increased therefore from 5.2% (1980) to 5.3% (1981).<sup>50)</sup>

It is very difficult to answer the question if social equal opportunity is guaranteed. There are no official statistics concerning this dimension of educational opportunity.

Kwong<sup>51)</sup> reports, that students whose parents are intellectuals or cadres are over-represented in higher education. These data come from administration for higher education in Guangzhou and the Normal University of Shaanxi<sup>52)</sup>. Of course, these data are not representative for the PR China, and there might be a difference in social class definitions. Factors favouring educational social inequality, are the existence of key schools and colleges, the concentration of educational institutions, intellectuals and cadres in towns, fees for school attendance, school lunch, books<sup>53)</sup>, although the units are subsidizing these fees. There are no fees for higher education. Except teacher training, which is not in very high favour by the students, students or their parents have to pay the living expenses. There are of course scholarships for non-teacher students, because 15 Yuan (cautious estimation) a month are even for worker parents, both having a job, an extraordinary burden.

What we need is more knowledge about the actual interpretation of the function of integration, and in the discussion concerning this topic the development of the relation 'red and expert' is central. In the two programmatic speeches of Deng Xiaoping in 1978 (national conferences about science and education) the main point was laid on 'expert'. The national entrance examinations for higher education since 1977, the foundation of key schools/colleges, are indicators for this political course. But it has been also criticized later - especially the streaming. Since school year 1981/82 streaming was stopped in the province Shaanxi and since 1982/83 streaming has been stopped all over the country.<sup>54)</sup> Taking in account the conference of ideological education, the new criteria for college admittance (one of the criterias is an expert opinion from the attended secondary school) the pendulum seems to swing in the direction of 'red'.

Nevertheless, the directives of Mao Zedong or of present political leaders and educational administrators, public speeches and reports are still too general to specify the function of integration. A wider concretisation of this function could perhaps be found in the new national school books. Therefore, a content analysis of the new national school books has just been started at my department.

## 6. Notes and References

Acronyms: BR = Beijing Rundschau; C.a. = China aktuell

- 1) Hua, G.: Politischer Bericht auf dem XI. Parteitag der Kommunistischen Partei Chinas. In: XI. Parteitag der Kommunistischen Partei Chinas. Dokumente. Beijing 1977, pp. 129.
- 2) Deng, X.: Rede auf der Eröffnungsveranstaltung der Nationalen Wissenschaftskonferenz. In: BR 15 (1979) 12, p. 10
- 3) Deng, X.: Rede auf der Nationalen Konferenz über Erziehungsarbeit. In: BR 15 (1978) 18, p. 6
- 4) Der XII. Parteitag der Kommunistischen Partei Chinas. Dokumente. Beijing 1982
- 5) Parsons, T.: Social Structure and Personality. London (Free Press) 1965
- 6) Fend, H.: Gesellschaftliche Bedingungen schulischer Sozialisation. Weinheim/Basel (Beltz) 1974
- 7) Straka, G. A.; Frommold, M.: Analysen zum Verhältnis Erziehungswesen und Gesellschaft. In: Die Deutsche Schule, 68 (1976) 2, p. 70-85
- 8) World Bank: World Development Report 1983. Washington D.C., 1983
- 9) Based on net production value
- 10) In Chinese statistics 1952 is basis for index calculation
- 11) State Statistical Bureau (Comp.): Statistical Yearbook of China 1983. Hong Kong (Economic Information & Agency) 1983, p. 120.
- 12) Extension up to six years primary education and six years secondary education is planned
- 13) Henze, J.: Bildung und Wissenschaft in der Volksrepublik China zu Beginn der achtziger Jahre. Hamburg (Institut für Asienkunde) 1983
- 14) Chen, C.H.C.; Tyler, C.W.: Demographic Implications of Family Size Alternatives in The People's Republic of China. In: The China Quarterly No. 89 (March 1982), pp. 65-73
- 15) Henze (1983) op. cit.
- 16) Statistical Yearbook of China 1983, p. 511; C.a. 1983, p. 491
- 17) C.a. 1983, p. 492. 18) and 19) see p. 22.
- 20) Vetter, H.F.: Chinas neue Wirklichkeit. Frankfurt/New York (Campus) 1983; Henze (1983) op. cit.

- 21) To the 1980 (1981) officially published number of 3.3 (2.6) million candidates, 1.2 (2.3) million must be added who failed the preliminary examinations on provincial level.
- 22) C.a. 1983, p. 173
- 23) Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China: Education in China (I). Beijing 1983, pp. 27; Straka, G.A.: Schule und Hochschule in der Volksrepublik China. Bremen, 1983, p. 36.
- 24) Own computation on the basis of official statistics. The relation for secondary level is 17.9:1, for primary level 26.6:1. (Straka 1983, op. cit.)
- 25) Travel information
- 26) Based on travel information
- 27) Study schedules for psychology and education of Beijing Normal and East China Normal University show the same tendency: Schedules see Straka (1983) op. cit.
- 28) Hawkins, J.N.: Education and Social Change in the People's Republic of China. New York (Praeger) 1983; Thomas, R.M.; Postlethwaite, T.N. (Eds.): Schooling in East Asia. Oxford (Pergamon) 1983
- 29) BR 18(1981)37, p. 7
- 30) Travel observation
- 31) BR 17(1980)46, p. 8; Kexiao, L.: The Relations between the school and the Commune in new China. In: Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft. 26(1980), S.379-384. BR 17(1980) 23, p. 29
- 32) BR 17(1980)46, p. 7; BR 20(1983)4, pp.27
- 33) Bauer, R.: Berufliche Bildung in der Volksrepublik China. In: Pädagogik in Ost und West 29(1981)1, p.1-9; BR 19(1982) 43, pp.30-; BR 19(1982)42, pp.22-28
- 34) BR 20(1983) 4, p.25
- 35) C.a. 1982, p. 462; BR 17(1980)23, p. 79 (7.68% = 576 millions Yuan)
- 36) C.a. 1982, p. 257
- 37) BR 19(1982)45, p. 18-20
- 38) C.a. 1983, p. 491
- 39) C.a. 1983, p. 491
- 40) C.a. 198., p.631; BR 19(1982)26, p.6., C.a.1983, pp.491

- 42) Scharping, T.: Probleme der chinesischen Reformpolitik. Teil I: Recht, Bildung, Einkommen. Köln (Bundesinstitut für ostwissenschaftliche und internationale Studien), 5-1983, p. 16
- 43) Henze (1983) op.cit.p. 208
- 44) Weggel, O.: China. München (Beck) 1981, p.112; Scharping, T. (1983), op.cit. p. 15
- 45) C.a. 1981, p. 785
- 46) Henze, J.: Higher Education: The Tension between Quality and Equality. In: Hayhoe, R. (Ed.): Contemporary Chinese Education. London 1984, p. 116
- 47) Education in China 1981, p. 29
- 48) C. a. 1981, p. 18; Scharping (1983), op.cit. p. 17
- 49) C. a. 1982, p. 383
- 50) Heberer, T.: Aspekte im Bildungswesen der nationalen Minderheiten. In: das neue china, 10 (1983) 2, pp. 12-13
- 51) Kwong, J.: Is Everyone equal before the System of Grades: Social Background and Opportunities in China. In: The British Journal of Sociology 34 (1983) 1, p. 93-108
- 52) Ibid.
- 53) Travel information. Straka (1983), op. cit. p. 178
- 54) BR 18(1981)47, pp. 7
- 
- 18) Henze, J.: Developments in Vocational Education since 1976 In: Comparative Education, 20 (1984) 1, pp. 117-140
- 19) C. a. 1983, p. 492