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Education in Yugoslavia and the New Reform

*The Legal Basis, Organization, Administration,
and Program of the Secondary Schools*

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Office of Education

FOREWORD

The Office of Education endeavors to provide, for the academic community and for the public, comprehensive and current data on educational developments in other countries, within the context of their social and cultural backgrounds and achievements.

Yugoslavia, in its postwar reconstruction, has devoted considerable effort to educational development, especially at the secondary school level. The new General Law on Education of 1958 introduced major reforms and inaugurated a new public school system for the diverse population of the country. The present study, originally prepared by Vera Tomich, as her doctoral thesis at the University of California, Los Angeles, focuses on the present Yugoslav system of education, based on the new General Law.

As a compendium of the law's basic provisions, the present study does not attempt a detailed critical analysis of its performance in the current educational system, or a systematic account of the progress and problems in implementation of school laws. The study is thoroughly documented, but does not necessarily reflect the views of the U.S. Office of Education.

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PREFACE

The purpose of this study is to present a factual and objective summary of the present legal basis, organization, administration, and program of secondary schools in Yugoslavia, as revealed by literature, available documents, the author's interviews and observations; and to describe briefly the development of secondary education from 1946 to 1959, presenting the significant facts and events leading to the passage of the new General Law on Education in 1958.

The present study is primarily concerned with the education of the adolescent in Yugoslavia, approximately 11 to 19 years of age, in grades comparable to 7 through 12 in the United States. Certain phases of the study include lower grades because of the age-grade division in Yugoslavia and because of the earlier concept of secondary education based upon grades 5 through 12. Also, since the terms "elementary" and "secondary" overlapped during the period under study, a discussion of elementary education has also been included.

Although emphasis is on the development of education following World War II, a summary of prewar education in Yugoslavia is included for general background and comparative purposes. Otherwise, the study is restricted to the regular public elementary and secondary schools and does not relate to special schools for the physically or mentally retarded, adult education, or schools of higher learning.

In obtaining materials and information for this study, the author's travels through the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia proved to be of inestimable value in affording interviews and contacts with officials in government and education, and access to important documents and research material. An especially important contribution was made possible through sources providing the full text of the General Law on Education, translated into English by the author as the appendix of this study. In addition to Belgrade, four of the six republics of Yugoslavia were visited—Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, and Montenegro, and the Republic Councils of Education and Institutes for the Advancement of Education in these republics. Opportunities were provided for effective observation of representative elementary

and secondary schools and the textbooks used, as well as interviews with teachers and principals.

Additional information was obtained through review of the literature and other data available through U.S. libraries and from the Yugoslav Embassy, and through interviews with foreign students recently arrived in the United States.

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In the course of preparing the present study the writer received assistance from numerous sources. Appreciation is extended, first, to the Yugoslav Government and education officials and to many others in Yugoslavia for their help in obtaining valuable documents and research materials, and in arranging difficult contacts; and to the Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council in Belgrade for the photographs used in this publication. Thanks are also extended to Ambassador Leo Mates and other officials of the Yugoslav Embassy for information supplied and other assistance. The writer is especially grateful to U.S. Congressman John A. Blatnik for letters of introduction to Yugoslav and United States officials in Belgrade.

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THE YUGOSLAV STATE

IN ORDER to understand and appreciate the present educational system of Yugoslavia, effort should be made first to attain some understanding of the land, its people, and the country's historical development. This involves the physical configuration and geographic position of the country, its administrative and political organization, and its social, economic, and historical background. Even a brief description of these factors will show that in its geographic setting, as well as in political, social, and economic matters, differences and contrasts, rather than uniformity, are characteristic of Yugoslavia.

The Land and Its People

Geography.—Yugoslavia is located in southeastern Europe approximately in the middle latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere. Seven land frontiers and the Adriatic Sea form its boundaries: to the north, Austria and Hungary; to the northeast, Rumania; to the east, Bulgaria; to the south, Greece; to the southwest, Albania and the Adriatic; and, to the west, Italy.

Since Yugoslavia has a territory of almost 100,000 square miles, it is the largest Balkan country and the ninth largest country in Europe. Its area is larger than any of its neighbors with the exception of Italy. The country has the shape of a triangle, with its base resting on the Adriatic seaboard and its apex on the Rumania border in northeastern Serbia. The base of this "triangle" is elevated, since the Dinaric Mountains, which are the largest and most characteristic mountain range in Yugoslavia, descend abruptly into the Adriatic Sea.

The slopes toward the north and the northeast, and the plains along the rivers which flow from the Dinaric System toward the Sava River, form the southern limit of the great Pannonian Plain. To the north and the northeast are the valleys of the Danube, Tisa, Sava, and Drava Rivers, and the whole or portion of the valleys of their tributaries. This essentially flat area is, agriculturally, by far the most fertile and most important—in fact, it is the granary of Yugoslavia.¹

¹ Jozo Tomasevich, *Peasants, Politics, and Economic Changes in Yugoslavia*. Stanford: Stanford University Press; London: Geoffrey Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, 1955, p. 262.

Thus geographically, Yugoslavia can be divided into three great regions: the Pannonian Plain, just identified; the central mountainous area, which occupies most of the country's territory and is characterized by either high mountain ranges or lower mountains and hilly regions; and the coastal area along the eastern shore of the Adriatic Sea.

Administrative-Political Units.—Yugoslavia is a federation of six People's Republics: Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Macedonia, and Montenegro. The Republic of Serbia is the largest, and includes the autonomous province of Vojvodina and the autonomous region of Kosovo-Metohija, often referred to as Kosmet. Belgrade is the capital of Yugoslavia and the center of the Federal Government.

Executive power is vested in the Federal Executive Council which is elected by and from the Federal Assembly and is presided over by the President of the Republic, whose office is a new political development in Yugoslavia. The President is elected by the Federal Assembly from among its members. Although his principal political function is to preside over the Executive Council, he also represents the state in foreign affairs and is the supreme military commander. As described in Yugoslav sources, the President performs those executive functions which, by their nature and by international usage, are best symbolized and carried out by a single individual.²

Population.—Yugoslavia is also the largest Balkan country in terms of population. According to the statistics for 1957, Yugoslavia had a population of 18,234,000, divided among the various republics as follows: Serbia, 7,448,000; Croatia, 4,109,000; Bosnia-Herzegovina, 3,168,000; Slovenia, 1,582,000; Macedonia, 1,454,000; and Montenegro, 473,000 inhabitants.³

Twelve percent of the total population is of non-Yugoslav nationality.⁴ In the northern part of the country are found Hungarian, German, Rumanian, Slovak, and Czech minority groups. In the southern and eastern sections of Yugoslavia are the Albanians and the Turks, and, in the western zone, the Italians. The most important of these minority groups are the Moslem Albanians in Kosmet and Macedonia, and the Hungarians in Vojvodina. All others total less than one-twentieth of the population.⁵

² Jovan Djordjevic, "Yugoslavia's New System of Government," *Fortnightly*, No. 1036, New Series, April 1953, p. 236.

³ Rudi Kolak et al., eds., *Yugoslavia: Economic Guide* (Beograd: Privredni Pregled, 1958), p. 45.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 42.

⁵ Melard Mellen, "The People," in Robert F. Byrnes, ed., *Yugoslavia*. New York: Praeger, 1957, p. 81.

Social Factors.—The Yugoslavs speak three languages and use two alphabets. The Serbo-Croatian language is spoken in Serbia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Montenegro; the Slovenian language in Slovenia, and Macedonian in Macedonia. The Latin or Roman alphabet is used predominantly in Slovenia, Croatia, and Bosnia-Herzegovina, while the Cyrillic alphabet is used in Serbia, Macedonia, and Montenegro.⁶

According to the census of March 15, 1948, the religious inhabitants of Yugoslavia were divided as follows: Orthodox, 49.5 percent; Roman Catholic, 36.7 percent; Moslems, 12.5 percent; and other religions, 1.2 percent. Most of the followers of the Orthodox religion live in Serbia, Macedonia, and Montenegro, while the Roman Catholics are mainly in Croatia and Slovenia. Most of the Moslems live in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Macedonia, and to a lesser degree in Serbia and Montenegro.⁷

Literacy.—Literate persons in Yugoslavia increased approximately from one-half of the population in 1921 to three-fourths in 1953. The percentage of illiterates was lowest in Slovenia, and highest in those regions which had remained the longest under Turkish domination in the past. The percentage of illiterates in 1953 was much higher among the women than the men: 36 percent as compared with 14 percent.⁸

Historical Background

The history of Yugoslavia begins only in 1918, for it was not until that date that the united Yugoslav state came into existence.⁹ It rose on the ruins of two multinational empires—the Hapsburg and the Ottoman empires—which for centuries controlled or strongly influenced the destinies of the nations of the Danube Basin and the Balkans.¹⁰ Notwithstanding this fact, the Yugoslav peoples have had a colorful, diverse, and often heroic past.

Present-day Yugoslavia is inhabited by people of Slavic origin. Early in the sixth century they entered the Balkan Peninsula from the direction of the Carpathians, coming from lands situated between the Black Sea, Baltic Sea, the Dnieper, and Vistula Rivers. These people were called Yugo or South Slavs. Through a historical process

⁶ *Federativna Narodna Republika Jugoslavija*, (Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia). New York: Yugoslavia Information Center, 1957.

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ Mellen, "The People," *op. cit.*, pp. 83-84.

⁹ Thomas T. Hammond, "A Brief History," in Robert F. Byrnes, ed., *Yugoslavia* (New York: Praeger, 1957), p. 2.

¹⁰ Jozo Tomasevich, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

they crystallized into separate ethnical units, which later became the present republics of Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Macedonia.

In the eighth and the ninth century, the people were converted to Christianity. The ancestors of the Serbs, Montenegrins, and Macedonians were influenced by the Byzantine East, whereas the Croats and Slovenes were converted to the new faith by missionaries from Italy and Germany. This fact might be of no great importance were it not for the split that took place in 1054 between the Roman and Eastern churches, and precipitated centuries of hatred and conflict. This cleavage divided the South Slavs into two main religious groups, Western Catholic and Eastern Orthodox. While the Slovenes and Croats participated in the culture of Catholic Europe, the Serbs, Montenegrins, and Macedonians adopted the religion and culture of the Byzantine civilization. These contrasting influences had a lasting effect not only in religion, but also in music, architecture, the written language (Latin among the Catholics, and Cyrillic among the Orthodox), and in the economic, social, and cultural life of the people.¹¹

The Slovenes.—The Slovenes live in the northwestern corner of Yugoslavia which borders Austria and Italy. From the eighth century they remained under the domination of the Germans until the creation of the Yugoslav state in 1918. Because they were never under Ottoman rule, the Slovenes enjoyed relatively beneficent administration under the Hapsburgs. This is the chief reason given why Slovenia still has a higher level of literacy and industrialization than other parts of Yugoslavia.¹² The Slovenes are further set apart by the fact that they speak a separate language, Slovenian, which is so different from the Serbo-Croatian language that the two tongues are mutually unintelligible.¹³

The Croats.—The historic home of the Croats is southeast of the Slovenes, between the Adriatic Sea and the Drava River, that is, in the present-day Republic of Croatia and in parts of Bosnia-Herzegovina. In the Middle Ages, the Croats succeeded in creating an independent state, but in 1102, the Croatian throne was acquired by the king of Hungary. The influence of Austria and Hungary on Croatian life was felt for more than 8 centuries, and this dynastic union existed until 1918. In the early 16th century, the Turks con-

¹¹ Hammond, *loc. cit.*

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

¹³ George Rapall Noyes, "The Literature of the South Slavs," in Robert J. Kerner, ed., *Yugoslavia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1949), p. 313.

quered large sections of Croatia, but their imprint there was not as lasting as that on the Yugoslavs to the south.¹⁴

The Serbs.—South of the Croats, and almost indistinguishable from them linguistically and racially, are the Serbs. Presently the most numerous of the South Slav peoples, they settled in the central Balkans during the sixth and early seventh centuries. For several centuries the Serbs lived in their new land in tribal formations recognizing Byzantine authority. But as rule under the Byzantine empire declined, the Serbs formed independent states of their own, under native kings. Serbian power reached its height during the reign of Tsar Stephan Dusan in the Middle Ages. Then in 1389, as a result of the Battle of Kosovo, the Serbian medieval state was destroyed and became subject to Turkish domination, which was to last for 5 centuries.¹⁵

The Montenegrins.—During the Middle Ages, some of the Serbian tribes settled in the "black" mountains along the southern Adriatic coast. These Montenegrins were at times united under common rulers with the Serbs, but usually had their own independent state. Although the Turkish empire conquered the country in 1514, it never completely subjugated the hard-fighting Montenegrin people whose rugged mountains became an impassable barrier to the invaders. In 1799, the Turks finally recognized the independence of Montenegrins, who thus became the first of the Yugoslav peoples to free themselves from foreign rule.¹⁶

Peoples of Bosnia-Hercegovina.—The Republic of Bosnia-Hercegovina is located between the present republics of Serbia and Croatia. From early times the region has been a cause of dispute between its two neighbors, even though it remained under Turkish rule until 1878. In that year, at the Congress of Berlin, Austria-Hungary obtained the right to occupy Bosnia-Hercegovina, but it remained nominally Turkish until its annexation by Austria-Hungary in 1908.¹⁷ This republic is the only area in Yugoslavia in which Turkish domination led to large-scale conversion to Islam, the population being about 30 percent Moslem. Nevertheless, the language spoken is Serbo-Croatian, and the people are almost entirely Serbian or Croatian in origin.

The Macedonians.—Located in the southern part of Yugoslavia, Macedonia is one of the most racially mixed areas in the Balkans.

¹⁴ Hammond, *loc. cit.*

¹⁵ Hammond, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

¹⁷ *Federations Narodne Republike Jugoslavije, op. cit.*, p. 9.

Surrounded by Albania, Greece, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia, it has long been claimed by each of the last-named three states, and is presently divided among them, with Yugoslavia receiving the largest share.¹⁸ The language spoken in northwestern Macedonia is almost indistinguishable from Serbian, while along the Bulgarian frontier it blends into Bulgarian, and in the heart of Macedonia there are dialects ranging between Serbian and Bulgarian. In the Middle Ages, the history of Macedonia was closely associated with that of Serbia, but in the 14th century, after the disintegration of the Serbian state, Macedonia came under Turkish rule, which lasted until the outbreak of the Balkan War in 1912.¹⁹ However, it was not until after the Second World War that Macedonia achieved autonomy and full equality with the other Yugoslav republics.²⁰

The Struggle for Independence

At the dawn of the 19th century, all the Yugoslav peoples were under foreign rule, with the exception of Montenegro, whose rocky mountains the Turks had abandoned hope of controlling. Slovenia and Croatia were moderately prosperous under the Hapsburg Empire, while the remaining Yugoslavs suffered under Turkish rule.²¹

With the rise of national consciousness among the Yugoslavs, two successive armed uprisings, led by Karadjordje Petrovic in 1804, and by Milos Obrenovic in 1815, started the national liberation struggle, which led to the independence of Serbia after five centuries of Turkish rule.²² Its liberation brought about considerable economic and cultural progress. Vuk Karadzic carried out the reform of the Serbian language and its orthography, thereby laying the foundation for a new Serbian culture.²³

Following their successful fight for freedom, the two independent centers, Serbia and Montenegro, were brought into conflict not only with Turkey, but also with Austria-Hungary. In 1908, Austria-Hungary forcefully annexed Bosnia-Hercegovina.²⁴

In Sarajevo on June 28, 1914, Gavrilo Princip, a Serbian (but a native of Bosnia), assassinated Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the

¹⁸ Hammond, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ *Federations Narodna Republika Jugoslavijsa, loc. cit.*

²¹ Hammond, *loc. cit.*

²² Kolak, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

²³ "Short Survey of the History of the People of Yugoslavia," *Yugoslav Review*, IV (April 1955), p. 7.

²⁴ *Ibid.*

heir to the Hapsburg throne.²⁵ On July 25, Austria issued an ultimatum to Serbia, and when the Serbian cabinet failed to agree without reservation to all the demands, Austria-Hungary declared war on July 28. World War I had begun.²⁶

In July 1917, the Pact of Corfu proclaimed that all Yugoslavs would join after the war to form a united democratic kingdom under the Serbian royal dynasty. It was signed by Nikola Pasic, Premier of Serbia, and by Dr. Ante Trumbic, the head of the London Yugoslav Committee. The Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes was officially proclaimed on December 1, 1918.²⁷ After centuries of separation and bloodshed, the South Slavs were at last united, under one ruler, into a South Slav state, and on October 3, 1929, the name was officially changed to the Kingdom of Yugoslavia.²⁸ For the first time, the Yugoslav peoples had been united under one ruler.

After achieving their national unity and independence, the Yugoslav people were faced with many problems. Political unification did not alter the fact that Yugoslavia was basically a poor country, a predominantly agricultural area in a world where large-scale industrialization was essential for both economic wealth and military power. Another problem was the relative political inexperience of the people. Their past had afforded little opportunity for participation in democratic government. The great diversity of the country and its population prevented the formation of a strong unified state.

The people were split into three different religions: Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Moslem. They spoke three different languages: Slovene, Serbo-Croatian, and Macedonian. They included large national minorities of Albanians, Germans, and Hungarians. Differences were also manifested in attitudes, cultural levels, and economic development. With the defeat of the common enemy, local nationalism took place of Yugoslav nationalism. Disputes arose regarding the rights and powers of the respective peoples in their new state, and local loyalties competed with loyalty to the country as a whole.²⁹

In the period between the two world wars, Yugoslavia, as constituted and governed, lacked political, social, and ideological cohesion.

²⁵ Tomasevich, *op. cit.*, p. 218.

²⁶ Harry N. Howard, "Historical Evolution: A Chronology," in Robert F. Byrnes, ed., *Yugoslavia* (New York: Praeger, 1957), p. 454.

²⁷ Robert J. Kerner, "The Yugoslav Movement," in *Yugoslavia*, Robert J. Kerner, ed. (New York: Praeger, 1957), p. 40.

²⁸ Howard, *op. cit.*, p. 458.

²⁹ Hammond, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-11.

The country suffered early defeat in World War II, and in the subsequent period of internal civil strife and military successes of "The Army of National Liberation" under the Communist Tito, the Yugoslav Communist Party gained power.

In November 1945, a Constitutional Assembly proclaimed the abolition of the monarchy and the establishment of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia.³⁰ The Yugoslav Communist government applied the Leninist principle of a "federation of socialist states"—in this case, the six republics: Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Macedonia. This federative policy was regarded as a solution to the nationalities problem which proved to be the main obstacle to the consolidation of political power by previous Yugoslav governments.³¹ The federal structure of postwar Yugoslavia also exemplified an association of states whose cultural, religious, and political traditions had been completely different. In January 1946, a new constitution was promulgated. Yugoslavia became a federated republic, and a new government was formed under Marshal Tito.³²

³⁰ Hammond, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

³¹ Charles P. McVicker, *Titoism—Pattern for International Communism* (New York: St. Martin's Press; London: Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1957), pp. 41-42.

³² Hammond, *loc. cit.*

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM IN PRE-WAR YUGOSLAVIA

THE EDUCATIONAL system in Yugoslavia prior to the Second World War may be characterized as underdeveloped: The number of schools was small; a large percentage of the population remained illiterate; vocational training was inadequate; many branches of the economy—particularly in industry—had no schools; the people of Macedonia were without schools in their native language; and for other national minorities, schools were lacking.¹ Opportunities were not provided for pupils from certain types of lower schools to continue their studies in secondary schools or for those attending certain secondary schools to continue in schools of higher learning.²

A great diversity in school development was evident in various parts of the country. Some areas (e.g., Slovenia) had almost reached the advanced level of the more developed countries of Central Europe, while others (e.g., Bosnia-Herzegovina and Macedonia) were on a very low level, so that their population was mainly illiterate.³ According to population figures for 1931, 4,408,471 people over 10 years of age, or 44.6 percent of the population, could not read or write. Table 1 on page 10 shows the distribution of illiterates in the various republics.

Illiteracy among women reached 56.4 percent compared to 32.3 percent for the male population. A great difference in educational standards also existed among women in various parts of the country. In Slovenia, where education reached a higher degree of development, the illiteracy rate was only 5.8 percent. However, in Macedonia, for many years under feudal Turkish rule, 81.7 percent of the women were illiterate. The figure was even higher in Bosnia-Herzegovina, 84 percent.⁴

¹ *L'Instruction Publique dans la République Populaire Fédérative de Yougoslavie 1945-46 à 1950-51* (Education in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia 1945-46 to 1950-51), Council for Science and Culture of the Government of the FPRY (Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia) (Beograd, 1952), p. 13.

² *Boridar Kicovic, Schools and Education in Yugoslavia* (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1955), pp. 6-8.

³ *L'Instruction Publique* . . . , *op. cit.*, p. 29. See also: "Development of Schools in Yugoslavia," *Information Service Yugoslavia* (Beograd, 1957), p. 1.

⁴ *Omovni Statisticki Podaci* . . . , *loc. cit.*

Table 1.—Number of illiterate persons over 10 years of age, by sex and republic: 1931¹

Republics	Men	Women	Total	Percent of illiteracy
Serbia.....	617, 117	1, 324, 104	1, 941, 221	46. 9
Croatia.....	266, 401	511, 495	777, 896	31. 5
Slovenia.....	21, 385	26, 079	47, 464	5. 5
Bosnia-Hercegovina.....	437, 677	623, 762	1, 061, 439	70. 0
Macedonia.....	173, 006	266, 473	439, 479	67. 5
Montenegro.....	42, 345	98, 627	140, 972	56. 1
Total.....	1, 557, 931	2, 850, 540	4, 408, 471	44. 6

¹ *Općeni Statistički Podaci o Razvoju i Stanju Školskog u Federativnoj Narodnoj Republici Jugoslaviji* (Fundamental Statistical Data on the Development and Status of Education in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia), *Savezna Narodna Skupština, Komisija za Reformu Školskog* (Federal People's Assembly, Commission for School Reform) (Beograd, 1967), p. 9.

Underdevelopment was not only a characteristic of the schools prior to 1939, but also of the country's economy. According to the census of March 31, 1931, the population of Yugoslavia was 13,934,038, of which 6,682,615, or 48 percent, were actively employed, representing the following major occupational groups: agriculture, cattle breeding, forestry and fishing, 76.3 percent; industry and trades, 10.7 percent; commercial enterprises 4.1 percent; and other occupations, 4.3 percent. By far the largest segment of Yugoslavia's prewar population was engaged in and sustained by agriculture.⁵

Status of Compulsory Education

Education was compulsory predominantly in the 4-year elementary school even though compulsory 8-year attendance had been introduced by the Law of Popular Schools in 1929. The act was of a declaratory nature only and was not enforced,⁶ due to the fact that in many parts of the country the 4-year school was the only one providing elementary education. In other places not even this type of school existed.⁷ Yet in some areas (Slovenia, Vojvodina, and Dalmatia) there were 6-year and 8-year primary schools.⁸

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 3-4.

⁶ "Development of Schools in Yugoslavia," *Information Service Yugoslavia* (Beograd, 1967), p. 1.

⁷ *Stanje i Razvoj Obaveznog Školenja* (Status and Development of Compulsory Education), *Savezni Zavod za Proučavanje Školskih i Prosvetnih Pitanja* (Federal Institute for Educational Research) (Beograd, 1957), p. 8.

⁸ "Development of Schools in Yugoslavia," *loc. cit.*

National Minorities

Many national minorities prior to World War II did not have the opportunity to acquire an education in their native language. The Albanian minority, which numbered approximately half a million people, was without a single school conducted in its native tongue. The Turkish and Bulgarian minorities were in a similar position, as were the Macedonians, who did not have a single school in their own language. Neither the people nor the language of Macedonia was officially recognized. The minority population in Yugoslavia attending minority elementary schools in 1938-39 was only 9.2 percent.⁹

Table 2.—Students and teachers in schools for national minorities, by language and level: 1938-39¹

Minority	Elementary schools			Secondary schools of general education		
	Schools	Students	Teachers	Schools	Students	Teachers
Slovak	42	7,480	181	1	516	46
Ruthenian	3	1,415	46	-----	-----	-----
Hungarian	183	27,915	374	2	337	50
Rumanian	33	4,742	103	1	161	11
Italian	5	442	30	-----	-----	-----
German	228	38,458	711	4	610	145
Total	554	80,432	1,445	8	1,624	252

¹ *Osnovne i Srednje Škole 1954-55 i 1955-56* (Primary and Secondary Schools 1954-55 and 1955-56), Savezni Zavod za Statistiku (Federal Statistical Office), No. 72, (Beograd, 1957), p. 10

Organization of the School System

Preschool Institutions.—Kindergartens, which were not compulsory, enrolled children from 4 to 7 years of age. Personal hygiene, medical care, diet, outdoor games, and exercises were emphasized, though counting, speech exercises, and prayers were also taught.¹⁰

Elementary and Higher Elementary.—Elementary education lasted 8 years. The first four formed the lower elementary school, for children 7 to 11 years of age; the second four, the upper or higher elemen-

⁹ *L'Instruction Publique* . . . , op. cit., pp. 29-30.

¹⁰ Severin K. Turoslenski, "Education," in Robert J. Kerner, ed., *Yugoslavia* (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1949), p. 234.

tary school, for children 11 to 15.¹¹ Upon completion of the 4-year elementary school, the student had a choice of continuing his studies in the higher elementary school, the civic school, the gymnasium, or in one of the junior vocational schools.

Education in the higher elementary school was either regular or shortened, to last throughout the winter months, or for the entire year, but on special days of the week. In the latter case, the program of studies was also reduced, and at times lower elementary school subjects were again studied. This type of school was known as the "opetovnice," or repetition school. It found little popularity with the people and, therefore, was not well developed.¹²

The organization of the school system in prewar Yugoslavia is shown by the chart on the following page.

Data on compulsory education do not exist which separate lower and higher elementary students.¹³ Thus, it is not possible to determine how many children between the ages of 7 and 10 actually attended school in the prewar period, or what number completed 8 years of compulsory education. The reader should keep this in mind in considering the following table:

Table 3.—School-age children in the population and students and teachers in compulsory schools, by republic: 1939-40¹

Republic	Schools	Children 7-14	Students	Percent attend- ing	Teach- ers
Serbia.....	3, 187	1, 176, 100	609, 702	51. 8	12, 107
Croatia.....	2, 549	671, 400	374, 683	55. 8	8, 292
Slovenia.....	871	209, 800	176, 947	84. 3	4, 857
Bosnia-Hercegovina.....	1, 092	547, 900	150, 783	21. 0	3, 687
Macedonia.....	850	205, 700	95, 010	46. 2	1, 561
Montenegro.....	440	75, 600	37, 620	49. 8	1, 038
Yugoslavia.....	8, 989	2, 886, 500	1, 444, 745	50. 1	31, 542

¹ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 7.*

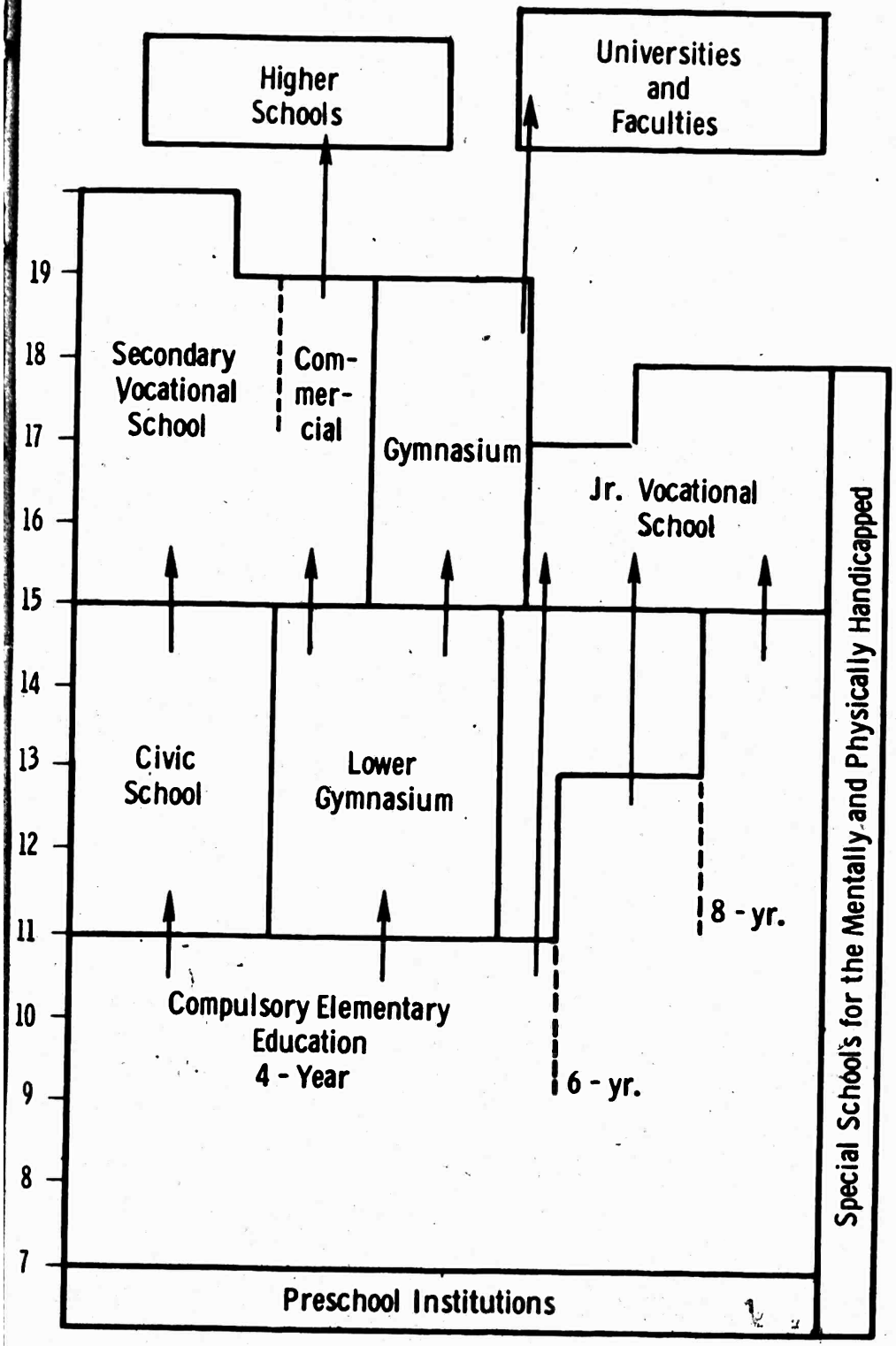
In the 1939-40 school year, 50.1 percent of the children between the ages of 7 and 14 were attending school. The ratio of students per

¹¹ Stavro Skendi, "Education," in Robert F. Byrnes, ed., *Yugoslavia* (New York: Praeger, 1957), p. 166.

¹² *Stanje i Razvoj Obaveznog Skolovanja, loc. cit.*

¹³ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci . . . op. cit., p. 7.*

Chart I.—ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM IN PREWAR YUGOSLAVIA¹



¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 5.*

class in prewar Yugoslavia was 109. The situation was somewhat better in Slovenia where 51.3 students were enrolled per class. A high ratio existed in Bosnia-Hercegovina, where 218.7 students attended per class. The ratio in the various republics and for Yugoslavia as a whole is given in the following table:

Table 4.—Average number of students per class and of classes per 1,000 students, by republic: 1939-40¹

Republic	Students per class	Classes per 1,000 students
Serbia.....	111.7	8.96
Croatia.....	100.6	9.94
Slovenia.....	51.3	19.50
Bosnia-Hercegovina.....	218.7	4.57
Macedonia.....	113.8	8.79
Montenegro.....	87.6	11.42
Yugoslavia.....	109	9.17

¹ *Opšti Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 7.*

Civic Schools.—Pupils who were capable of more than ordinary elementary schoolwork, but who were unable to benefit from full secondary school instruction, qualified for the civic school. This school, which was not compulsory, consisted of a 4-year course and provided an education half general and half vocational for pupils between the ages of 11 and 15.¹⁴ The curriculum was the same for all students during the first 2 years. In the final 2 years, the student was required to select one of three fields: trade and industrial, commercial, or agricultural studies.¹⁵

The civic school ranked as a lower secondary school. Upon graduation, the student could enroll only in one of the secondary vocational schools: secondary teacher's school, commercial academy, agricultural school, and the women's vocational and domestic teacher-training school. It was not possible to enroll in the gymnasium except by special examination. In the 1938-39 school year, there were 234 civic schools attended by 42,750 students.¹⁶

¹⁴ Skendi, *loc. cit.*

¹⁵ Turošenički, *op. cit.*, p. 235.

¹⁶ *Stanje i Razvoj Oblasnog Školenja, op. cit., p. 6.*

Gymnasia.—General education secondary schools, or gymnasia, were of 8 years duration, with two levels: the 4-year junior gymnasium, with pupils between ages 11 and 15, and the 4-year senior gymnasium, for those 15 to 19 years of age. If at the end of the 4-year course, the pupil passed an examination called the "little matura," he could enroll for the second 4-year period. After obtaining the "great matura" diploma, he was permitted to enter any institution of higher learning or university.

Although the lower gymnasium enrolled children of the same age as the civic schools and the higher elementary schools, it occupied a privileged position. It existed as an independent school, or, combined with the full gymnasium, gave to its students the right to enroll in every type of school. Because of this privileged status, the gymnasium emerged as the most popular of all schools of this level. It was considered as the most certain road for further education and the only road upon which one could reach the university. The gymnasium was the basic school against which all other schools were ranked.

General education was the main emphasis of the school program, having as its purpose the teaching of a large amount of historical facts and encyclopedic knowledge. Student activity was limited to listening, remembering, and reproducing educational materials. The classical gymnasium, as in other countries, stressed the Greek and Roman classics. The "real" gymnasium paid more attention to modern languages and history; Latin was taught, but not Greek. The curriculum for the classical gymnasium is shown in table 5.

The realka gymnasium emphasized mathematics and sciences; classical languages were not taught. The curriculum for this type of school is shown in table 6.

According to statistics for the 1938-39 school year, there were 205 gymnasia with an enrollment of 125,098 students in the lower and upper grades. Of this number, only 36,611 were in the upper four grades. Many students dropped out during the higher grades; some went into the army or medical school after completing 6 years, others obtained jobs which required only 1 or 2 years in the upper gymnasium.

The structure, position, and function of the gymnasium in the social-economic structure of prewar Yugoslavia accounts for the undeveloped vocational schools. A strict division existed between physical and mental effort. The vocational schools educated future manual, technical, and organizational workers, while the gymnasium and the university educated future "intellectuals." Regulations did not permit

Table 5.—Curriculum hours in the real gymnasium by subject and grade: 1936¹

Subjects	Lower grades				Higher grades			
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Serbo-Croatian.....	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
French.....	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
German.....			3	3	3	3	3	3
Latin.....					4	4	3	3
History.....		2	3	3	3	3	3	3
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Natural history.....	3	3			2	3	2	
Physics.....			2	2			3	3
Chemistry.....				3				2
Hygiene.....			1	1		1	1	
Mathematics.....	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4
Basic philosophy.....								2
Art.....	2	2	2	2	2	1		
Singing.....	2	2						
Writing.....	2	1						
Physical education.....	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	
Handwork.....	2	2	2					
Hours per week.....	29	30	30	30	30	30	31	31

¹ *Stanje i Razvoj Gimnazije* (Status and Development of the Gymnasium), Sevezni Zavod za Proucavanje Skolskih i Prosvetnih Pitanja (Federal Institute for Educational Research) (Beograd, 1957), p. 21.

a graduate of the vocational schools to transfer to the gymnasium or to continue in the higher schools.¹⁷

Vocational Schools.—The junior vocational schools comprised those for apprenticeship and practical training. They included lower agricultural schools, men's and women's arts and crafts or trade schools, and schools of domestic science and medicine. Special schools for arts and crafts offered woodcarving, metalwork, ceramics, and carpet weaving. In general, graduates from these schools were unable to continue in the secondary vocational schools. At times, and only by special examination, graduates from the lower agricultural school or the men's and women's trade schools were allowed to enter the secondary schools.¹⁸

¹⁷ *Gimnazija u Novom Sistemu Obrazovanja i Vaspitanja*, (Gymnasium in the New System of Education). (Beograd, 1957).

¹⁸ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci . . .*, loc. cit.

Table 6.—Curriculum hours in the realka gymnasium by subject and grade: 1936¹

Subjects	Lower grades				Higher grades			
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Serbo-Croatian.....	5	5	4	4	3	3	3	3
French..... ⁴	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
German.....			3	3	3	3	3	3
History.....		2	3	3	2	2	3	3
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2
Natural history.....	3	3			2	3	3	
Physics.....			2	2			4	4
Chemistry.....				3	3	2	2	
Hygiene.....			1	1		1		1
Mathematics.....	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	5
Geometry.....					2	2	2	2
Art.....								2
Drawing.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1
Writing.....	2	1						
Singing.....	2	2						
Physical education.....	2	2	2	2	2	1		
Handwork.....	2	2	2					
Hours per week.....	29	30	30	30	30	30	31	31

¹ Stanje i Razvoj Gimnazije . . . , op. cit., p. 21.

Unskilled workers for industry were recruited from the ranks of agricultural workers, who were principally without vocational qualifications. There were no apprenticeship schools which gave training for industrial undertakings. Consequently, skilled workers were recruited from the arts and crafts or trade schools. Table 7 presents the number of schools, students, and teachers in the junior vocational school in the 1938-39 school year.

Women predominated in the trade schools which offered courses in dressmaking and other domestic arts. The medical schools offered women training in midwifery and similar studies.

The major types of secondary vocational schools are given in table 8, together with enrollment figures for the 1938-39 school year.

Graduates of the secondary vocational school were not permitted to enroll in the university, with the exception of those students from

Table 7.—Total students, male students, and teachers in junior vocational schools, by area of training: 1938–39¹

	Schools	Total students	Male students	Teachers
Apprenticeship.....	410	48,658	43,414	4,258
Practical training:				
Crafts and trades.....	305	18,923	2,683	1,605
Agriculture.....	51	2,156	1,667	311
Medical.....	4	135	-----	21
Total.....	770	69,872	47,764	6,197

¹ *Statistički Godišnjak FNRJ 1958* (Statistical Yearbook of FPRY 1958), Savezni Zavod za Statistiku (Federal Statistical Office) (Beograd, 1958), pp. 249-250. See also *Osnovne i Srednje Skole 1954-55 i 1955-56* op. cit., p. 7.

Table 8.—Total students, male students, and teachers in secondary vocational schools, by area of training: 1938–39¹

	Schools	Total students	Male students	Teachers
Technical.....	8	2,152	2,055	264
Agriculture.....	3	501	500	44
Schools of transport.....	4	494	494	64
Economics.....	34	7,389	3,450	431
Medical.....	4	153	-----	71
Total.....	53	10,689	6,499	874

¹ *Osnovne i Srednje Skole 1954-55 i 1955-56*, op. cit., p. 8. See also *Statistički Godišnjak*, op. cit., pp. 250-251.

the teacher-training schools. Students from the naval and commercial academy were permitted to enroll in the economic-commercial higher school. About 70 percent of the students in secondary vocational schools were enrolled in the economic schools.

Of the four schools of transport, three were concerned with naval commerce and one with railway transportation. Skilled industrial workers were recruited from the technical schools, but since only about

22 percent of all secondary vocational students enrolled in this type of school, the number of qualified workers was very small. Approximately 500 such students were graduated each year, which meant that the technical school as a whole was not providing the sufficient replacements needed by industry.¹⁹

Teacher-Training Schools.—Graduates of the teacher-training schools were qualified to teach in the elementary schools. The duration of teachers' studies was extended to 5 years in 1929. Shortly before World War II a few schools offered a 1-year course, or a fifth year, for graduates of the gymnasium. In the 1938-39 school year, there were 34 teacher-training schools with 3,989 students and 503 teachers.²⁰

Schools of the Arts.—In addition to the regular schools, there were special schools of the arts. On the lower level, these schools included music and ballet, and on the secondary level, in addition to continued study in music and ballet, they offered theater arts, painting, and sculpture.²¹

**Table 9.—Students and teachers in schools of the arts, by level:
1938-39¹**

Level	Schools	Students	Teachers
Junior arts.....	16	2, 570	141
Secondary arts.....	5	603	136
Total.....	21	3, 173	277

¹ *Osnovne i Srednje Skole 1955-56, op. cit., p. 9.*

University Faculties and Higher Schools.—Higher education as a rule was of 4-years' duration, offered in universities and special institutions to young men and women 18 years of age or older.²² In the 1938-39 school year, there were 29 schools of higher learning in Yugoslavia in which 17,734 students were enrolled.

¹⁹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 10.*

²⁰ *Osnovne i Srednje Skole 1955-56 (Primary and Secondary Schools 1955-56), Savezni Zavod za Statistiku FNRJ (Federal Statistical Office of FPRY), No. 118 (Beograd, 1958), p. 8.*

²¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., pp. 18-20.*

²² *Skendi, loc. cit.*

Table 10.—Students in faculties (colleges) and higher schools, by area, 1938–39¹

Area	Schools	Students
Faculties:		
Agriculture-forestry.....	2	1, 166
Veterinary.....	2	70
Technical.....	3	2, 671
Economic.....	2	98
Law.....	4	5, 99
Medicine.....	3	2, 09
Philosophy.....	4	2, 86
Theology.....	3	75
Art and music academy.....	4	22
Higher pedagogical school.....	2	25
Total.....	29	17, 73

¹ *Vizite Škole 1954–55 (Higher Schools 1954–55)*, Savezni Zavod za Statistiku FNRJ (Federal Statistical Office of FPRY), No. 59 (Beograd, 1956), pp. 7–9.

War Devastation

Yugoslavia was the scene of desperate fighting and extensive devastation during World War II. Heavy losses were incurred, through material destruction and human casualties. An estimated 1,700,000 people lost their lives, or approximately 1 out of every 10 citizens. Next to Poland, Yugoslavia had relatively the largest wartime loss of population in the world.²³ One-sixth of the prewar housing was destroyed or heavily damaged, while staggering losses were suffered in livestock, agricultural machinery, transportation, and communication.²⁴

During the war, there was a general breakdown in the development of the educational system. A large number of school buildings was destroyed or damaged, while others were turned into barracks, stables, hospitals, or simply were closed down. According to available data, approximately one-half of all elementary schools were rendered unfit for conducting schoolwork: 14 percent had been completely destroyed.

²³ Jozo Tomasevich, "Postwar Foreign Economic Relations," in *Yugoslavia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1949), p. 390.

²⁴ *Ibid.*

and 36 percent were damaged.²⁵ The greatest damage was inflicted upon elementary schools in those areas of the country which had the least developed school network and which were in greatest need of new buildings. In Bosnia-Herzegovina, for example, only 13 percent of the 1,043 elementary school buildings were found in good repair after the war.²⁶

Teaching materials, laboratories, supplies, and equipment were completely destroyed in 5,175 elementary schools, out of the 8,956 which had existed before the war; and were partly destroyed in 2,313 other schools.²⁷ Thus, school work was resumed in 1945 in poorly equipped classrooms—some without even benches or tables. Equipment and teaching materials were totally destroyed in 222 secondary schools and partly damaged in 182 other schools. Still greater damage was caused to school libraries and archives: libraries were completely destroyed in 6,478 schools and damaged in 1,670 other schools.²⁸

Universities and schools of higher learning also suffered great losses. Many universities were burned down completely, together with their valuable collections and scientific works, which had been acquired through many long decades and equipped at the cost of great sacrifices. An additional hardship was the scarcity of teachers. In 1940-41, there were 40,544 teachers in the elementary schools and in the lower and higher gymnasium. This number was reduced to 30,556 in the 1945-46 school year.²⁹

Thus, backwardness and underdevelopment of prewar Yugoslavia, as well as the devastation wrought by war, confronted the new Yugoslav Republic with many difficult problems.

²⁵ Ivo Babić and Marijan Filipović, *Scientific Institutions in Yugoslavia* (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1958), p. 12.

²⁶ *L'Instruction Publique* *op. cit.*, p. 30.

²⁷ Kicović, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

²⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁹ *Stanje i Razvoj Obavneog Obrazovanja, op. cit.*, p. 7.

POSTWAR EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Early Postwar Period

General Status.—Burdened by its legacy of economic and cultural underdevelopment, and by the aftermath of destruction from the Second World War, Yugoslavia in 1945 began to work toward rehabilitation and reconstruction. Major efforts were directed toward economic development and the expansion of educational facilities. It was necessary to rebuild the schools destroyed, repair those damaged, establish a network of elementary schools in areas where none had previously existed,¹ and to provide both new and old schools with supplies, equipment, and teaching personnel. Industrial and economic expansion necessitated the extension of compulsory education and a greater number of vocational schools, as well as many new types. There was also the need to modify school curriculums according to new conditions.²

Illiteracy.—Because of the general backwardness of the country and the high degree of illiteracy, initial efforts were made to provide elementary education for as many children as possible. The greatest number of illiterates was found in the villages. There were places in Bosnia-Herzegovina, for example, where only two villages in an entire district had primary schools.³ For these reasons intensive school building construction was begun early in 1945, and private buildings were frequently adapted for school use.⁴

Compulsory Education.—One of the greatest changes in the postwar school system was the extension of compulsory education. Efforts were made to elevate the general cultural level of the country and to establish conditions for continuing education. In October 1945 a law was passed which provided for 7 years of compulsory school attend-

¹ More than 10 percent of the general budget was used for this purpose in 1948, and in 1950 the government devoted 14.2 percent of its budget to education. UNESCO/IBE, Yugoslavia. *International Yearbook of Education 1950*, pp. 181-245.

² G. Ernjakovic and Lj. Krneta, *The Yugoslav Educational System* (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1959), p. 8.

³ Nikola Vucenov, "Prosevtva i Skoltstvo" (Education and Schools), *Novi Jugoslavija* (New Yugoslavia) (Beograd: Zadruga, 1955), pp. 387, 390.

⁴ Ernjakovic, *loc. cit.*

ance; in 1950 this period was extended to 8 years.⁵ The goal of 8 years of compulsory schooling was not wholly achieved, however, by the late 1950's.

Lack of Teachers.—Although teacher shortage existed prior to the Second World War, it was even greater in the early postwar period⁶ as schools, classes, and students increased each year⁷ and the demand for teachers became more acute. It was necessary for teacher-training schools to offer shortened courses, a practice most prevalent in Bosnia-Hercegovina, Macedonia, and Serbia. In these republics and others, the shortage of teachers was a serious obstacle to the opening of new minority schools, especially for those groups which had not been recognized in the prewar period. The Albanians, Bulgarians, Turks, and Ukrainians did not have teacher-training schools before the war, and, consequently, had no teachers. Before new schools could be opened for these minority groups it was necessary to train teaching staffs. Special classes for this purpose were opened in regular teacher-training schools, and special schools for instruction in minority languages were started.

Adult Education.—In addition to providing education for the nation's youth, Yugoslavia faced a vast postwar task in teaching reading and writing to an adult population without previous regular schooling. More than 2 million illiterates were taught to read and write by the 1951-52 school year.⁸ The decrease in illiteracy from 1921 to 1953 is shown by the following table:

Table 11.—Number and percent of illiterate persons over 10 years of age: 1921, 1931, and 1953¹

Year	Total population	Illiterates over age 10	Percentage
1921.....	8,507,979	4,378,519	51.5
1931.....	9,882,547	4,408,471	44.6
1953.....	13,381,106	3,404,429	25.4

¹ *Statistički Godišnjak FNRJ 1953* (Statistical Yearbook of FPRY 1953); Savezni Zavod za Statistiku (Federal Statistical Office), (Beograd: 1953), p. 80.

² "Yugoslavia," *World Handbook of Educational Organisation and Statistics*: First edition 1951 (UNESCO) Paris: 1952, pp. 445-46.

³ Whereas, before the war, there were over 32,000 elementary schoolteachers, the number was reduced after the war to 23,000. Source: Bozdat Kicovic, *Schools and Education in Yugoslavia*. (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1955), p. 35.

⁴ In 1945-46, there were 48.4 students per teacher in all types of general education schools. The figure rose to 59.9 in 1948-49 and thereafter began to decline. Source: *Stanje i Razvoj Gimnazija* (Status and Development of the Gymnasium), Savezni Zavod za Proucavanje Školskih i Prosvetnih Pitanja (Federal Institute for Educational Research, Beograd, 1957), p. 9.

⁵ Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

Technical Development.—In the first postwar years, hydroelectric plants, mines, railways, steel mills, coke factories, and new asphalt roads were built in great part by semiliterate or illiterate peasants under the direction of a small force of technical intelligentsia and skilled workers. The urgent need for skilled technicians, for the economic, industrial, and agricultural development of the country intensified interest in technical and scientific advancement. This new emphasis resulted in the rapid growth of technical and vocational schools during the postwar period.

Curricula.—Teaching plans and curricula were modified in the early postwar years in order to adapt the educational system to the principles announced immediately after liberation of the country: a uniform school system, compulsory education for all children up to 15 years of age, separation of the school from the church, and a socialist philosophy in education with scientific-materialistic content.⁹

At first, contemporary materials were mechanically added to the curricula. Some subjects introduced thus exceeded the ability of the pupils. Efforts were later made to bring education as close as possible to everyday life and to group the subjects taught according to their common features in nature and society.

In the early postwar years, the schools were without new textbooks for some subjects, while for others prewar texts were used which were not in harmony with the new programs. Gradually, more textbooks became available so that by 1953 nearly all schools were supplied with the necessary books, although some of them were deficient in their presentation of the subjects treated.¹⁰

Educational Level of Employed Population.—From 1931 to 1953, the population of Yugoslavia increased from 13,934,038 to 16,927,000 inhabitants. Of the 7,840,000 gainfully employed in 1953, more than 87 percent had only a 4-year elementary school training or none at all. The educational background of this group is shown in table 12.

The educational background of the employed population in the various republics is given in table 13.

When the entire population of Yugoslavia is taken into account, the percentage which has attended school is even less: without schooling, 42.1 percent; with 4-year elementary, 46.1 percent; lower gymnasium and 8-year school, 4.2 percent; and junior vocational school, 3.8 percent. All other schools were under 2 percent.¹¹

Schools for National Minorities.—During the postwar period schools of general education were provided for all minority groups in Yugo-

⁹ Brnjakovic, *loc. cit.*

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

Table 12.—Number and percent of employed population, by level of schooling: 1953¹

Schooling	Total (in thousands)	Men (in thousands)	Women (in thousands)	Percent distribution of total (both sexes)
None.....	2, 775	1, 529	1, 247	35. 5
Elementary.....	4, 059	2, 837	1, 222	51. 8
Lower gymnasium and 8-yr. school.....	263	185	78	3. 4
Junior vocational.....	427	380	47	5. 4
Gymnasium.....	74	59	15	. 9
Secondary vocational.....	152	93	59	1. 9
Higher education.....	67	50	16	. 8
Unknown.....	23	13	10	. 3
Total.....	7, 840	5, 146	2, 695	100. 0

¹ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci o Razvoju i Stanju Školske u Federativnoj Narodnoj Republici Jugoslaviji* (Fundamental Statistical Data on the Development and Status of Education in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia), Savezna Narodna Skupština, Komisija za Reformu Školstva (Federal People's Assembly, Commission for School Reform) (Beograd, 1967), p. 12.

Table 13.—Percent distribution of employed population in each republic, by level of schooling: 1953¹

Schooling	Serbia	Croatia	Slovenia	Bosnia-Herzegovina	Macedonia	Montenegro
None.....	37. 2	24. 4	9. 8	59. 3	43. 5	35. 4
Elementary.....	50. 3	61. 2	71. 0	32. 2	47. 2	40. 6
Lower gymnasium and 8-yr. school.....	3. 2	4. 0	3. 8	2. 4	3. 1	5. 0
Junior vocational.....	5. 3	6. 0	10. 0	3. 8	2. 6	3. 9
Gymnasium.....	0. 9	1. 2	1. 0	. 5	. 9	1. 3
Secondary vocational.....	1. 9	1. 9	3. 1	1. 5	1. 7	2. 6
Higher education.....	. 9	1. 0	1. 2	0. 4	0. 4	1. 1
Total.....	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0

¹ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci* ..., op. cit., p. 12.

slavia. Elementary schools opened in all areas where minority groups lived, and lower and higher secondary schools in the larger towns. In localities where there were few children of a minority and condi-

tions did not warrant opening a separate school, special minority sections were provided in the regular schools.¹²

The medium of instruction in the schools was the language of the minority, while the language of the respective republic was taught as a separate subject. Other than these two factors, the curriculums in the minority schools were identical with those of corresponding schools throughout the country.¹³

In the 1956-57 school year, 1,749 schools for the national minorities enrolled a total of 206,231 pupils as compared with 82,258 in the 1938-39 school year, an increase of 157 percent over the prewar period. The following table shows the comparative enrollment of the different minority groups for these two periods:

Table 14.—Elementary and secondary school enrollment, by language group: 1938-39 and 1956-57¹

National minorities	Elementary		Secondary school of general education and teacher-training	
	1938-39	1956-57	1938-39	1956-57 ²
Bulgarians.....		4, 449		2, 860
Czechs and Slovaks.....	7, 480	6, 775	516	2, 984
Ukrainians.....	1, 415	1, 269		563
Hungarians.....	27, 915	31, 798	419	19, 547
Germans.....	38, 458		750	
Rumanians.....	4, 742	3, 465	161	1, 839
Italians.....	422	1, 334		1, 397
Albanians.....		96, 942		18, 475
Turkish.....		10, 675		1, 859
Total.....	80, 432	156, 707	1, 846	49, 524

¹ *Statistički Godišnjak FNRJ 1968* (Statistical Yearbook of FPRY 1968), Savezni Zavod za Statistiku (Federal Statistical Office) (Beograd, 1968), p. 265. See also "School Network in Yugoslavia," *Information Service Yugoslavia*, (Beograd, 1967), p. 4. See also *L'Instruction Publique . . .*, op. cit., p. 23.

The German national minority experienced a considerable decline in importance and numerical strength during the war. According to data for 1931, there were approximately 500,000 Germans, this being the number of inhabitants who declared German to be their mother

¹² "Yugoslavia," *World Survey of Education: Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics* (UNESCO) (Paris, 1955), p. 878.

¹³ *L'Instruction Publique dans la République Populaire Fédérative de Yougoslavie 1945-46 à 1956-57* (Education in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia 1945-46 to 1956-57), Council for Science and Culture of the Government of the FPRY (Beograd, 1952), p. 81.

tongue. In the March 1948 census their number was reduced to 55,000.¹⁴

Preschool Institutions.—The wide participation of women in industry was the primary cause for the growth of new institutions for preschool education. Children from 3 to 7 years of age were admitted to kindergartens and divided into three age groups: 3 to 5, 5 to 6, and 6 to 7 years.¹⁵

The network of these institutions was poorly developed before the war, and even in the postwar period. In 1955, there were 1,004 preschool institutions with 57,921 pupils, which included only 5.6 percent of all pre-school-age children in the country.¹⁶

Preschool institutions included kindergartens, homes for orphans and neglected children, sanatoria, recreational schools, and playgrounds. The development of these establishments required an increasing number of trained teachers. In 1948, special schools for teacher preparation were opened, offering a 4-year course. Previously, teachers had been trained at 1-year schools.¹⁷

Compulsory 8-Year Education

Attendance.—In the 1952–53 school year, 71.1 percent of the children of compulsory age, 7–14, were attending school. The percentage of attendance in the various republics is shown in table 15.

The table gives only an approximate picture since a number of children over 11 years of age were included with the students attending the first four grades. This is shown in the figure for Slovenia, for example, where the number of students in the first four grades exceeds the population figure for students between the ages of 7 and 10.

The percentage of students in the fifth and sixth grades (and the first and second grades of the gymnasium) was 61.7 and 47.6 percent, respectively. In the last two grades of the 8-year school (and in the third and fourth grades of the gymnasium) attendance was extremely low. This indicated that the upper grades of the 8-year school were underdeveloped. The table cited also demonstrates the disproportionate realization of 8-year schooling in the different republics. In Slovenia, for example, 77.9 percent completed compulsory education, while in Bosnia-Hercegovina, the figure was only 41.4 percent.¹⁸

¹⁴ Lubisa Stojkovic and Milos Martic, *National Minorities in Yugoslavia* (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1952), pp. 21–22.

¹⁵ *World Handbook of Educational Organisation* . . . , *op. cit.*, p. 445.

¹⁶ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci* . . . , *op. cit.*, p. 17.

¹⁷ "Yugoslavia," *World Survey* . . . , *loc. cit.*

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

Table 15.—Percent of school-age population attending compulsory school, by grade level and republic: 1952-53¹

Republics	7-10 yrs. in grades 1-4	11-14 yrs. in grades 5-8	7-14 yrs. in grades 1-8
Serbia.....	92.9	57.7	74.1
Croatia.....	96.4	58.3	75.6
Slovenia.....	103.4	77.8	89.6
Bosnia-Herzegovina.....	77.9	41.4	56.9
Macedonia.....	94.6	49.6	71.9
Montenegro.....	91.9	46.4	66.2
Yugoslavia:			
Population.....	1,019,300	703,000	1,722,300
Percentage.....	92.3	53.3	71.1

¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 22.*

Organizational Forms.—With the extension of compulsory education from 4 to 7 and 8 years, a series of junior and secondary vocational schools, higher schools, and universities were opened.

Compulsory education was carried out in the 8-year school and the lower grades of the gymnasium. The following organizational forms existed in the elementary school: (1) The full 8-year school as one organizational unit, or (2) the 4-year and 6-year elementary school tied to the one central 8-year school. The lower four grades of the gymnasium included children between 11 and 15 years of age. The lower gymnasium existed as an independent organizational unit, but in some republics, was tied to the higher gymnasium under the name "full gymnasium."¹⁹

Upon the completion of compulsory education, a student could enroll in one of the junior or secondary vocational schools or in the upper gymnasium. Graduates of the full gymnasium were permitted to enroll, without restriction, in any school of higher education.

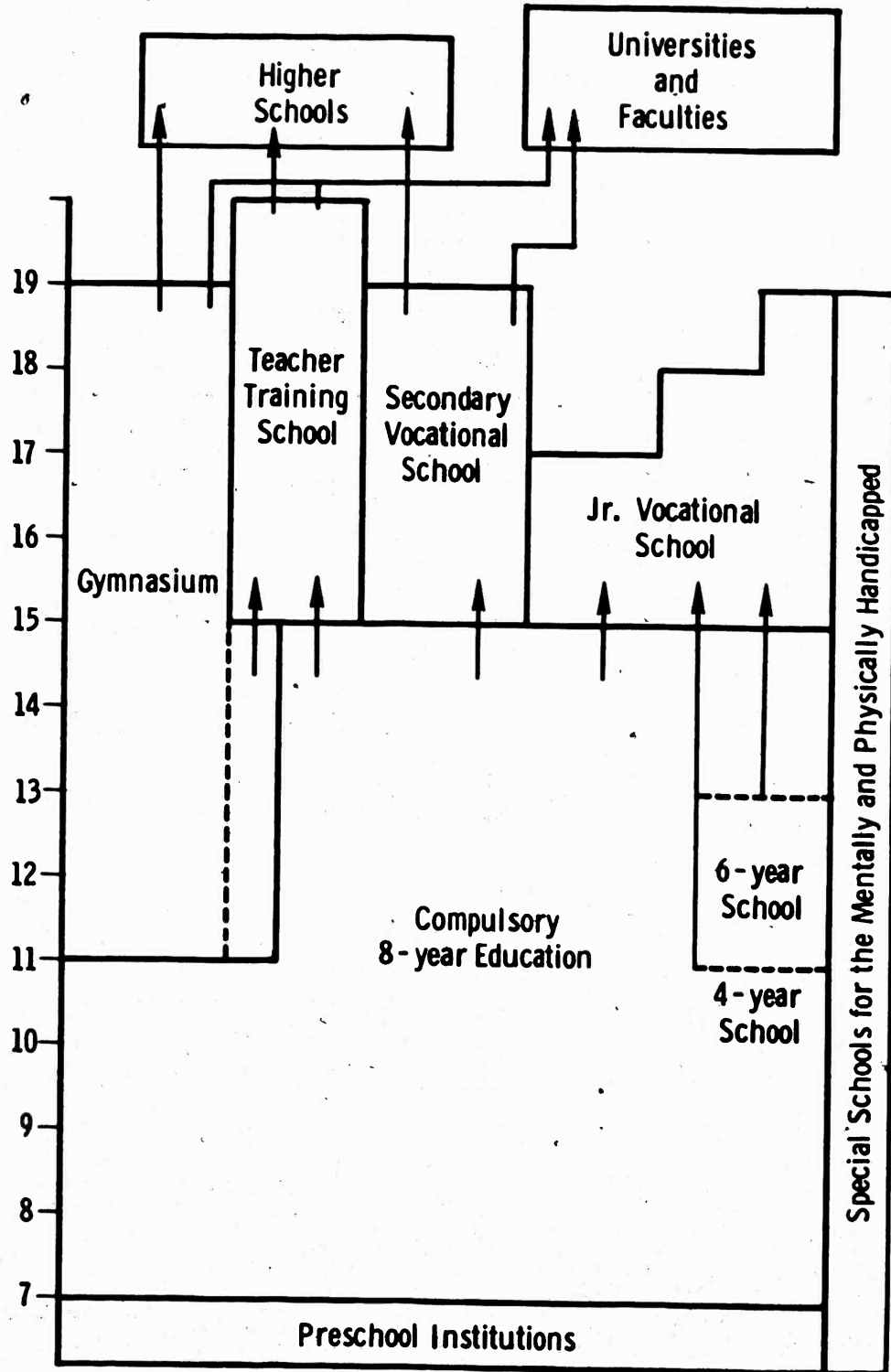
Compulsory education varied in its organization throughout the country. In all the republics, education in the first four grades was provided in 4-year elementary schools or through the lower grades of the 8-year school. In some republics, the first four grades in the 6- and 8-year schools were considered the first phase of compulsory education. The second phase was carried out in the developed 8-year school, in which the higher grades were identical with the lower grades of the gymnasium, and in the lower grades of the full gymnasium.²⁰

¹⁹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 15.*

²⁰ *L'Instruction Publique . . . , op. cit., p. 51.*

The following chart shows the organization of the postwar school system in Yugoslavia.

Chart II.—ORGANIZATION OF POSTWAR EDUCATION¹



¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 16.*

Types of Postwar Schools

The following table shows the elementary and secondary schools of the postwar period, their entrance requirements, duration of studies, and schools for continued education. Those marked with asterisk date from the prewar period:

Table 16.—Characteristics of elementary and secondary schools: prewar and postwar status ¹

Types of schools	Entrance requirements		Duration: years	Continued study after graduation
	Age	Preparation		
Elementary:				
4-grade*	6-8		4	Higher elementary, 8-year, lower gymnasium.
6-grade*	6-8		6	8-year and lower gymnasium.
8-grade*	6-8		8	Do.
2-year for adults			2	Do.
For handicapped children.*	7		4-6	Do.
Eight-year school	10-12	4 years of elementary.	4	Higher gymnasium, junior and secondary vocational schools.
Lower gymnasium*	10-12	do	4	Do.
Apprenticeship schools.*	14-18	4 to 6 grades elementary, 8-year, or lower gymnasium.	2-3	Corresponding secondary vocational school.
Lower industrial	14-18	4 grades elementary, or 8-year school.	2-3	Do.
Crafts and trades*	14-18	4-year elementary; 8-year; or lower gymnasium.	2-3	Corresponding secondary vocational schools.
Lower building schools.*	17-25	6 grades elementary or 2 lower gymnasium.	3	Do.
Lower agricultural schools:				
Agriculture*	14-18	4-year elementary; 8-year school; or lower gymnasium.	3	Do.
Forestry	14-22	4-year elementary	2	Do.

¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . .*, op. cit., pp. 17-20.

Table 16.—Characteristics of elementary and secondary schools: prewar and postwar status—Continued

Types of schools	Entrance requirements		Duration: years	Continued study after graduation
	Age	Preparation		
Lower schools of transport.*	16-22	8-year or lower gymnasium.	2	Do.
Lower economic schools:				
Commercial.....	16-18	do.....	3	Do.
Catering.....	14-18	do.....	3	Do.
Administrative.....	14-18	do.....	2	Do.
Lower medical schools:				
Nursing.....	15-25	do.....	2	Do.
Disinfection.....	15-25	do.....	2	Do.
Governess.....	16-20	do.....	2	Do.
Midwifery*	18-25	do.....	2	Do.
Lower schools of arts:				
Applied art* (lace-making in Slovenia).	(?)	(?).....		
Music*.....	8-12	1-year elementary.....	6	Secondary music.
Ballet*.....	10-14	4-year elementary.....	4	Secondary ballet.
Higher gymnasium, classical and regular.	15-17	8-year and lower gymnasium.	4	All higher schools.
Teacher-training schools.*	15-17	do.....	5	Corresponding higher school or pedagogical school.
Schools for domestic science teachers.*	15-17	do.....	5	Do.
Schools for vocational teachers.*	15-17	do.....	5	Do.
Schools for educators.	15-17	do.....	4	Do.
Schools for physical education teachers.	15-18	do.....	4	Do.
Secondary technical schools:				
Technical schools (with more than 1 department).	14-18	8-year, lower gymnasium, or corresponding lower vocational school.	4	Corresponding higher school.
Textile.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Machinery.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.

* Not determined.

Table 16.—Characteristics of elementary and secondary schools: pre-war and postwar status—Continued

Types of schools	Entrance requirements		Duration: years	Continued study after graduation
	Age	Preparation		
Secondary technical schools:—Con.				
Wood manufacture.	14-18	8-year, lower gymnasium, or corresponding lower vocational school.	4	Corresponding higher school.
Leather.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Shipbuilding.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Electrotechnical.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Secondary mining schools:				
Mining.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Geology.....	14-18	8-year or lower gymnasium.	4	Do.
Secondary agricultural schools:				
Agriculture.....	14-18	8-year, lower gymnasium or corresponding lower vocational school.	4	Corresponding higher school.
Forestry.....	14-18	8-year, lower gymnasium.	4	Do.
Veterinary.....	14-17	do.....	4	Do.
Agricultural machinery.	14-18	8-year, lower gymnasium or corresponding lower vocational school.	4	Do.
Hydrometeorology	15-18	8-year, or lower gymnasium.	4	Do.
Secondary schools of transport:				
Road transportation.	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Shipping*.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Naval college*.....	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Secondary economic schools:				
Economic*.....	14-18	8-year, lower gymnasium or junior vocational school.	4	Do.
Tourist-catering schools.	14-18	do.....	4	Do.
Library training.	14-18	8-year, lower gymnasium.	4	Do.

Table 16.—Characteristics of elementary and secondary schools: prewar and postwar status—Continued

Types of schools	Entrance requirements		Duration: years	Continued study after graduation
	Age	Preparation		
Secondary medical schools:				
Schools with more than one department.	17-24	6 grades of gymnasium.	3	Corresponding higher school.
Medical assistants schools.	14-24	4 or 6 years of gymnasium.	3-4	Do.
Schools for medical technicians.	14-18	8-year or lower gymnasium	4	Corresponding higher school.
Sanitary technicians.	14-20	4 or 6 years of gymnasium.	3-4	Do.
Pharmaceutical assistants.	14-18	8-year or lower gymnasium.	4	Do.
Dental technicians and dental schools.	14-18	4 or 6 grades of gymnasium.	3-4	Do.
Midwifery*	18-25	6 grades of gymnasium or corresponding lower vocational school.	3	Do.
Secondary schools of art:				
Applied art	14-18	8-year or lower gymnasium.	5	Do.
Schools of theatrical arts.	16-18	do	4	Do.
Schools of music.*	14-18	8-year or lower gymnasium or lower school of music.	4	Do.
Schools of ballet.*	10-18	Elementary or 8-year, lower gymnasium, or lower school of ballet.	8	Do.

In those areas where no 8-year schools existed, higher primary schools with at least two grades, the fifth and sixth, were opened. These schools were of a provisional type in which the curricula varied from school to school and differed also from that of the lower secondary schools. Pupils from these schools who wished to continue in the lower grades of the secondary school or in the upper grades of an 8-year school had to pass a special entrance examination.²¹

The following table gives the enrollment figures for the first four grades in elementary schools:

Table 17.—Students aged 7–10 years in grades 1–4 of compulsory schools, by type of school: 1955–56¹

Types	Schools	Students
Elementary:		
4-year.....	8,966	763,030
6-year.....	2,079	148,457
8-year.....	1,234	104,107
Developed 8-year school.....	1,875	427,633
Total.....	14,154	1,443,227

¹ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci . . .*, op. cit., p. 23.

Enrollment in grades 5 through 8 is shown in the following data:

Table 18.—Students aged 11–14 years in grades 5–8 of compulsory schools, by type of school: 1955–56¹

Types	Schools	Students
6-year elementary.....	2,079	52,374
8-year elementary.....	1,234	52,697
Developed 8-year school.....	1,887	370,685
Independent lower gymnasium.....	203	54,136
Lower grades of full gymnasium.....	169	63,247
Total.....	5,572	593,139

¹ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci . . .*, op. cit., p. 23.

²¹ "Yugoslavia," *World Survey . . .*, loc. cit.

A great number of dropouts occurred in the upper grades of compulsory education. In the 1951-52 school year 143,786 students enrolled in the fifth grade, or the first year of the gymnasium; in the 1954-55 school year, 74,044, or 51.5 percent, graduated. In 1952-53 the enrollment in the fifth grade was 153,425; in 1955-56 there were 79,354 graduates, or 51.7 percent of the first year enrollment.²²

The following table gives the number and types of compulsory education schools in the different republics:

Table 19.—Number of compulsory schools, by type of school and republic: 1955-56¹

Republics	Elementary			Devel- oped 8-year	Lower gymna- sium
	4-year	6-year	8-year		
Serbia.....	3, 335	335	-----	1, 191	45
Croatia.....	1, 144	1, 571	530	315	42
Slovenia.....	483	-----	704	7	202
Bosnia-Hercegovina.....	2, 070	166	-----	123	59
Macedonia.....	1, 360	-----	-----	171	19
Montenegro.....	574	7	-----	80	5

¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci* . . . , op. cit., p. 24.

Of the 14,538 schools in which compulsory education was realized, 61.7 percent were 4-year elementary; 14.3 percent, 6-year; and 24 percent provided 8-year schooling (including the 8-year schools, lower gymnasium, and lower grades of the full gymnasium).

In Serbia, Bosnia-Hercegovina, Macedonia, and Montenegro, the only type of 8-year schools were those in which the upper grades were identical in program with the lower gymnasium. Only 7 such schools existed in Slovenia, while there were 202 lower gymnasium schools. The greatest number of 6-year schools were in Croatia, where they served as transition between the 4- and 9-year elementary schools.²³

²² *Stanje i Razvoj Obaveznog Skolovanja* (Status and Development of Compulsory Education), *Savetni Zavod za Proučavanje Školskih i Prosvetnih Pitanja* (Federal Institute for Educational Research) (Beograd, 1957), p. 10.

²³ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci* op. cit. p. 24.

The following data shows the development of compulsory education from 1951-52 to 1955-56 in number of schools, classes, students, and teachers:

Table 20.—Numbers of schools, classes, students, and teachers, by type of school: 1951-52 and 1955-56¹

Type of School	1951-52	1955-56
Elementary and higher elementary:		
Schools.....	12, 581	12, 279
Classes.....	36, 491	47, 660
Students.....	1, 427, 267	1, 583, 302
Teachers.....	29, 892	41, 174
Eight-year school:		
Schools.....	1, 187	1, 887
Classes.....	5, 563	11, 876
Students.....	205, 775	370, 685
Teachers.....	7, 248	17, 967
Lower gymnasium:		
Schools.....	466	203
Classes.....	2, 542
Students.....	91, 807	54, 136
Teachers.....	2, 902
Lower grades of full gymnasium:		
Schools.....	181	169
Classes.....
Students.....	94, 744	63, 247
Teachers.....

¹ *Osnovni Statisticki Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 25.*

The above statistics show a constant increase in the number of classes, students, and teachers in the elementary schools. The number of students per class decreased in the elementary school from 39.7 to 33.

At the same time, the ratio in the 8-year school dropped from 37.2 to 31.7 per class, as a result of the opening of additional classrooms and the hiring of more teachers. In small schools two or more grades were combined into one class. In the 1952-53 school year, 45 percent of all classes were of the combination type and included 46 percent of all students.

According to 1953-54 data, 90 percent of the students who completed the 8-year school or lower gymnasium continued their education. The percentage of enrollment in vocational schools or the gymnasium varied with each republic. Slovenia had the largest, 63.4 percent of the graduates entering vocational schools, and Croatia, 52.6 percent. Enrollments in the gymnasium were larger in Serbia and Macedonia than in other republics. However, even in these two areas the number enrolling in vocational schools in 1956-57 had increased.²⁴

Because of inadequate facilities, vocational schools turned away many students. In 1956 only 45.3 percent of applicants were accepted in the industrial school; 55.4 percent in the technical; 28.5 percent in the medical; and 49.5 percent in the teacher-training school.²⁵

In the 1957-58 school year 2,315,909 students were enrolled in 14,257 schools of compulsory education. In Slovenia, 98.5 percent of the compulsory school-age children attended these schools; in Croatia, 97.4 percent. The average rate of attendance for Yugoslavia as a whole was 82 percent as compared with 69.5 percent in 1953.²⁶

In summary, there was a general trend in compulsory education toward making the 8-year school the single type of compulsory school.²⁷ Of the students who graduated from the 8-year school, a greater number enrolled each year in the vocational schools, but because of inadequate facilities, many were turned away. A large number of older students remained in the lower grades (1-4) of the elementary school and did not finish full compulsory education, while dropouts were high in the upper grades of the 8-year school. In the development of further compulsory education, towns and larger centers were faced with the problem of providing adequate school space and other needed facilities.²⁸

Curricula.—The following two tables contain the curricula for the 4-year elementary school and the upper grades of the 8-year school (or lower gymnasium) which were established August 5, 1952, in the Republic of Serbia:

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 28.

²⁵ *Loc. cit.*, p. 28.

²⁶ *Changes in the Programme of Education During the 1958-59 Academic Year*, Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council of FPRY (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1959), pp. 13-14.

²⁷ "Yugoslavia," *World Survey* . . . , *loc. cit.*

²⁸ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci* , *op. cit.*, p. 25.

Table 21.—Curriculum hours in 4-year elementary schools by subject and grade: Serbia, 1952¹
[Hours per week]

Subjects	Grades			
	1	2	3	4
Serbo-Croatian.....	9	10	7	6
History.....			2	2
Geography.....			2	3
Biology.....			2	3
Mathematics.....	6	6	6	5
Handwork.....			1	1
Art.....	1	1	1	1
Writing.....		1	1	1
Vocal music.....	1	1	1	1
Physical education.....	1	1	1	1
Total hours.....	18	20	24	24

¹ Material obtained in the offices of the Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council, Belgrade, Yugoslavia, in June 1958.

In grades 3 and 4 of the minority schools, the mother tongue of the minority was studied 6 hours, and Serbo-Croatian 3 hours per week.

Table 22.—Curriculum hours in grades 5–8 (lower gymnasium), by subject and grade: Serbia, 1952 (see also table 28 below)¹
[Hours per week]

Subjects	Grades			
	5	6	7	8
Serbo-Croatian.....	5	4	4	4
Foreign language.....	3	3	3	3
History.....		3	3	3
Geography.....	3	2	2	2
Biology.....	3	3	2	
Hygiene.....				2
Physics.....			3	3
Chemistry.....				3
Mathematics.....	5	4	4	4
Economics and domestic science.....			2	2
Handwork.....	2	2		
Writing.....	1	1		
Art.....	2	2	2	2
Vocal music.....	1	2		
Physical education.....	2	2	2	2
Total hours.....	27	28	27	30

¹ See footnote 1, table 21.

Secondary Schools.—In the decade following World War II, secondary education was obtained in the gymnasium, junior and secondary vocational schools, teacher-training institutions, and schools of art. Special schools, not discussed in this study, included those for religious and adult education, and institutions for the physically and mentally handicapped children. The table below shows the development of various secondary schools from 1947-48 to 1955-56:

Table 23.—Population aged 15-18 years and enrollment in secondary schools, by type of school: 1947-48 to 1955-56

Year	Population 15-18 yrs.	Total enrollment	Per cent	Higher gymnasium	Junior vocational	Secondary vocational	Teacher training	Arts schools
1947-48.....	1,374	187	13.6	48	90	32	14	3
1950-51.....	1,406	296	21.1	76	121	66	28	5
1951-52.....	1,427	244	18.2	60	111	45	25	3
1952-53.....	1,391	242	18.2	71	102	43	23	3
1953-54.....	1,361	241	18.4	77	104	36	21	3
1954-55.....	1,347	257	19.6	87	111	35	21	3
1955-56.....	1,342	273	20.3	88	120	42	20	3

Approximately 20 percent of the youth between the ages of 15 and 18 attended schools of secondary education in the 1955-56 school year. The following table gives a comparison of the enrollment in schools of vocational and general education:

Table 24.—Percentage of students enrolled in vocational and general education: 1938-56¹

Year	Total in vocational and general education	Percent		Percent in upper gymnasium
		In junior vocational schools	In secondary vocational schools	
1938-39.....	100	60.2	9.2	30.6
1950-51.....	100	53.0	29.0	18.0
1955-56.....	100	47.9	14.7	37.2

¹ *Stanje i Razvoj Strucnih Skola (Status and Development of Vocational Schools), Savetni Zavod za Proucavanje Skolskih i Prosvednih Pitanja (Federal Institute for Educational Research) (Beograd, 1967), p. 19.*

Gymnasium.—The gymnasium, or secondary school of general education, had several organizational forms—the lower, full, higher, and a few classical gymnasia.²⁹ In 1945, the prewar civic schools were incorporated into the lower gymnasium and into the upper grades of the 8-year school.³⁰

The gymnasium of the postwar period remained essentially the same as it had been earlier, with a few minor changes. It continued as the most popular school and steadily grew both in number and in students. The total enrollment, however, was small as compared with the vocational schools. The gymnasium accounted for only 6.6 percent of the children between the ages of 15 and 18 while the vocational school enrolled 13 percent of the total youth of the same age.³¹

In considering the development of the gymnasium, difficulties arise from the nomenclature by which statistical facts have accumulated, and from the organizational form to which they apply. For example, the lower gymnasium, which in statistical data is included with other gymnasia, is reported in some republics as an independent organizational unit. Since the lower gymnasium, for children aged 11–14, was described along with the schools of compulsory education, it will not be included in the following data.

The “full gymnasium” includes grades 1–8 (or 5–12) and based on 4 years of elementary schooling for pupils from 11 to 18 years of age. In recent years a trend has developed whereby the upper gymnasium has split away from the lower grades, and often two or three higher gymnasia have merged into one organizational unit.³²

The growth and development of the higher gymnasium is given in the data below:

Table 25.—Enrollment in higher gymnasium: 1945–56¹

Year	Schools	Students
1945–46	193	25,859 ²
1946–47	193	30,754
1947–48	194	29,149
1948–49	201	35,703
1949–50	207	37,204
1950–51	232	44,257
1954–55	278	86,818
1955–56	271	88,311

¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci* . . . , op. cit., p. 31.

² *Problemi Gimnazijske i Sistemske Srednjoškolske Skole* (Problems of the Gymnasium in the Secondary School System), Savezni Zavod za Proučavanje Školskih i Prosvetnih Pitanja (Federal Institute for Educational Research) (Beograd, 1955), p. 7.

³ *Stanje i Razvoj Obavezne Škole*, op. cit., p. 8.

⁴ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci* . . . , op. cit., p. 30.

⁵ *Ibid.*

There was a steady growth in the number of schools, while the number of students increased 241.5 percent from 1945-46 to 1955-56. The development of the gymnasium in the various republics during the same 10-year period is shown in the following table:

Table 26.—Gymnasium enrollment, by republic: 1945-46 and 1955-56¹

Republic	1945-46	1955-56		
	Full gymnasium	Total	Higher	Full gymnasium
Serbia:				
Schools.....	87	102	63	39
Students.....	11, 806	44, 731	32, 420	12, 311
Croatia:				
Schools.....	51	63	21	42
Students.....	6, 492	18, 579	6, 777	11, 802
Slovenia:				
Schools.....	24	37	37
Students.....	2, 032	6, 153	6, 153
Bosnia-Herzegovina:				
Schools.....	9	40	6	34
Students.....	1, 380	7, 886	1, 687	6, 199
Macedonia:				
Schools.....	10	18	6	12
Students.....	2, 290	6, 249	3, 206	3, 043
Montenegro:				
Schools.....	6	11	6	15
Students.....	1, 859	4, 713	3, 913	800
Yugoslavia:				
Schools.....	193	271	102	169
Students.....	25, 859	88, 311	48, 003	40, 308

¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . .*, op cit., p. 31.

Dropout rates were high in the upper grades of the gymnasium. Figures given for one republic show that out of 4,115 students who enrolled in the fifth grade during the 1951-52 school year, only 2,112 or 51.5 percent graduated in 1954-55, a dropout of 48.5 percent. This was higher than the rate reported for compulsory schools in the same republic, where 40 percent dropped out before graduation.²² How-

²² *Ibid.*, p. 32.

ever, almost all those who graduated from the gymnasium continued in schools of higher learning. In the 1953-54 school year, 92 percent of the students continued their education, 86 percent enrolling in the university.³⁴

Curricula in the Gymnasium.—Subjects remained much the same in the republics, but were offered in different grades and often modified in content. Religion, a required subject in the prewar period, was no longer taught. The following table contains the curriculum and hours for the upper gymnasium in Bosnia-Herzegovina for 1954:

Table 27.—Curriculum hours in the gymnasium, by subject and grade: Bosnia-Herzegovina, 1954¹

[Hours per week]

Subjects	Grades			
	V	VI	VII	VIII
Serbo-Croatian.....	4	4	4	4
First foreign language.....	3	3	2	3
Second foreign language.....	3	2	2	2
Latin.....	2	2	2	2
History.....	3	3	3	3
Geography.....	3	2	2	2
Biology.....	2	2	2	2
Mathematics.....	4	3	3	4
Physics.....		2	2	3
Chemistry.....		3	2	2
Philosophy.....			2	2
Art.....	2			
Physical education.....	2	2	2	2
Military training.....		2	2	2
Seminar.....				1
Total hours per week.....	28	30	30	30

¹ *Statje i Razvoj Gimnazije, op. cit., p. 22.*

The following table gives the curriculum for 1955 in the republic of Serbia:

³⁴ *Ibid.*

Table 28.—Curriculum hours in the gymnasium, by subject and grade:
Serbia, 1955¹

[Hours per week]

Subjects	Grades			
	V	VI	VII	VIII
Serbo-Croatian language and literature.....	4	4	3	4
First foreign language.....	3	3	2	2
Second foreign language.....	3	3	2	2
Latin.....			2	2
History, fundamentals of political, social, economics, and governmental adminis- tration.....	3	3	3	3
Geography.....	3	3	2	
Biology with hygiene.....	3	3	1	
Hygiene.....	1	1		
Mathematics.....	4	4	3	4
Physics.....			3	4
Chemistry.....			3	3
Philosophy.....			2	2
Fundamentals of art and drawing.....	2	1		
Physical education.....	2	2	2	2
Military training.....		2	2	2
Total hours.....	28	29	30	30

¹ *Statje i Razvoj Gimnazije, op. cit., p. 22.*

Junior Vocational Schools.—The largest number of secondary school students attended junior vocational schools,²⁵ in which practical-theoretical training and general education were provided. These schools prepared skilled workers for industry and trade offered courses in industrial arts, crafts and trades, building, agriculture, transportation, economics, and medicine.²⁶ Students who reached the age of 14, and who had completed at least 4 years of elementary school training, were admitted to the junior vocational schools. Some vocations required more preparatory training. The duration of studies generally lasted from 2 to 3 years, and, for certain trades, 4 years. These schools were usually attached to large enterprises in various branches of the economy.²⁷

²⁵ See table 24 of this chapter.

²⁶ *Problemi Gimnazije u Sistemu Srednjih Skola, op. cit., pp. 8-9.*

²⁷ *L'Instruction Publique . . . op. cit., p. 64.*

The development of the junior vocational schools is shown in the table below:

Table 29.—Students and teachers in junior vocational schools: 1938-39 and 1950-57¹

Year	Schools	Students	Teachers
1938-39.....	770	69, 872	6, 197
1950-51.....	1, 129	120, 648	12, 235
1951-52.....	926	111, 318	9, 420
1952-53.....	871	101, 632	7, 933
1953-54.....	892	103, 994	8, 352
1954-55.....	892	111, 654	9, 387
1955-56.....	931	120, 535	10, 101
1956-57.....	892	121, 600	10, 185

¹ Statistički Godišnjak . . . , op. cit., p. 249.

Junior vocational schools were divided into apprenticeship and practical training schools. In the former, pupils acquired practical knowledge while working in industrial concerns or enterprises, and theoretical instruction in school; in the latter group, practical knowledge was gained in school workshops especially organized for this purpose.²² Apprenticeship schools continually have enrolled the largest number of students.

A comparative development of the two types of junior vocational schools is presented in the following table:

Table 30.—Total students and men students in apprenticeship and practical training schools: 1938-39 and 1950-57¹

Year	Apprenticeship			Practical training		
	Schools	Students	Men	Schools	Students	Men
1938-39.....	410	48, 658	43, 414	360	21, 214	-----
1950-51.....	867	87, 785	72, 586	262	32, 863	27, 855
1951-52.....	678	79, 358	67, 241	248	31, 960	27, 874
1952-53.....	627	70, 317	59, 841	244	31, 315	24, 382
1953-54.....	620	72, 200	62, 062	272	31, 794	21, 532
1954-55.....	614	79, 362	67, 644	278	32, 291	20, 386
1955-56.....	640	83, 328	75, 258	291	32, 207	20, 423
1956-57.....	597	87, 100	73, 686	295	34, 500	24, 785

¹ Statistički Godišnjak . . . , loc. cit.

²² Bosidar Klcovic, *Schools and Education in Yugoslavia* (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1955), p. 29.

With the development of 6- and 8-year schools in the postwar period, an increasing number of students with more than a 4-year elementary education entered the apprenticeship schools. In the 1955-56 school year, 58 percent had 4 or more years of compulsory education. In Slovenia, the figure reached 82.2 percent, while in Bosnia-Herzegovina, it was only 37 percent.³⁹ Continued progress has been made in content material and improvement of working conditions in the apprenticeship schools.⁴⁰

In general, the junior vocational practical training schools admitted students who had completed the 8-year compulsory school. In 1945-55, 74.2 percent of the students in the practical training schools had completed the 8-year school. In the various republics the percentages were as follows: Serbia, 72.2; Croatia, 80; Slovenia, 69; Bosnia-Herzegovina, 79.9; Macedonia, 71.7; and Montenegro, 100 percent.⁴¹

The following table shows the types of practical training schools and their enrollments for the 1956-57 school year:

Table 31.—Total students and men students in practical and training schools, by type of school: 1956-57¹

Schools	Number	Students	Men
Industrial.....	120	22, 024	20, 889
Crafts and trades.....	85	5, 711	340
Building.....	4	410	410
Transport.....	2	152	152
Economic.....	26	3, 001	1, 700
Medical.....	32	1, 839	71
Agriculture.....	26	1, 363	1, 223
Total.....	294	34, 500	24, 785

¹ *Statistički Godišnjak . . . , loc. cit.*

The industrial schools, which had not existed in the prewar period, enrolled the greatest number of students. More than 90 percent of the enrollment in the crafts and trade schools and in the medical schools were women. The former schools offered general and practical training, while the latter trained students as midwives, nurses, and governesses.⁴² Agricultural schools decreased following the 1950-51

³⁹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., pp. 34-35.*

⁴⁰ "Yugoslavia," *World Survey . . . , op. cit., p. 879.*

⁴¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit., p. 36.*

⁴² *Ibid.*

school year, while enrollment in the economic schools grew steadily. These schools offered commercial studies, administrative, and catering training.⁴³

Secondary Vocational Schools.—The major task of these schools was to train technical personnel for the nation's economy. Along with general education, they provided theoretical instruction, and practical training in special workshops or laboratories.

The secondary vocational schools were divided into (1) regular vocational schools; and (2) schools for highly skilled workers (sometimes referred to as "technikums"). The regular schools admitted students who had completed compulsory 8-year education, and for some fields of study, higher school qualifications were required. Courses generally lasted 4 years.⁴⁴

The development of secondary vocational schools from 1938-39 to 1957-58 is shown in the following table:

Table 32.—Total students, men students, and teachers in secondary vocational schools: 1938-39 and 1946-58¹

Year	Schools	Students	Men	Teachers
1938-39	53	10,689	6,499	879
1946-47	119	19,734		
1947-48	188	32,231		
1948-49	230	55,003		
1949-50	241	63,100		
1950-51	245	66,067	40,977	5,361
1951-52	217	44,982	27,807	4,403
1952-53	201	43,046	27,282	4,285
1953-54	182	35,831	22,437	2,650
1954-55	170	34,743	21,194	3,489
1955-56	190	41,942	25,108	4,014
1956-57	211	52,806	31,008	4,661
1957-58	228	64,887	38,106	5,440

¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . .*, op. cit., p. 28. See also *Statistički Godišnjak . . .*, op. cit., pp. 260-61, and *Changes in the Programme of Education . . . 1953-59*, op. cit., p. 12.

The greatest relative increase in the number of secondary vocational schools was in Bosnia-Hercegovina. In 1939, there were four such schools in the republic with 915 students; in 1955-56, 24 schools enrolled 5,837 students.⁴⁵

⁴³ *Stanje i Razvoj Stručnih Škola*, op. cit., p. 14.

⁴⁴ Kicovic, op. cit., p. 31. See also "Yugoslavia," *World Handbook . . .*, loc. cit.

⁴⁵ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . .*, loc. cit.

Enrollment figures for the major types of secondary vocational schools in 1956-57 were as follows:

Table 33.—Total students, men students, and teachers in secondary vocational schools, by type of school: 1956-57¹

	Schools	Students	Men	Teachers
Technical.....	36	14,500	12,494	1,396
Building.....	10	3,309	2,672	311
Economic.....	83	22,448	7,746	1,430
Agricultural.....	35	5,854	4,948	447
Medical.....	37	4,780	1,303	869
Transport.....	7	1,456	1,430	159
Mining.....	3	459	415	49
Total.....	211	52,806	31,008	4,661

¹ *Statisticki Godisnjak* . . . , op. cit., pp. 260-261.

Apart from the types listed above, special vocational schools were: electrotechnical, geodetic, textiles, industrial, chemistry, machine, wood manufacture, leather, shipbuilding, livestock, dental, and others.⁴⁶

A new type of vocational school for highly skilled workers was founded in the 1947-48 school year, to enable skilled workers to acquire higher training and general education. Instruction was primarily theoretical and lasted 4 years. Workers attending these schools kept their regular jobs, but had shorter working hours. Upon completion of the regular vocational school or the school for highly skilled workers, students were given the right to continue their studies at corresponding schools of higher learning.⁴⁷

Teacher-Training Schools.—Graduates of the teacher-training schools were qualified to teach the first four grades of compulsory school. A significant number taught in the upper grades of the 8-year school where there was a lack of trained personnel.

In general, there has been a greater increase in the number of students than in the number of teacher-training schools. The table following shows the development of the schools, 1938-39 and 1949-56:

⁴⁶ Kicovic, *loc. cit.*

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*

**Table 34.—Students and teachers in teacher-training schools:
1938-39 and 1949-56¹**

Year	Schools	Students	Teachers
1938-39.....	34	3, 898	503
1949-50.....	62	20, 944	833
1950-51.....	63	26, 088	1, 076
1951-52.....	65	23, 269	1, 192
1952-53.....	63	21, 162	1, 324
1954-55.....	60	18, 604	1, 221
1955-56.....	62	18, 870	1, 241

¹ *Osnovni i Srednje Škole 1945-56* (Elementary and Secondary Schools 1945-56), Savezni Zavod za Statistiku (Federal Statistical Office, No. 118) (Beograd, 1958), p. 8. See also *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit.*, p. 40.

The number of students who attended teacher-training schools in the various republics for the 1954-55 school year is shown by the following data:

**Table 35.—Enrollment in teacher-training schools, by republic:
1954-55¹**

Republic	Students
Serbia.....	8, 079
Croatia.....	4, 923
Slovenia.....	1, 401
Bosnia-Hercegovina.....	3, 629
Macedonia.....	1, 245
Montenegro.....	327
Total	18, 604

¹ *Osnovni Statistički Podaci . . . , op. cit.*, p. 41.

The duration of studies in the teacher-training schools has changed several times since the end of World War II. In the 1944-45 school year, 5 years of training were required for graduation, later reduced to 4 years. Preparatory requirements for entrance to the teacher-training schools also underwent a series of changes. Until the passage of the 8-year compulsory school law, only 3 years of the gymnasium had been required. To accelerate teacher preparation and reduce the teacher shortage in Bosnia-Hercegovina, the teacher-training course was reduced to 3 years from 1947-48 to 1950-51, and preparatory

requirements varied from 7 to 8 years. In 1950-51, the studies were extended to 5 years in a majority of the republics, and by 1958-59, all republics maintained a 5-year teacher-training program.⁴⁸

Schools of the Arts.—Arts schools were a special type of vocational school which existed on both the elementary and the secondary level. The elementary group included schools of music and ballet. To enter the music school, students were required to complete 1 year of elementary school and to pass an entrance examination. The ballet schools admitted students 11 years of age. The lower music schools offered 6-year and the ballet schools, 3-year courses.⁴⁹

The secondary arts schools offered studies in music, ballet, applied arts, and theater arts. The aim of the secondary music school was to train musicians for orchestras, teachers of music, organizers for musical work in large organizations, and to prepare students for music academies. For admission to the secondary music schools, students were required to complete the lower music school, or to take a 2-year preparatory course in the secondary school after passing an entrance examination. Courses lasted 4 years and included theory of music, teacher training, solo singing, piano, violin, wind instruments, violincello, contrabass, and harp.⁵⁰

In the secondary ballet schools, as in the lower, pupils were admitted at the age of 11. Courses lasted 6 years and in some schools, 8 and 9 years. In addition, all pupils were required to attend secondary schools of general education.⁵¹

Schools of theater arts admitted pupils who were 17, had graduated from the secondary school, and had passed the entrance examination. These schools trained talented pupils who did not have sufficient qualifications for admission to the academies, and offered a 4-year course in acting and a 2-year course training theater technicians.⁵²

The secondary school of applied arts was open to graduates of the 8-year primary school, lower gymnasium, and lower vocational school. This school offered training in handicrafts, painting and sculpture, and to prepare art teachers. Studies lasted 5 years, the first year consisting of a general course followed by 4 years' study in specific branches of art.

⁴⁸ *Razvoj i Stanje Skola za Obrazovanje Nastavnog Kadra* (Development and Status of Teacher-Training Schools), Savesni Zavod za Proucavanje Skolskih i Prosvetnih Pitanja (Federal Institute for Educational Research) (Beograd, 1957), pp. 20-21.

⁴⁹ Stavro Skendi, "Education," in Robert F. Byrnes, ed., *Yugoslavia* (New York: Praeger, 1957), p. 177.

⁵⁰ *L'Instruction Publique . . .*, *op. cit.*, p. 115.

⁵¹ *Ibid.*

⁵² *Ibid.*

The following table shows the development of schools of the arts from 1938-39 to 1956-57:

Table 36.—Total students, men students, and teachers in schools of the arts, 1938-39 and 1950-57¹

Year	Schools	Students	Men	Teachers
1938-39.....	21	3, 173	1, 333	277
1950-51.....	142	18, 506	7, 936	1, 789
1951-52.....	150	15, 414	6, 173	1, 789
1952-53.....	151	16, 249	6, 686	1, 848
1953-54.....	159	17, 007	7, 237	1, 954
1954-55.....	172	18, 888	8, 194	2, 147
1955-56.....	179	20, 693	9, 002	2, 219
1956-57.....	173	20, 456	8, 560	2, 168

¹ *Statistički Godisnjak . . . , op. cit., p. 262.*

Of the 173 arts schools which existed in the 1956-57 school year, 138 were elementary, with an enrollment of 16,732 students; while 35 secondary schools had an enrollment of 3,754 students.

The foregoing data on secondary schools in the postwar period indicate a number of significant developments: An increase in the number of vocational schools and students and many new types of schools; a gradual separation between the lower and higher grades of the gymnasium; the right to enroll in schools of higher learning granted to students of secondary vocational schools; the need recognized for more facilities to accommodate all children; a desire for all students to complete compulsory education; and greater concern reflected for improving teacher education.

SCHOOL REFORM MOVEMENT

DESPITE THE DEVELOPMENTS and improvements in education during the first postwar decade, Yugoslav educators believed that a reform of the entire school system would be necessary to keep pace with the rapid changes in the structure of the economy and the sociopolitical life.

Limitations of Pre-Reform Measures

The improvements introduced had not eliminated the basic weaknesses of the old school system. The 8-year school remained an inorganic link between the old 4-year elementary school and the first four grades of the 8-year secondary school (gymnasium). The latter, as part of the secondary school system, prepared students for further education at universities and other institutions of higher learning. This feature of the system had been retained when it passed into the framework of the uniform compulsory 8-year school of general education.¹

This shortcoming was felt particularly among students who went on to vocational-professional training. They were not helped by the 8-year school to acquire adequate preparation, notwithstanding all the changes, since it offered almost exclusive verbal knowledge.

Although the need for vocational training steadily increased, it remained at the periphery of interest of educational authorities. The new economy, on a higher technical level than before the war, required skilled manpower with broad technical and cultural backgrounds. The vocational schools, steeped in the traditions of the prewar "school for apprentices" which was based upon 4 years of elementary schooling, failed to provide such training for their pupils. Thus, many students with ability in the vocational field chose, instead, a secondary school path, even though the needs of the community for skilled workers increased tenfold.²

¹ G. Ernjakovic and Lj. Krneta, *The Yugoslav Educational System* (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1959), p. 12.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 12-13.

For this reason, the vocational schools did not become a source of supply for the highly skilled, the new "technical intelligentsia", which continued to be recruited from the secondary schools of general education. A deep gap therefore remained between physical and intellectual work. Demands were made for the organization of the school system in such a way that it would offer further advancement to all students, with skilled and highly skilled training available to them.³

The secondary schools, also, had not been adapted to contemporary developments in society and science. Despite the changes in curriculums, the knowledge acquired in the secondary schools retained an encyclopedic character and strengthened the tendency toward a primarily intellectualized education. When innovations had been introduced in the program, the uniformity of curriculums had been left unchanged. Insufficient attention had also been paid to the varying interests and capabilities of the students.⁴

The method of educating teachers also suffered from weakness. Training was primarily theoretical in nature, with little practical and technical knowledge imparted.

Although considerable investments had been made in the construction of school buildings, there was need to open additional schools and to utilize more fully the existing school space. In some areas of the country, students attended school in two, three, and even four sessions which minimized the time available to them in school, and affected hygienic conditions and the development of various forms of school work.⁵ All these factors indicated the need for comprehensive reform in the system of education.

School Reform Commission

The School Reform Commission was established by the Third People's Assembly on December 16, 1954, and functioned as the Commission of the Committee for Education of the Federal Executive Council.⁶ The commission was composed of 18 members who included prominent persons in the field of education and in other professions, as well as members of parliament.⁷ Its work was conducted under the

³ *Loc. cit.*, p. 13.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 13-14.

⁵ "The Reasons and Trends of School Reform," *Press-Service* (Belgrade) 3 (Jan. 11, 1959), 2.

⁶ Colakovic, Rodoljub, "Usvojen je Opsti Zakon o Skolstvu" (The Adoption of the General Law on Schools). *Prosvetni Pregled* (Educational Review), June 27, 1958, p. 1.

⁷ Yugoslavia, "International Yearbook of Education (UNESCO), XIX (Paris, 1957), pp. 454-455.

chairmanship of Dr. Milos Zanko.⁸ The task of the commission was to study the school system in relation to the social, material, technical, and cultural changes which had taken place in Yugoslavia in the post-war period, and to propose to the Assembly a new system of education.⁹

In the first phase of its work, the commission, aided by the newly formed Federal Institute of Educational Research, held a series of consultations with educational and economic experts and with certain vocational associations. On the basis of these discussions and the data obtained, the commission sought to establish the basic lines of reform for a new educational system and the fundamental questions for further discussion and planning.¹⁰

The work of the commission was next directed toward the determination of principles for particular types of schools. Seven subcommittees were formed: compulsory education, vocational schools, secondary schools, adult education, teacher-training institutions, pre-school education, and finance. Numerous debates and discussions were conducted among educators, public and cultural leaders, educational organizations, and societies.¹¹

UNESCO Technical Assistance

Under the UNESCO technical assistance program of 1955 and 1956, the commission sent 85 educational experts to foreign countries to study various problems pertaining to education. Those chosen for the UNESCO fellowships included teachers and administrators from each of the six Yugoslav republics and from each branch of education in which reform was to be undertaken. Study was undertaken in the United States and in 11 countries of Western Europe—France, the United Kingdom, the Federal German Republic, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, Italy, and Switzerland.¹²

Experts were also brought to Yugoslavia from other countries to exchange views on current educational problems. Study groups and meetings were organized in the main centers of the country and were

⁸ Organization of the School System and Adult Education in Yugoslavia: Survey and Argumentation Federal Institute for Educational Research (Belgrade, 1956), p. 1.

⁹ "Yugoslavia," *International Yearbook . . . 1957, op. cit.*, p. 453.

¹⁰ "Yugoslavia," *International Yearbook of Education (UNESCO)*, XVIII (Paris, 1956), p. 429. See also Alan J. A. Elliott, "School Reform in Yugoslavia," *Institute of International Education News Bulletin* (December 1958), p. 19.

¹¹ "Yugoslavia," *International Yearbook . . . 1956, op. cit.*, p. 429. See also "General Law on Schools—The Foundation of the New System of Education," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, III (June 1958), 1.

¹² Alan J. A. Elliott, "School Reform in Yugoslavia," *Institute of International Education News Bulletin*, December 1958, pp. 19-20.

attended by teachers and administrators from all parts of the various republics.¹³

Five of the 10 foreign experts were specialists in vocational education, four in general education, and one in school architecture. Two were sent from France, two from the United Kingdom, and one each from Germany, Denmark, Belgium, Switzerland, the Netherlands, and Sweden.¹⁴

The technical assistance program for 1957 represented a continuation of the programs for the preceding 2 years. Most efforts were directed toward the technical schools, both with respect to fellowships and procurement of equipment. Twelve Yugoslav educators continued studying and visiting schools in France, England, Belgium, Switzerland, West Germany, Sweden and Austria.¹⁵

Proposal for School Reform

After broad consideration of matters concerning the education of young people and adults, the school reform commission drafted a "Proposal for the Educational System in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia".¹⁶

This work was completed in April 1957 along with extensive documentation on the development in the past of all types of schools in Yugoslavia. The Federal Executive Council submitted the report to public discussion, which continued until the end of 1957.¹⁷

The proposal embodied fundamental aims for the development of education. The first section described the planned new school system, which included adult education; the second explained fundamental principles of work and life in schools, guidance services and the health development of school children; the final section covered principles of social management of schools; coordination between school and community, school and family, youth and social organizations; the role of inspection; and institutions for the study and improvement of education.¹⁸

The basic aims of education, as set forth in the proposal, were as follows:¹⁹

¹³ *Developments in Education during the Year 1956-1957*, Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council (Geneva, 1958), p. 4.

¹⁴ Elliott, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

¹⁵ *Developments in Education during . . . 1956-57*, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-6.

¹⁶ *Prijedlog Sistema Obrazovanja i Odgoja u Federativnoj Republici Jugoslaviji* (Proposal of the System of Education in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia), Komisija za Reformu Skolstva (Commission for School Reform) (Beograd, 1957).

¹⁷ *Developments in Education during the Year 1957-58*. Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council, Geneva, 1958, p. 1.

¹⁸ *Prijedlog*, *loc. cit.*

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 20-22.

1. To educate and train young people to contribute by their work, based on the contemporary achievements of science and technology, to the development of the social productive forces, to the increase of the material and cultural prosperity of the community as a whole, and to the personal happiness and well-being of the individual; to train the young citizen as a producer in the economy, or worker in other fields of social endeavour so as to enable him to cope with the problems in his profession, to advance his abilities and keep step with progress.

2. To train and prepare young generations for duties in social self-government so that as citizens with a sense of responsibility towards the community, they can take an active part in the further development of socialist democracy.

3. To form independent, critical and inquisitive attitudes, and to develop talents in the individual's own interest and that of the community; to develop men and women with high moral qualities who will be able to harmonize their relations with society.

4. To teach youth the history and achievements of their own people and of the entire world in various spheres of material, technological, scientific, cultural, and artistic life and creation, and to enable them to create wealth, culture, and civilization and form social relations worthy of men.

5. To educate young generations in the spirit of brotherhood, unity and equality of the peoples of Yugoslavia, in the spirit of loyalty to their socialist homeland, and of mutual assistance among nations in the interest of peace and prosperity in the world, and to make them advocates of human rights and liberties, irreconcilable with any exploitation, discrimination and suppression among men and nations.

6. To raise physically fit and healthy men with deeply rooted customs and needs for good health in the interest of a happier life, greater working ability, and vitality of the community as a whole.

Draft of the General Law on Education

In January and February of 1958, a special commission of the Federal Executive Council Committee for Education prepared a Draft General Law on Education, based upon the aforementioned Proposal. In March, the draft law was published in Yugoslav newspapers and submitted to public discussion.²⁰ Suggestions and recommendations made were taken into account in drawing up the final text.²¹ The Draft General Law on Education was submitted to the Second Regular Session of the Fourth Federal People's Assembly and was passed on June 25, 1958.²² (A full translated text of this law is included in the Appendix to this study.)²³

²⁰ *Developments in Education during the year 1957-58, loc. cit.*

²¹ "General Law on Schools—The Foundation of the New System of Education." *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, III (June 1958), 1.

²² "The June Session of the Federal People's Assembly." *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, III (June 1958), 1.

²³ This law has been translated into English both as the "General Law on Schools" and as the "General Law on Education."

EDUCATION UNDER THE NEW GENERAL LAW

THE 1958 GENERAL LAW on Education forms the legal basis for the new school system in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia. In 183 articles, the law establishes a uniform system of education and regulates the organization and work of various institutions for pre-school education, elementary schools, secondary general education and technical schools, higher education, and institutions for adult education.¹ It also embodies the reforms which, for 3 years, were studied by numerous groups of specialists and social and economic organizations.² The text of the General Law is preceded by a separate Introductory Law which provides that the former be brought into force gradually.

In an address before the Federal People's Assembly, at the time of the passage of the General Law, the vice-president of the Federal Executive Council and president of the Federal Council of Education, Rodoljub Colakovic, stated the purpose of the new system of education:

The concern of our community for education has not been limiting itself during the past period to only ensuring material . . . conditions for the education of our citizens . . . but . . . has been directed toward changing the spirit of our school, of its place and role in the building of our country upon new, socialist foundations. The school . . . must educate the young . . . to understand that work is the basic condition of existence and progress of every individual and of society as a whole.

Education is an integral part in the building of socialism, in developing our productive forces, an indispensable condition for raising our country out of economic and cultural backwardness, in creating as favorable as possible a structure for our active population to acquire greater vocational training for the maximum possible contribution by every individual in his

¹ "General Law on Schools—The Foundation of the New System of Education," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, III (June 1958), 1.

² "The Educational World: Yugoslavia." *International Bureau of Education Bulletin*, 128 (3d quarter 1958), 182.

work, for his higher living standard, for his personal affirmation in a society . . . for a better, finer and more cultured life.³

The preamble of the General Law states that "the social community, through state organs, economic and social organizations, shall found and develop schools . . . for the purpose of promoting education, in the interest of an all-around development of the socialist society and the personality of the individual".⁴ The aims of education, as provided in Article 3, are essentially the same as those set forth in the Proposal for School reform which was discussed in the previous chapter.⁵

The new law is based upon the principle that the school is not an institution separate from life with the sole purpose of transmitting knowledge, but is the concern of society and the entire community. Under the law, the school works in cooperation with the family, with economic, labor, youth, and other social organizations, and with professional associations and corresponding health and social institutions.⁶

The right of every citizen to a free education is guaranteed by the General Law which provides that "all citizens, regardless of nationality, sex, social origin or religion, shall enjoy equal rights to education under the same conditions".⁷ Compulsory 8-year education in a comprehensive school is required of all children between the ages of 7 and 15.⁸

The new educational system abolishes the dualism which had previously existed in school organization and eliminates the privileged position of any one type of school.⁹ In contrast to the former school organization, which separated children preparing for the so-called "higher callings" and those training for vocations, the new system enables all citizens, on the basis of successful school records and ability, to enroll in all schools.¹⁰ The General Law further provides that not only citizens who have completed the regular school, but also those who lack such qualifications, may enroll in universities and schools of higher learning, providing they pass an entrance examination

³ Rodoljub Colakovic. "Usvojen Je Opmi Zakon o Skolstvu" (Passage of the General Law on Schools), *Prosvetni Pregled* (Educational Review), 28 (June 27, 1958), pp. 1-4.

⁴ See article 1 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵ See article 3 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁶ "General Law on Schools . . . *op. cit.*, p. 2. See also Article 4 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁷ See articles 7 and 10 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁸ See article 6 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁹ Krste Crvenkovski, "Social Impact of School Reform," *Review of International Affairs*, (Jan. 1, 1959), pp. 3-4.

¹⁰ G. Ernjakovic and Lj. Krneta, "The Yugoslav Educational System," (Beograd, Jugoslavija, 1959), p. 21. See also articles 8 and 9 of General Law in the appendix.

which shows that they can successfully follow instruction in the chosen school.¹¹

Under the new law, industrial and vocational schools require the same basic 8-year preparation as the gymnasium and, as a result, are no longer considered as "lower schools". The privileged position formerly occupied by the gymnasium is replaced by an equal ranking of all schools on the secondary level.¹² The organization of the new school system in Yugoslavia is shown by the chart on page 62.

In addition to the regular schools, the educational system of Yugoslavia is supplemented by various preschool institutions and an organized system of adult education. The latter, however, is not included in the scope of this study.

Institutions for Preschool Education

Education designed for children of preschool age includes nurseries, day schools, kindergartens, playgrounds, etc.¹³ The purpose of these institutions, as proposed by the Reform Commission and later incorporated into Article 26 of the General Law, are:

To satisfy children's needs for recreation and play and to give them a happy childhood;

To contribute to the . . . later education of the young generation . . .

To cooperate with, and assist parents in the application of modern principles and methods in the upbringing and health care of children of pre-school age;

To assist parents—especially employed ones—by assuming the care and education of children of preschool age . . .¹⁴

The preschool institutions include the following: Creches, for ages under 3, care for children of working parents; day nurseries, for ages 3 to 7, offer meals and health care; kindergartens, also for children between 3 and 7 years of age, are similar to the day nurseries but offer half-day accommodation and one meal. In addition to these institutions, there are homes for orphans and children whose parents are unable to care for them.¹⁵

¹¹ See article 9 of the General Law in the appendix. See also: "New Regulations for Enrollment in Universities, *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, IV (May 1959), 7.

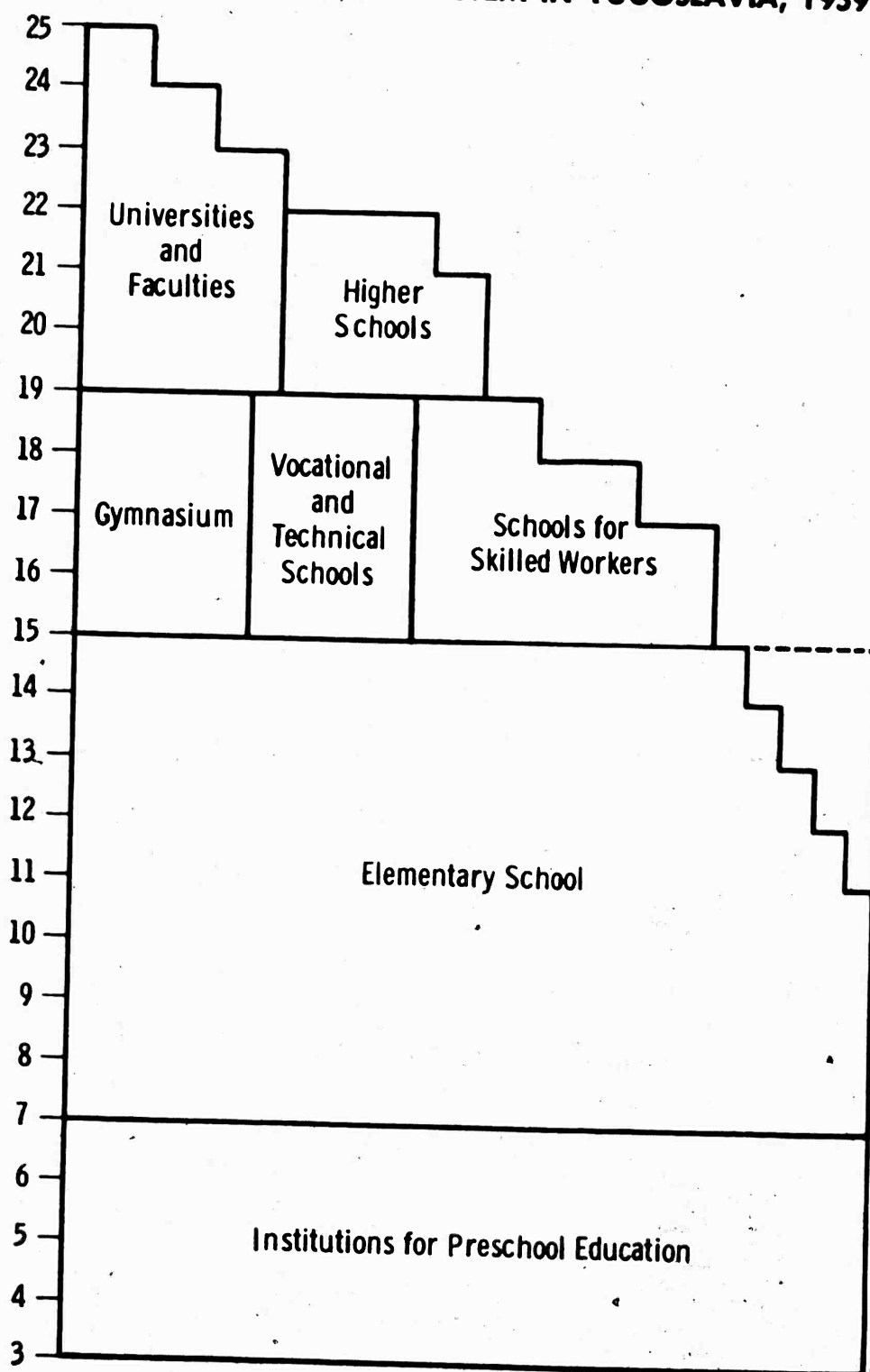
¹² Organization of the School System and Adult Education in Yugoslavia: Survey and Argumentation, Yugoslav Institute for Educational Research (Beograd, 1956), pp. 23-4. See also articles 8 and 9 of General Law in the appendix.

¹³ Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

¹⁴ Organization of the School System and Adult Education in Yugoslavia . . . , *op. cit.*, pp. 3-4. See also article 26 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹⁵ Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, pp. 22-23.

Chart III.—THE SCHOOL SYSTEM IN YUGOSLAVIA, 1959



Elementary Schools

The foundation of the new educational system is the elementary 8-year school of general education which is compulsory for all children between the ages of 7 and 15.¹⁶ Upon completion of this school, all students enjoy the same rights to further education.¹⁷

The social role and educational tasks of the elementary schools are:

To afford to the whole young generation . . . a solid, common, starting basis of general education as demanded . . . by the interests of a full socialist-democratic, economic and cultural development of the social community, and also by the interests of a full flourishing and all-around development of the human individual . . . and technical education to contribute to all-around and cultured . . . personalities . . . with due regard for the natural divergence of special interests, abilities . . . in boys and girls of this age . . . to enable them to orient themselves toward those social vocations that are best suited to them, those wherein they would find the greatest working satisfaction and therein their personal initiative and creativeness would find the outlet—to the greatest benefit of the social community as well.¹⁸

¹⁶ See articles 6 and 10 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹⁷ See article 11 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹⁸ Basic Principles of the Organization of Compulsory Education, Yugoslav Institute for Educational Research (Belgrade, 1956), p. 5. See also Organization of the School System and Adult Education . . . *op. cit.*, pp. 8-10.



"Filip Filipovic" elementary school in Belgrade.

In pursuance of their social function, the 8-year schools seek to fulfill the following tasks:

... to contribute to an ... intellectual, physical, moral, aesthetic, general-technical and working education ... of pupils ... imbued with the spirit of brotherhood and unity of the peoples of Yugoslavia, with loyalty to their socialist homeland, with respect for other peoples and cooperation among nations, with love for work and respect for human rights and freedoms, so that as future citizens ... they may make successful use of their personal and social rights and fulfill their obligations; and the schools should also work on training young persons for their gradual inclusion in the system of social government ...

Acting ... to the capacity of the pupils of that age, the schools should familiarize the young generation with the achievements of mankind in different domains of scientific, cultural and material-technical development ... while at the same time developing the consciousness of the young generation regarding the creative power of the human intellect and activity in perceiving, harnessing and altering nature, in creating material prosperity, culture and civilization of mankind and fashioning social relationships worthy of man.

... closely linked with the extra-school activity ... and the diversified life of the social community, the school's task is to commit all ... forces ... toward fashioning the young personality and enabling ... one ... to discover and test his special interests, propensities, abilities making it easier for him to select ... his life's work and the calling that will best fit his ... interests and abilities and in which he may most contribute to the social community.²⁰

Realization of Compulsory Education.—Some areas of Yugoslavia (Slovenia, Croatia and Vojvodina) have already achieved significant results in the development of compulsory education. Both Slovenia and Vojvodina maintain a fully developed network of 8-year elementary schools.²⁰ However, in those parts of the country where few elementary schools had previously existed, the realization of compulsory education is expected to progress gradually and in proportion to the material development of the community.²¹ Schools of a transitional type have been suggested as an intermediate step in the gradual passage from the 4-year to the 8-year elementary school:

... efforts should be made to make use of all transitory forms—opening of fifth and sixth grades of elementary schools—and where this is not possible, at least by holding systematic winter courses during the entire period of compulsory education ...²²

In addition to the opening of new schools in the underdeveloped areas, further expansion is expected through the reorganization and merging of smaller schools into larger organizational units.²³

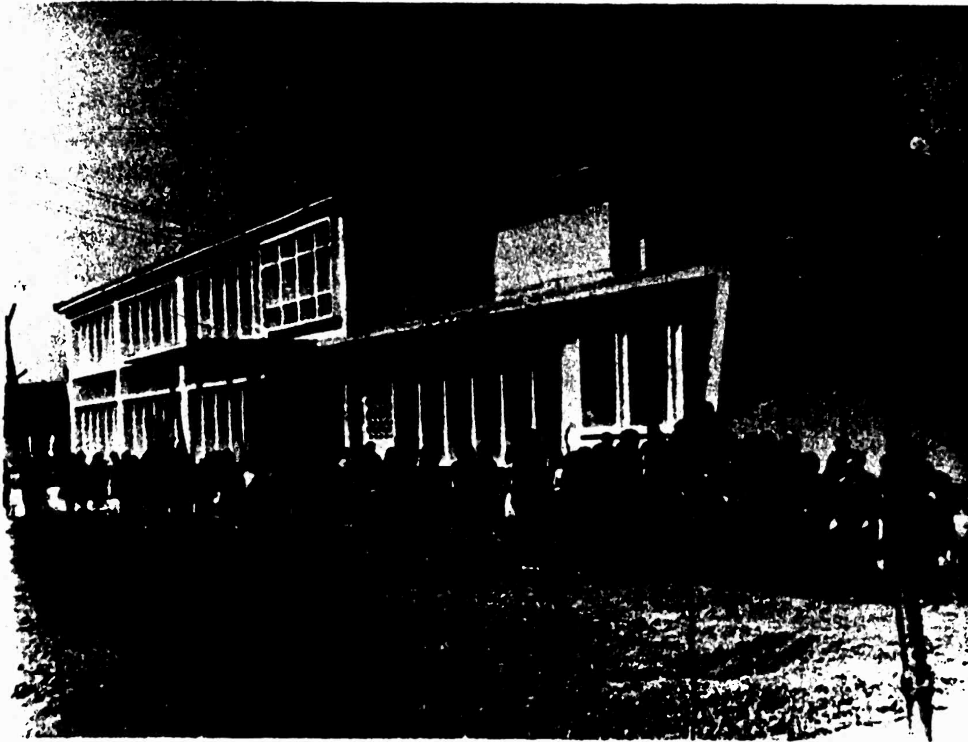
²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-8

²¹ Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

²² *Ibid.*

²³ Colakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

²⁴ Ernjakovic, *loc. cit.*



Elementary school in town of Borci-Pancevacki Rit, Belgrade.

Uniformity of the 8-Year School.—Under the new General Law, the 8-year elementary schools are uniform in their general educational purpose, in the bases of their curricula, and in the organization of their internal functionings.²⁴ The law also provides for differentiation of teaching activities in schools of various regions where geographical and economic factors necessitate a harmonization of school work with life and work in the area in which the school is located :

The council for education of the People's Committee of a municipality may supplement the curriculum in accordance with the requirements of the respective locality and school conditions, and in conformity with the prescribed curriculum. This council shall be obligated to obtain in advance the opinion and proposals of individual schools as well as of the economic and social organizations concerned.²⁵

Curricula.—On February 27, 1959, in accordance with Articles 30 and 170 of the General Law,²⁶ the Federal Council for Education²⁷ estab-

²⁴ See article 11 of the General Law in the appendix.

²⁵ See article 30 of the General Law in the appendix. See also Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 25. Organisation of the School System . . . in Yugoslavia, *op. cit.*, pp. 13-14.

²⁶ For context, see articles 30 and 170 of the General Law in the appendix.

²⁷ This council is a newly formed body consisting of members elected by the Federal Executive Council and members elected by the Councils of Education of each republic.

SOURCE: See article 170 of the General Law in the appendix. See also "Realization of School Reform: New Teaching Programme for Primary Schools," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, IV (January 1959), 8.

lished the "Bases of the Curricula for Elementary Schools". This document contains the compulsory and minimum requirements for all elementary schools throughout Yugoslavia. Its basic provisions were founded upon data supplied by the Federal Institute for Educational Research.²⁸ The following is the curriculum for the elementary schools, published in the Official Gazette on April 1, 1959:

Table 37.—Basic subjects in the curriculum for elementary schools: 1959¹

Subject	Grade							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Mother tongue.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
2. Knowledge of nature and society.....	X	X	X					
3. Science.....				X	X	X		
(a) physics.....							X	X
(b) chemistry.....							X	X
(c) biology.....							X	X
4. Mathematics.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
5. Elements of general-technical education.....				X	X	X	X	X
6. Introduction to social science.....				X	X			
(a) geography.....						X	X	X
(b) history.....						X	X	X
(c) principles of social and moral education.....							X	X
7. Foreign language.....					X	X	X	X
8. Physical and health education.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
9. Art education.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
10. Music education.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
11. Domestic science.....						X	X	X
Total number of hours per week per grade.....	21	21	22	25	25	27	27	28

¹"Osnovi Nastavnog Plana i Programa Osnovne Skole," (Bases of the Curricula of the Elementary School), *Službeni List FNRJ* (Official Gazette of FPRY) (Beograd, Apr. 1, 1959), p. 5.

²⁸*Changes in the Programme of Education During the 1958-59 Academic Year*, Secretariat for Education and Culture of the FPRY (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1959), p. 21.

The number of hours given above is for orientation purposes only. The actual number of working hours is to depend upon the circumstances and facilities prevailing in a particular school.²⁹

The curricula of elementary schools within a republic are prescribed by the Council of Education of the Republic in accordance with the basic curriculum established by the Federal Council of Education.³⁰ The Council of Education of the People's Republic of Serbia established the following curriculum on July 8, 1959:

Table 38.—Curriculum hours in elementary schools, by grade and subject: Serbia, 1959¹

Subject	Grade							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Mother tongue.....	6	6	6	5	5	5	4	4
2. Knowledge of nature and society.....	2	2	4					
3. Science.....				3	3	3		
(a) physics.....							3	3
(b) chemistry.....							2	2
(c) biology.....							2	2
4. Mathematics.....	5	5	5	5	4	4	3	3
5. Elements of general-technical education.....				2	2	2	2	2
6. Introduction to social science.....				3	3			
(a) geography.....						2	2	2
(b) history.....						2	2	2
(c) principles of social and moral education.....							1	1
7. Foreign language.....					3	3	3	3
8. Physical and health education.....	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
9. Art education.....	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
10. Music education.....	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	1
11. Domestic science.....						1	1	1
Total number of hours per grade per week.....	19	19	22	25	27	28	30	30

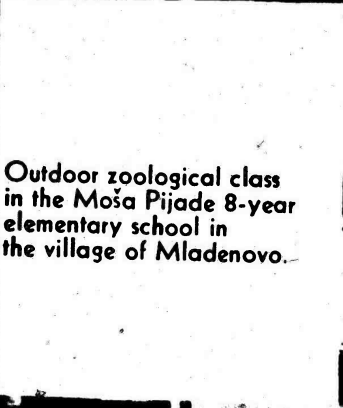
¹ *Nastavni Plan i Program za Osnovnu Skolu u Narodnoj Republici Srbiji* (Curriculum for the Elementary School in the People's Republic of Serbia), Zavod za Izdavanje Udjbenika (Institute for the Issuance of Textbooks) (Beograd, 1960), pp. 3, 7.

²⁹ *Changes in the Programme of Education . . . op. cit.*, p. 23.

³⁰ See paragraph 2 of article 30 in the appendix.



Biology class in 8-year elementary school in village of Podinsko Selo in Belgrade.



Outdoor zoological class in the Moša Pijade 8-year elementary school in the village of Mladenovo.



Students at work in chemistry laboratory in the George Notoševick 8-year elementary school in Novi Sad, Republic of Serbia.



Chemistry laboratory in the George Notoševick 8-year elementary school in Novi Sad, Republic of Serbia.



Goce Delčev elementary school in Skopje (People's Republic of Macedonia).

Curricula in the elementary schools are identical for boys and girls and are based upon the principle of coeducation.³¹ Under the newly organized program, the time spent by students in school has been increasing. Where conditions permit, the trend is for children to remain at school at least 6 hours per day. It is believed that a longer school day will enable students to complete a greater part of their homework at school and to meet other school obligations.³²

General Education.—A significant feature of the new plan and program of the elementary school is the interpretation given to general education. Along with physical and artistic education, technical training has become a component part of general education.³³ The president of the Federal Council of Education, Rodoljub Colakovic, in his speech to the Assembly, pointed out that:

The eight-year school . . . ought to extend to the young generations the foundation of a modern general education, which also includes elements of technical training, to provide students with the foundations of a socialist

³¹ Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

³² *Osnovi Nastavnog Plana i Programa Osnovne Skole*, *loc. cit.* See also *Changes in the Program of Education . . . 1958-59*, *loc. cit.*

³³ "Realization of School Reform: New Teaching Programme for Primary Schools," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, IV (January 1959), 8.

education and to help them to properly make the choice of their profession by themselves.³⁴

Technical training is given in school workshops, laboratories, and through visits to industrial enterprises, scientific institutions, etc. Manual training is also a significant part of the teaching program in the elementary schools.³⁵

The new 8-year school seeks to provide training which will enable students to enter any field:

... a modern general education has a deeply vocational significance, in the broadest sense of the word, as ... a form of broad preparation for the successful embracement of any specialized occupation. The more successfully the school discharges its general-education function '(to include a close association between the acquisition of knowledge and ... with practical application, activity, working habits and general technical education), the less will it be shutting itself off into the narrow framework of direct preparation for some narrower occupation ...'



Olga Petrov 8-year elementary school in village of Podinkos Selo in Belgrade.

Guidance.—The new General Law provides that schools shall offer guidance services to pupils:

In cooperation with the institutions for vocational guidance, the school shall help parents and pupils with the choice of school and vocation according to the aptitudes and abilities of pupils ...³⁷

³⁴ Speech made to Assembly at time the General Law on Schools was passed. See Colakovic, *loc. cit.*

³⁵ *Ibid.*

³⁶ Organization of the School System and Adult Education in Yugoslavia ... *op. cit.*, pp. 18-19.

³⁷ See articles 94 and 29 of the General Law in the appendix.

Secondary Schools

Students who graduate from the 8-year elementary school may continue their education in the gymnasium (secondary school of general education) or in one of the vocational schools. The law provides that all secondary schools are on an equal level and that students may transfer from one type to another for purposes of continuing their education. Upon graduation from a secondary school, students may continue in a corresponding school of higher learning.³⁸

The reasons for requiring 8-year elementary education as a prerequisite for all schools on the secondary level were given as follows:

1. Both for social . . . and professional considerations, it is necessary that every occupation, even the "most ordinary", and not solely an academic one, rest on . . . a solid . . . general education.

2. The ever growing complexity of technological processes and the advance in all branches of industry and agriculture demands of the worker . . . an increasing knowledge of the scientific principles upon which are based the operations in which he is participating . . .

3. Where general education is absent as a valuable and solid base, vocational training cannot progress beyond a certain level and the possibilities of adaption to changes, possibilities of advancement and perfection in one's profession assume quite narrow limits. This is obvious from the different results obtained in the industrial school on the one hand and apprenticeship schools on the other.

4. General and vocational education must not be regarded as contrasting and excluding each other, but as complementing one another. To regard them as contrasts means to persist in the outdated and harmful outlook that a lesser general-educational preparation, a lower level of education, suffices for a specialized calling and that, as a result, those . . . youth who orientate themselves toward vocations in industry or agriculture . . . may and should have a lower level preparatory education and culture than the gymnasium pupils, or else that they should acquire it by way of such "substitutes" as the general-education courses.³⁹

Gymnasium.—The gymnasium is a 4-year secondary school of general education which admits students who have completed the 8-year elementary school. With the passage of the new General Law, the four lower grades of the former 8-year gymnasium were incorporated into the upper grades of the compulsory 8-year elementary school.⁴⁰

The organization of education in the new gymnasium differs essentially from the previous one in the following respects: First, the gymnasium is regarded as a type of finishing school for those pupils who do not go on to the university, but enter the employment field.

³⁸ See article 8 of the General Law in the appendix.

³⁹ Organization of the School System and Adult Education in Yugoslavia . . . , *op. cit.*, pp. 17-18.

⁴⁰ "Gymnasium in the New School System," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, IY (March 1959), 8. See also Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

For these students, special courses are introduced, such as mechanical drafting, shorthand, typing, etc.⁴¹ Second, general education has been expanded to include technical education as well. A frequent criticism of the old system was its emphasis on abstract knowledge⁴² with little attention to practical training. Third, the General Law provides that a part of the curriculum will be common to all pupils and an optional section which will enable pupils to concentrate more effectively on specific areas in the educational program. Every pupil is required to choose one of the elective fields.⁴³

The following is the curriculum for the social science-linguistic course of study:

Table 39.—Curriculum hours for the social-science linguistic program in the gymnasium, by subject and grade: 1959¹

Subjects	Grades			
	1	2	3	4
Mother tongue and literature.....	4	4	4	4
History.....	3	3	3	3
Sociology ²			2	3
Social and political organization in Yugoslavia.....	2	2		
Logic and psychology.....			2	
Philosophy.....				3
Art.....	2	1	1	2
Foreign language.....	3	4	4	5
Latin.....	2	2		
Geography.....	3	2		2
Biology.....	2	2	2	
Chemistry.....		2	2	
Physics.....	2	2	2	
Mathematics.....	4	3	2	2
General technical education.....	1		2	2
Military training.....			2	2
Physical education.....	3	3	3	3
Total hours per week.....	31	31	31	31

¹ "Osnove Nastavnog Plana i Programa Gimnazije" (Bases of the Curricula for the Gymnasium), *Sluzbeni List FNRJ* (Official Gazette of FPRY), (Beograd, July 1, 1950), pp. 44-45.

² Schools in which "Elements of Political Economy" cannot be taught with Sociology as a separate subject will offer this course with the teaching of history.

⁴¹ Colakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

⁴² *Gimnazija u Novom Sistemu Obrazovanja i Vaspitanja* (Gymnasium in the New System of Education), Komisija za Reformu Skolstva (Commission for School Reform) (Beograd 1957), p. 4.

⁴³ See article 37 of the General Law in the appendix.

During the first year of the gymnasium, the curriculum is the same for all pupils. In the second year, two courses of study are offered: social sciences and linguistics, and natural sciences and mathematics. Both courses offer one foreign language besides Latin and make a second foreign language optional.⁴⁴ They also provide for general education, with emphasis on special subjects, and for technical education through the 4 years of the gymnasium, with elementary courses in applied sciences including electrical and mechanical engineering.⁴⁵

In accordance with Article 38 of the General Law, the Federal Council of Education established the "Bases of the Curricula for the Gymnasium" on June 12, 1959.⁴⁶

The curriculum for the natural science-mathematics course of study is as follows:

Table 40.—Curriculum hours for the natural science-mathematics program in the gymnasium, by subject and grade: 1959¹

Subjects	Grades			
	1	2	3	4
Mother tongue and literature.....	4	3	3	3
Mathematics.....	4	4	4	5
Physics.....	2	3	3	3
Chemistry.....		2	3	2
Biology.....	2	2	2	2
Plane geometry.....		2	2	2
General-technical education.....	1	1	2	2
Geography.....	3	2		2
History.....	3	2	2	
Sociology with elements of political economy.....				2
Social and political organization in Yugoslavia.....	2	1		
Logic and psychology.....			2	
Philosophy.....			(²)	
Art.....	2	1		
Foreign language.....	3	3	3	2
Latin.....	2	2		
Military training.....			2	2
Physical education.....	3	3	3	3
Total hours per week.....	31	31	31	31

¹ See footnote 1, table 39.

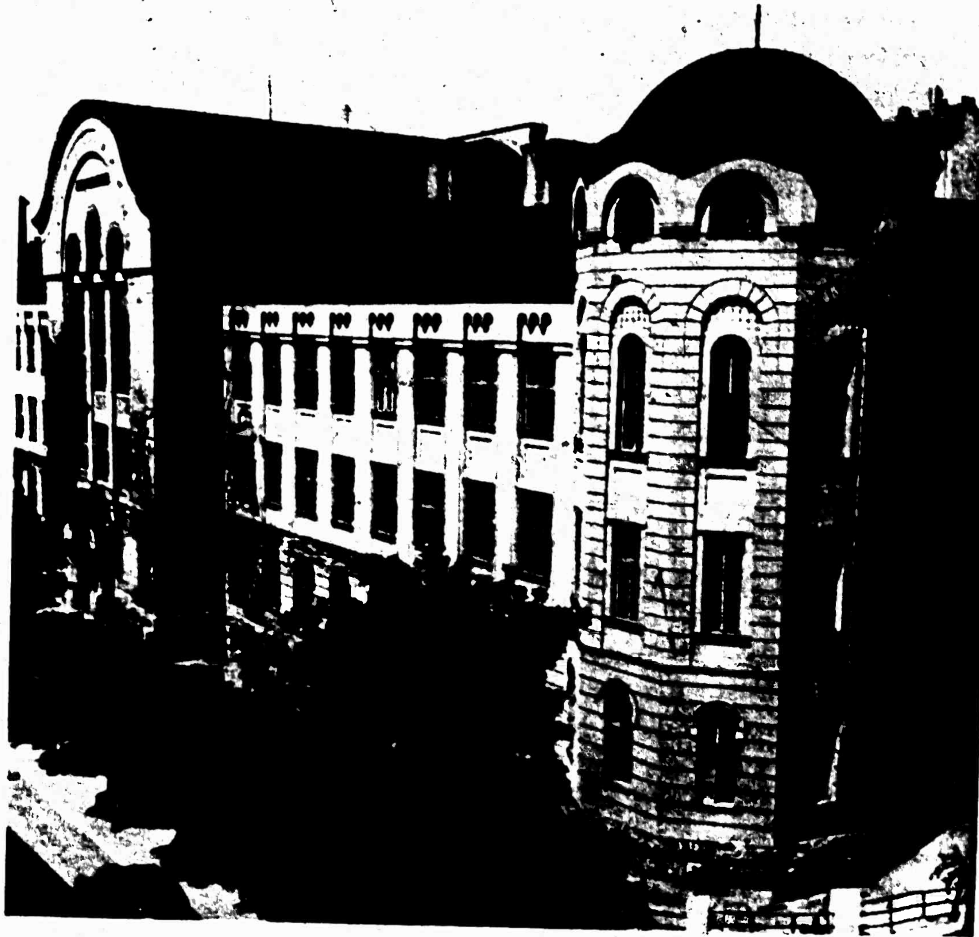
² According to another source (the Yugoslav Embassy in Wash, D.C.) hours for the above noted subjects were as follows: mathematics, 5 hours; philosophy, 1 hour; logic and psychology not offered.

⁴⁴ *Changes in the Programme of Education During the 1958-59 Academic Year, op. cit.*, pp. 17-18.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

⁴⁶ "Osnove Nastavnog Plana i Programa Gimnazije" (Bases of the Curricula for the Gymnasium), *Slusbeni List FNEJ* (Official Gazette of FPRY). (Beograd, July 1, 1959).

The curriculum in each of the republics is prescribed by the Council of Education of the Republic in accordance with the basic curriculum established by the Federal Council of Education.⁴⁷



Nikola Tesla electro-technical school, Belgrade.

Vocational Schools

The General Law provides for four types of vocational schools: for (1) skilled workers; and for (2) highly skilled workers; (3) technical and other vocational schools for the economy and public services; (4) and the arts schools.⁴⁸ The length of studies in these schools is not fixed by the law. Individual types of vocational schools determine the minimum duration of studies to be required.⁴⁹

⁴⁷ See article 38 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁴⁸ See article 41 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁴⁹ Colakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

The law makes the following provisions for determination of the curricula for vocational schools:

The bases of the curricula for various types of vocational schools . . . shall be established by the Federal Council for Education.

The curricula for the vocational schools . . . shall be prescribed by the councils for education of the Republics in conformity with the bases of the curricula established by the Federal Council for Education.

. . . the prescribing of the curricula shall be done on the proposal of the economic, labor union, social organizations and professional associations concerned, as well as the organs of administration in charge of the pertinent activity or service.

Special regulations for various kinds of vocational schools may prescribe that the council for education of the Republic, in agreement with the organ of administration in charge of the pertinent activity or service, prescribe the curricula.⁵⁰

Economic and social organizations play a part in determining the structure of the types of vocational schools, and in the drafting of curricula. The law also provides that the work of the vocational schools should develop through permanent cooperation with the corresponding economic organizations and social services.⁵¹

Schools for Skilled Workers.—Schools for practical training and for apprentices enroll skilled workers. In addition to practical and theoretical training, the schools provide education in the natural and social sciences.⁵²

Practical-vocational education in schools of practical training is conducted in special workshops or in industrial enterprises and institutions.

Schools for apprentices provide practical and vocational training directly in economic enterprises and in specially organized workshops.⁵³

The schools for skilled workers generally enroll students who have completed the 8-year elementary school. Those who lack elementary training may also enroll providing they attend certain preparatory courses.⁵⁴ The duration of studies in these schools depends upon the nature of a trade or the requirements for a skilled worker in a given branch of production. Upon the completion of studies, students take a final examination which may qualify them as skilled workers in a given trade.⁵⁵

Schools for Highly Skilled Workers.—The schools enroll persons who have had a certain amount of experience as skilled workers in produc-

⁵⁰ See article 42 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵¹ See article 44 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵² See articles 46 and 47 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵³ See articles 48 and 49 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵⁴ Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 28. See also article 50 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵⁵ Ernjakovic, *loc. cit.* See also article 51 of the General Law in the appendix.

tion. Upon the completion of the prescribed course of study, a final examination is taken.⁵⁶



Secondary geological technical school, Belgrade.

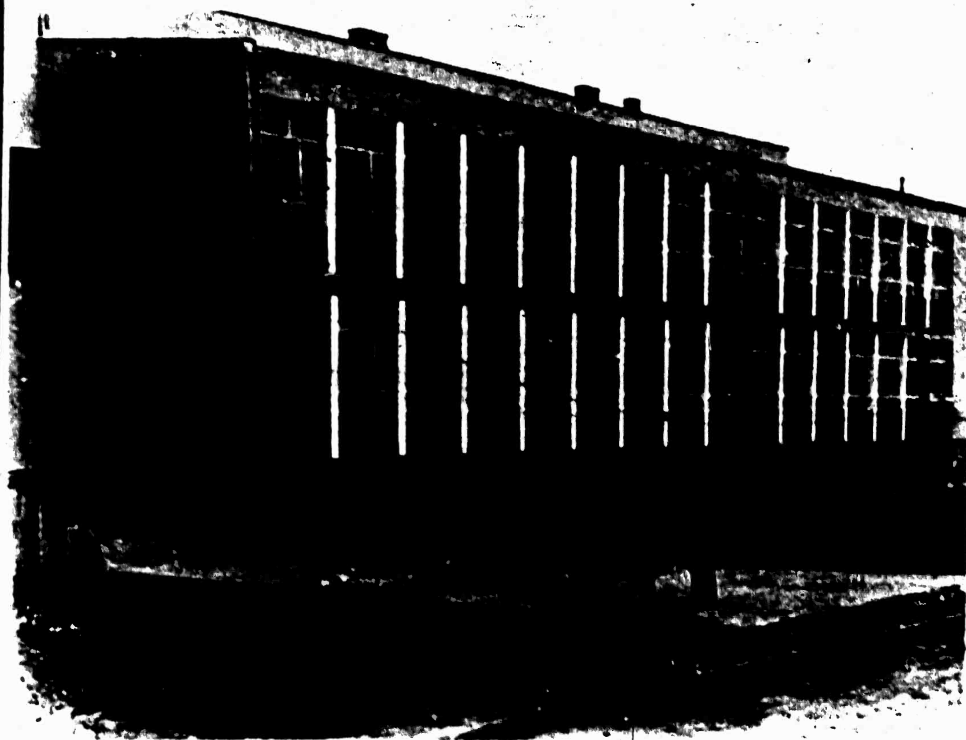
Schools for Economy and Public Services.—Vocational schools in this group include: electro-technical, economic, agricultural, medical, transportation, construction, chemistry, etc. The tasks of these schools are:

- ... to extend education which provides vocational-theoretical training for activity in a specific branch, as well as vocational-practical training in the school workshop linked with practical work in economic organizations ...
- to extend general education in economic and social sciences ... for the purpose of a more successful acquisition of the theoretical and practical-vocational education.⁵⁷

All schools in this group require an 8-year elementary education, while certain technical schools demand even higher qualifications.

⁵⁶ See article 53 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵⁷ See article 55 of the General Law in the appendix.



Technical vocational school in Kruševac (Republic of Serbia).



Commercial apprenticeship school in Zagreb (Republic of Croatia).

For pupils who have completed the school for skilled workers, shortened courses may be prescribed.⁵⁸

Schools of the Arts.—Arts schools, a special type of vocational school, offer, in addition to general education, training in specific branches of art or applied arts.⁵⁹ These schools enroll pupils who have completed the 8-year school and have shown special talent in the arts field.⁶⁰ Under special regulations they may also enroll those who have not completed the elementary school, providing they complete their elementary studies before graduating from the arts schools. Upon completion of the arts schools, students are required to pass a final examination.⁶¹

Special Schools.—Physically or mentally retarded children are taught in special schools and other institutions which offer elementary, general, and vocational education.⁶² A medical commission determines which students shall be sent to these schools, and may also recommend their transfer back to the regular schools.⁶³

Teacher-training Schools.—As a result of the demand that all teachers acquire a broader general and educational background, 2- to 3-year pedageogical academies have been proposed for the training of elementary school teachers. Students would enter the academies upon completion of the secondary school.⁶⁴ This method replaces the former plan of training teachers on the secondary level.

Schools for National Minorities

The General Law provides that all national minorities shall have the right to instruction in their mother tongue in all schools, including preschool education, and that the language of the respective republic shall also be taught.⁶⁵ In areas where national minorities are mixed with the other peoples of Yugoslavia, bilingual education is to be provided in special schools or in separate departments of regular schools, depending upon available facilities.⁶⁶

New Laws To Follow

The new General Law, which came into force on September 1, 1958, brought many basic changes in the field of education. Based upon

⁵⁸ See article 56 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁵⁹ See article 58 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*

⁶¹ See article 59 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁶² See article 67 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁶³ See article 69 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁶⁴ Colakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 5. See also Ernjakovic, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

⁶⁵ See articles 71-75 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁶⁶ "General Law on Schools . . ." *op. cit.*, p. 2.

these changes, the Federal Assembly of Yugoslavia is expected to enact other laws which will include: The General Law on Vocational and Higher Vocational Schools; the General Law on Teacher-Training Colleges; and, the General Law on Universities and other Institutions of Higher Learning.⁶⁷

⁶⁷ *Changes in the Programme of Education . . . 1958-59, op. cit., p. 3.*

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS UNDER THE NEW GENERAL LAW

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION in Yugoslavia is based upon the principle of social management¹ which was established by the Constitution of 1953² and introduced into the school system by the General Law on the Management of Schools in March 1955.³ The purpose of the School Management Act was to provide for self-government in the field of education—with local autonomy and decentralized control.⁴ The new General Law on Education of 1958 incorporated and further expanded the basic provisions of the School Management Act.⁵

The governing bodies which directly manage the schools are the following: the school committee (or school board), the council of teachers, and the headmaster (or principal) of the school,⁶ each having a sphere of activities with definite rights and duties prescribed by law.⁷ The law provides that at the end of every school year these authorities shall hold joint meetings together with pupils, parents,

¹ This term denotes the decentralization of administration and the transfer of State authority to local bodies. The principle was first applied in April 1950, with the establishment of Workers' Councils and the placement of factories under their management. Source: Rodoljub Jemuovic, "Društveno Upravljanje u Prosveti i Skolstvu" (Social Management in Schools and Education), *Jugoslovenski Pregled* (Yugoslav Review) (Beograd, April 1959), p. 25. See also "Yugoslavia," *International Yearbook of Education* (UNESCO) 153 (Geneva 1953), 381.

² Fundamental Law Pertaining to the Bases of the Social and Political Organization of the FPRY and of the Federal Organs of State Authority (Beograd: Union of Jurists' Associations of Yugoslavia, 1953), articles 4 and 7, pp. 54-56.

³ "General Law on the Management of Schools," The New Yugoslav Law (Beograd: Union of Jurists' Associations of Yugoslavia, 1955). See also School Management Act, National Commission of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia for UNESCO (Beograd, 1956).

⁴ Rodoljub Colakovic, "Usvojen je Opsti Zakon o Skolstvu" (Passage of the General Law on Schools), *Prosvetni Pregled* (Educational Review), 28 (June 27, 1958), 2.

⁵ *Changes in the Programme of Education During the 1958-59 Academic Year*, Secretariat for Education and Culture of the FPRY (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1959), p. 9.

⁶ See article 128 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁷ See article 129 of the General Law in the appendix.

representatives of economic and professional organizations, and other citizens, to review the work of the schools.⁸

The School Committee

Depending on the type of school involved, the following constitute the membership of the school committee: a fixed number appointed by the People's Committee,⁹ a fixed number chosen by the teachers' council from among the teaching staff, and a fixed number elected by voters from among the citizens of the school district. The headmaster of the school, by virtue of his position, is also a member of the school committee but may not be its president. In every secondary school, the committee also includes a specified number of pupils elected by the pupils' organization of the school, and in schools founded by economic and social organizations, a fixed number of members appointed by those groups.¹⁰

The number of school committee members is dependent upon the size and type of school, and may range from 7 to 21 members elected for a 2-year period.¹¹ Meetings of the committee are convened whenever needed but at least three times per year.¹² The authorities or organizations which elect members to the committee may remove a member if he fails to perform, or is neglectful of his duties.¹³

The school committee is responsible for the entire life and work of the school. It takes measures to improve the methods of teaching; cares for material and other conditions for the operation of the school; concerns itself with the health and physical growth of pupils; promotes extracurricular activities, and approves the school budget. The committee is also charged with supervising the work conditions in vocational schools proposing appointment or suspension of teachers; exercising control over school property; and other duties assigned by special regulations.¹⁴

The following table shows the number of school committees for individual types of schools for the 1957-58 school year:

⁸ See article 132 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁹ The People's Committee is the governing body of the municipality—an assembly of two houses.

¹⁰ See articles 135 and 138 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹¹ G. Ernjakovic and Lj. Krneta. *The Yugoslav Educational System* (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1959), p. 19. See also articles 136 and 137 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹² See article 140 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹³ See article 137 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹⁴ See article 134 of the General Law in the appendix. See also "Public Administration of Schools," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, II (September 1957), 7.

Table 41.—School committees, by type of schools: 1957-58¹

Schools	Committees
Elementary schools.....	12, 893
Gymnasias.....	235
Technical and vocational schools.....	218
Schools for qualified workers.....	678
Teacher-training schools.....	70
Art schools.....	39
Special schools.....	44
Adult education schools.....	345
Total.....	14, 522

¹ Jemuovic, *op. cit.*, p. 26.**Table 42.—Citizens on school committees, by type of schools: 1957-58¹**

Schools	Number on school committees
Elementary schools.....	111, 256
Gymnasias.....	3, 101
Technical and vocational schools.....	2, 801
Schools for qualified workers.....	7, 210
Teacher-training schools.....	864
Art schools.....	435
Special schools.....	381
Adult education schools.....	2, 948
Total.....	128, 996

¹ Rodoljub Jemuovic, *Društveno Upravljanje u Prosveti* (Social Management in Education) (Kultura: Beograd, 1959), p. 36.

School committees in the various republics have a relatively small number of women members, as shown in the following table:

Table 43.—Total members and women members of school committees, by republic, 1957-58¹

Republics	Total members	Women	Percentage
Serbia.....	41,922	4,807	11.47
Croatia.....	34,367	5,739	16.70
Slovenia.....	13,836	3,984	28.77
Bosnia-Hercegovina.....	20,645	1,551	7.52
Macedonia.....	12,763	851	6.67
Montenegro.....	5,463	321	5.88
Yugoslavia.....	128,996	17,253	13.37

¹ See footnote 1, table 42.

The composition of the school committees with regard to their occupation shows great variance. Because of the large number of schools located in the villages, agricultural workers are the most numerous on committees, and comprise 42.4 percent of the total members. The next

Table 44.—Composition of school committees, by occupation: 1957-58¹

Occupation	Number on school committees
Industrial workers.....	13,639
Educational workers.....	25,634
Political and other public workers.....	1,763
Technical experts.....	1,864
Medical workers.....	722
Lawyers and economists.....	1,000
Army officers.....	686
Other officeworkers.....	18,259
Agricultural workers.....	54,680
Independent professions.....	3,477
Pensioners.....	1,660
Others.....	5,612
Total.....	128,996

¹ Jemovic, *Društvena Upravljanje u Prosveti i Školstvo*, op. cit., p. 27.

largest group consists of educational workers, followed by other office and industrial workers. The smallest representation is among medical workers and army officers.¹⁵

Council of Teachers

The teachers' council of a school is made up of all its teachers.¹⁶ Its duties include the application, improvement and coordination of the school curriculum; development of appropriate teaching methods; supervision of pupils' social, cultural and recreational activities; improvement of the vocational school curriculum; supervision of the application of rules and regulations; assistance of teachers; division of classes into departments and the appointment of department heads; organization of meetings with pupils and parents, and other related activities.¹⁷

The General Law provides for the establishment of a class (or department) council for the purpose of studying and deciding questions of interest to various subject areas. The class council consists of all the teachers in a particular area.¹⁸

The Headmaster

The headmaster manages the school according to regulations and decisions of the school committee and the council of teachers. He serves as the school's legal representative; is directly responsible for organizing the work of the school and supervising instruction; presides over meetings of the teachers' council; implements state laws and regulations; administers the school and its property and is the direct superior of his teachers and pupils.¹⁹

Other Administrative Bodies

The General Law on Schools establishes the rights and duties of states and social bodies with regard to the administration of schools and other educational institutions.²⁰ Control in the field of education is based upon the principle that state organs have only those rights and duties which are provided by law.²¹ Beyond these rights, administrative organs may not have other official relations with the

¹⁵ Jemovic, *Društveno Upravljanje u Prosveti i Školstvo*, op. cit., p. 27.

¹⁶ See article 145 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹⁷ See article 144 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹⁸ See article 147 of the General Law in the appendix.

¹⁹ See article 149 of the General Law in the appendix.

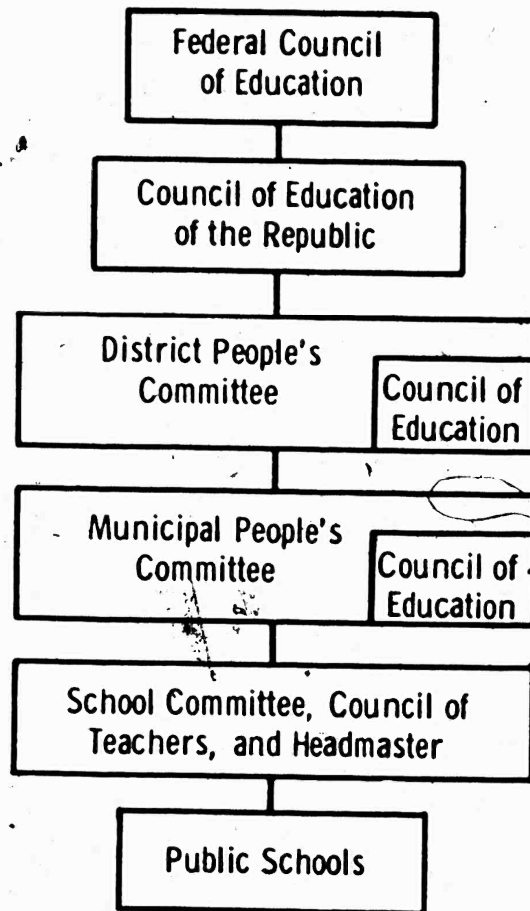
²⁰ See article 19 of the General Law in the appendix.

²¹ See articles 19-24 and sections XV and XVI of the General Law in the appendix.

schools. The General Law excludes their direct interference with the work of the schools, prohibits their direct influence in making decisions, and expressly denies the right to interfere with the process of instruction and education.²²

The administrative organization of the Yugoslav educational system, from the local level to the Federal Council of Education, is shown by the following diagram:

Chart IV.—ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF YUGOSLAV EDUCATION



The rights and duties of the administrative organs toward schools are established on several bases: to control the legality of the work of the schools, that is, to check whether individual organs (school

²² *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Školstvu* (Relations of State Administration and Education in Yugoslavia), Sekretarijat Saveznog Izvršnog Veka za Prosvetu i Kulturu (Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council) (Beograd, February 1961), p. 3.

boards, teachers' councils and principals) correctly apply the social norms which have been adopted; to keep records of the status and work of individual schools in a municipality, district, and, at times, in the republic; and to prepare necessary materials for certain state organs: people's committees, people's assemblies and their executive councils, or for the state-social organs—the councils of education.²³

Municipal Organization

Municipal People's Committee.—This committee is empowered to found elementary schools, gymnasia, vocational schools, and institutions for adult education and advanced professional training. It also examines educational questions of general interest to the community; provides material resources for schools it has founded; appoints headmasters in accordance with special regulations; and enforces the legal provisions concerning compulsory school attendance.²⁴

Council of Education.—This council of the Municipal People's Committee consists of two members elected by the committee from among its members; a fixed number elected from the school committees of schools in the municipality; a fixed number elected by labor union, youth, economic, social and professional organizations, and other educational and public workers appointed by the Municipal People's Committee.²⁵ Prior to the passage of the new General Law, all members of the Council of Education were appointed by the Municipal People's Committee.²⁶

The Council of Education studies questions of common interest in education and proposes regulations and other measures to the Municipal People's Committee; reviews annual reports on the work of schools; proposes the founding of elementary schools and other educational institutions to the committee; announces competitive examinations for the selection of teachers, and appoints or relieves individual teachers; debates draft budgets of the schools and submits recommendations to the Municipal People's Committee; offers guidance in the field of education; supervises the administration of school property; and does other work assigned by special regulations.²⁷

District Organization

District People's Committee.—The General Law empowers this committee to review the general status of educational development in the

²³ *Ibid.*

²⁴ See article 155 of the General Law in the appendix.

²⁵ See article 157 of the General Law in the appendix.

²⁶ *Changes in the Programme of Education . . . 1958-59, op. cit., p. 7.*

²⁷ See article 156 of the General Law in the appendix.

territory of the district, and to introduce measures for which it is authorized. It also has the following duties: to establish a program for the development of elementary schools; to found gymnasia, vocational schools, special schools, and other educational institutions; to provide material resources for schools it has founded; and to appoint headmasters in accordance with special regulations.²⁸

Council of Education.—This Council of the District People's Committee consists of at least two members elected by the Committee from among its members; a fixed number elected by the municipal councils of education, or their delegates, in the territory of a district; a fixed number elected by labor union, youth, economic, social and professional organizations, and other institutions indicated by the District People's Committee; and educational and public workers appointed by the committee. The head of the educational-pedagogical service of the District People's Committee is also a member of the Council of Education.²⁹

The council has the following rights and duties with respect to the management of schools: It studies questions of common interest with respect to education in the territory of the district and makes proposals to the District People's Committee for the introduction of regulations; reviews annual reports on work of the schools and the reports of the educational-pedagogical service; considers the question of teaching and instruction and the implementation of curricula; announces competitive examinations for teacher selection and appoints teachers or relieves them from duty; proposes the founding of schools; debates drafts of budgets for schools founded by the District People's Committee; offers guidance to administrative organs in charge of education; and does other work assigned by special regulations.³⁰

In accordance with Article 163 of the General Law, the District Council of Education is obligated to hold at least one meeting per year with representatives of its municipal councils of the district for the purpose of discussing questions of educational interest.³¹ When the council of education of a municipality or district debates questions which pertain to the work of individual schools, the representative of the school committee or the headmaster is invited to attend the session. These representatives may participate in the work of the council, but not in making decisions.³²

²⁸ See article 160 of the General Law in the appendix. See also "Yugoslavia," *World Survey of Education*, UNESCO, (Paris, 1958), p. 1947.

²⁹ See article 162 of the General Law in the appendix.

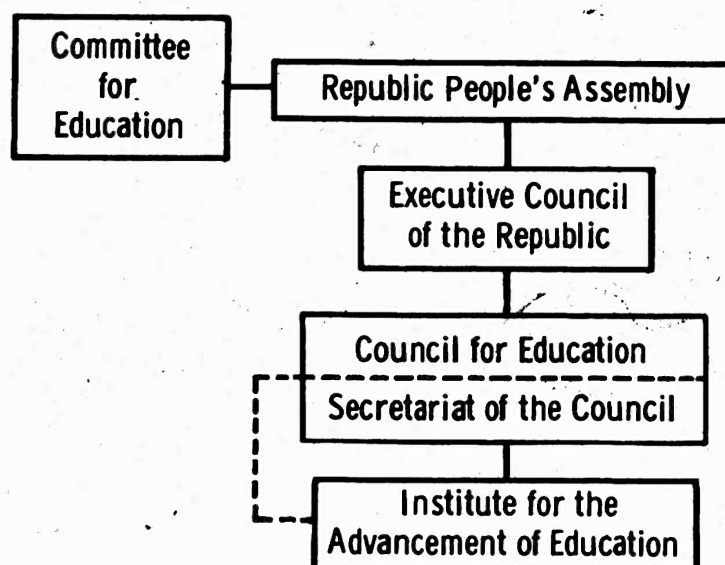
³⁰ See article 161 of the General Law in the appendix.

³¹ See article 163 of the General Law in the appendix.

³² See article 165 of the General Law in the appendix.

Educational-Pedagogical Service.—The organizational structure of the municipal and district levels is the same, with the exception of the educational-pedagogical service on the district level.³³ This service is composed of educators and other pedagogical experts whose functions are: to contribute to better organization of the internal life and work of the school; to study educational problems; to exercise supervision in schools and other educational institutions; to raise professional standards; and to organize refresher courses, seminars and other forms of advanced study for teachers.³⁴ Similar functions are performed at the republic level by the Institute for the Advancement of Education.³⁵ According to Yugoslav sources the municipal people's committee may organize its own educational-pedagogical service.³⁶

Chart V.—ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION AT REPUBLIC LEVEL¹



¹ *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Skolstvu . . .*

Republic Organization

Republic People's Assembly.—The Republic People's Assembly is empowered to promulgate laws and other acts concerned with education in its territory. These acts may be established on the basis of the

³³ See articles 174–181 of the General Law in the appendix.

³⁴ See article 174 of the General Law in the appendix.

³⁵ See article 175 of the General Law in the appendix.

³⁶ *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Skolstvu . . .*, op. cit., p. 16.

federal general laws, or, if there be no such laws, on the initiative of each Republic People's Assembly.³⁷

Committee for Education.—Each Republic People's Assembly has a Committee for Education which is composed of the people's deputies of the republic. The scope of its activities is the same as that of the Committee for Education of the Federal People's Assembly.³⁸

Executive Council of the Republic.—The Executive Council, as the executive organ of the Republic People's Assembly, is composed of people's deputies elected by the assembly. It makes proposals in the field of education, implements acts of the assembly, and establishes other regulations for which it has been authorized. In general, the position of the Republic Executive Council with respect to education is similar to that of the Federal Executive Council. However, the Republic Council is more concerned with problems which are applicable to the conditions and needs of the people's republic.³⁹

Republic Council for Education.—The individual republics do not have an administrative organ in the same sense as that on the federal level. In place of the Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council, each republic has a Council for Education,⁴⁰ composed of a specific number of members from the Executive Council of the republic—educators, health workers, and other public workers. A fixed number of members are elected by the District Councils of Education or by their delegates, and by labor union, youth and professional organizations. In republics where districts do not exist, a fixed number of members are elected by Municipal Councils of Education.⁴¹

The Council for Education in each republic is concerned with problems of general interest for the advancement of schools in its territory, and performs two functions: It discharges an executive-political function by representing the Executive Council in educational matters; and exercises the social management of schools within its territory.⁴² The Council reviews reports on the work of schools and is concerned with the educational and vocational standard of the teaching staff. It establishes curriculums for all schools in the republic; approves and publishes textbooks, manuals, etc.; and plans the further development of schools, with particular stress on general secondary and vocational schools. In addition to these duties, the Council discusses draft laws and other regulations in the field of education;

³⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

³⁸ *Ibid.*

³⁹ *Ibid.*

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*

⁴¹ See article 169 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁴² *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Skolstvu . . .*, op. cit., p. 18.

determines policy and standards for school building; makes proposals for school budgets; keeps teacher records; and proposes the opening of new schools.⁴³

Since 1960, some republics have developed two councils of education: one concerned with general education and the other with technical training.⁴⁴

Secretariat of the Council for Education.—Each Republic Council for Education has a secretariat which prepares questions for council sessions and implements the decisions which the council makes. The secretariat may make decisions in the name of the council, when it is so authorized, but such decisions cannot be of a general character, since these are exclusively made by the council as a collegiate body.⁴⁵

Institute for the Advancement of Education.—The study of educational problems on the republic level is undertaken by the Institute for the Advancement of Education in each republic. Some republics maintain two such institutes—one concerned with general education and the other directed toward technical training. The task of the republic institute is generally the same as that on the federal level, except that its study is focused on local needs and conditions, with special emphasis on problems relating to improved teaching methods.

The republic institute also maintains an educational-pedagogical service in higher and other schools within its territory. In performing this service, the institute is guided by the republic Council of Education.⁴⁶

Federal Council of Education

A new institution, the Federal Council of Education,⁴⁷ established by the General Law, is designed to discuss educational matters of general interest; to debate and pass recommendations on matters which are of interest to schools and other educational institutions in all republics; to determine the bases of the curriculums for various types of schools; to determine the general principles for writing textbooks; and to perform other duties fixed by law.⁴⁸

Members of the Federal Council of Education are appointed by the Federal Executive Council⁴⁹ and by the republic councils for education. Each republic elects three members, while the president and other members are appointed by the Federal Executive Council.⁵⁰

⁴³ See article 168 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁴⁴ *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Školstvu . . .*, loc. cit.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.* See also articles 172 and 173 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁴⁷ In some translations, this body is also referred to as the Council of Education of Yugoslavia.

⁴⁸ See article 170 of the General Law in the appendix.

⁴⁹ The executive organ of the Federal People's Assembly.

⁵⁰ See article 171 of the General Law in the appendix.

In October 1958, the first Federal Council of Education was appointed, and Rodoljub Colakovic, vice-president of the Federal Executive Council was named its president. Other members included six presidents of the republic councils for education, nine public personalities, 21 teachers and professors, 3 delegates of industrial associations, and 5 officials of state administration.⁵¹

The Federal Council of Education does not appear on the chart of "Administrative Organization at the Federal Level," shown on page 93. According to Yugoslav sources, even though the council is called the Federal Council of Education, it is an independent social body outside the system of governmental bodies and represents a new form of implementation of the constitutional principle of social self-management in education.⁵²

It must be pointed out, however, that the Federal Council of Education is authorized to pass legally binding acts in certain cases provided by the law; and appears to be related to the Federal Executive Council, since the latter body appoints members to the Federal Council of Education along with those appointed by the republic councils of education. The law also states (Article 96) that the Federal Council of Education works through the Secretariat for Education and Culture, but information is not available as to the inter-relationship between the Federal Council of Education and the secretariat, or the Committee for Education of the Federal Executive Council.

Vertical Linking in Administrative Organization

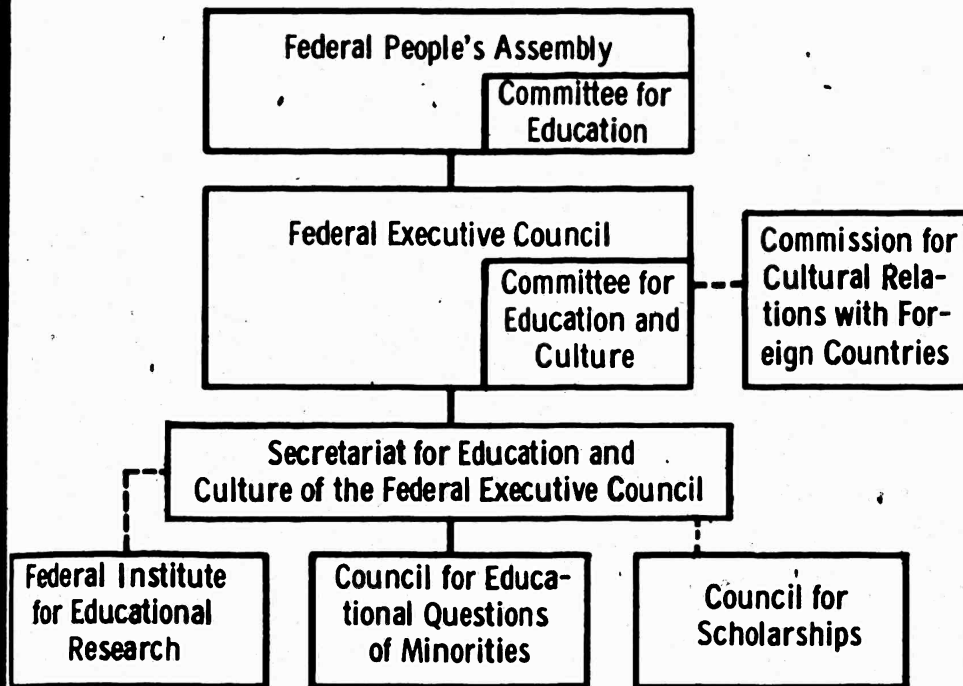
The General Law provides for the participation of each administrative body, ranging from the school committee to the Federal Council of Education, in the selection of a specific number of members on each succeeding council of education. For example, all school committees in a municipality elect members to the Municipal Council of Education. The latter, in turn, selects a fixed number of members to the District Council of Education. The education council in each district participates in the selection of certain members to the Republic Council of Education. A fixed number of members on the newly established Federal Council of Education is selected by the education council in each republic.⁵³

⁵¹ "Federal Council of Education Named," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, III (October 1958) 8.

⁵² *Changes in the Programme of Education . . . 1958-59*, op. cit., p. 8. See also Rudoljub Jemouvic, *Društveno Upravljanje u Prosveti*, (Social Management in Education), Beograd: Kultura, 1959), pp. 110-112.

⁵³ *Changes in the Programme of Education . . . 1958-59*, op. cit., p. 8.

Chart VI.—ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION AT THE FEDERAL LEVEL¹



¹ *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Skolstvu*, (Relations of State Administration and Education in Yugoslavia), Sekretarijat Saveznog Izvrnog Veca za Prosvetu i Kulturam. (Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council), (Beograd, February, 1961), p. 8.

The Federal People's Assembly.—This body, as the supreme governmental authority, is authorized by the Constitution to pass laws and regulations concerning all aspects of social life, as well as laws of a general nature relating to education and culture.⁵⁴ The general laws form the legal basis for legislative action in the republics and are the principles upon which the republics further develop laws adapted to their needs and conditions.⁵⁵

Committee for Education of the Assembly.—As the internal organ of the Federal People's Assembly, this committee, composed of federal people's deputies, performs two basic functions: It considers proposals and gives opinions on educational laws and other acts sent to the Assembly by the Federal Executive Council; and, upon its own initiative, may make suggestions to the Assembly for legislation in the field of education. The committee is not empowered to make final decisions in the legal sense. It is a preparatory organ which submits to the

⁵⁴ Fundamental Law Pertaining to the Bases of the Social and Political Organization . . . , *op. cit.*, pp. 60-61.

⁵⁵ *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Skolstvu* . . . , *op. cit.*, pp. 8-9.

Federal People's Assembly solutions to certain problems which have been studied as to their social usefulness.⁵⁶

Among its duties, the Committee for Education considers: educational and cultural questions and prepares drafts of regulations to be passed by the Assembly; questions of basic principle in the administration of scientific, educational and cultural institutions as well as those questions bearing upon educational and cultural policy; issues related to the activity of educational, scientific, and cultural institutions; and advances its views on draft estimates of revenues and expenditures for the autonomous educational and scientific institutions which are financed from the federal budget, or whose resources are allocated therefrom.⁵⁷

The Federal Executive Council.—This council is the executive organ of the Federal People's Assembly. It proposes regulations in the field of education to the Assembly; supervises the execution and application of laws passed; and, when authorized, provides regulations for their implementation.⁵⁸

Committee for Education and Culture.—The Federal Executive Council has a Committee for Education and Culture which directs educational policy and considers questions and problems of interest to the country as a whole. The committee is composed of members from the Federal Executive Council, representatives of social workers and technical experts, and representatives from each of the republics. Its main task is to consider and give its opinion on all acts which come before the council from the field of education and culture. Since the committee is inter-republic in its composition, the coordination of ideas and activities of the republics in its field of interest is sought through its work.⁵⁹

Secretariat for Education and Culture.—Of the Federal Executive Council's 12 secretariats, one is the Secretariat for Education and Culture.⁶⁰ It is an administrative body which implements regulations and other acts passed by the Federal People's Assembly and the Federal Executive Council; and, if specifically authorized, establishes additional regulations.⁶¹ The Secretary for Education and Culture is a member of the Federal Executive Council, as well as a federal people's deputy,

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

⁵⁷ *Ibid.* See also "Educational Movement in 1953-1954." Report to the XVIIth International Conference on Public Education, Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council (Geneva, 1954), pp. 1-2.

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*

⁶⁰ "State Administration: Its Position and Role," *Information Bulletin About Yugoslavia*, II (August 1957), 2.

⁶¹ *Odnos Drzavne Uprave u Jugoslaviji Prema Prosveti i Školstvu . . .*, loc. cit.

and is directly responsible for the work of the secretariat to the council.⁶³

The secretariat is also a preparatory organ. It submits reports and proposal to the Federal Executive Council, or through it to the Federal People's Assembly. It collects statistical data and documentation on educational matters, and also drafts legal provisions to be adopted.⁶³

The secretariat is divided into organizational units or divisions which perform specific tasks. It also has two councils which are concerned with educational problems and upon whose opinions the secretariat relies in the performance of its work. These are the Council for Educational Questions of Minorities and the Council for Scholarships.⁶⁴

Commission for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.—The commission is a social organ composed of representatives from the republics, from professional associations and organizations, and from individual social and professional workers nominated by the Federal Executive Council. It studies cultural relations between Yugoslavia and other countries, and makes proposals to the Federal Executive Council on matters within the council's jurisdiction. The commission may itself make certain decisions on other matters in the jurisdictional field.⁶⁵

Federal Institute for Educational Research.—This technical institute studies various educational problems through scientific and technical methods. It greatly facilitates the work of the Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council, and of other educational institutions. The institute was established under the General Law on Education for the following purposes: to organize and study problems from the field of education, especially those regarding instruction and teaching methods in schools and other educational institutions; to keep informed of the results and achievements in the field of pedagogical theory and practice; and, to assist in the application of modern developments and methods in education.⁶⁶

⁶³ *Ibid.* See also: "Yugoslavia," *World Survey of Education*, UNESCO, (Paris, 1958), p. 1456.

⁶⁴ *Ibid.*

⁶⁵ *Ibid.*

⁶⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*

SOCIOPOLITICAL ORGANIZATIONS CONCERNED WITH EDUCATION

Role of the League of Communists in Education

THE LEAGUE OF COMMUNISTS is the leading political organization in Yugoslavia. Its aim is to develop a socialist society in the evolution toward Communism. By means of ideological and political work, the league endeavors to "develop socialist awareness among the working masses." Through conscious and consistent activity in every field of life, the League of Communists is considered to be the vanguard of socialist development in Yugoslavia, and it seeks to be the ideological and political leader.¹ Its members continuously strive to implement the programs and policies of the league, and its fundamental method of work, as stated by the Resolution of the Sixth Congress of the League of Communists, is through "persuasion":

The League of Communists is not and cannot be the direct executive leader and commander in its work, in economic, in state or in social life, but with its political and ideological activity, it strives, primarily by persuasion, for the adoption of its policies and positions, or for the positions of its particular members in every organization, body, and institution.²

According to the Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council, the League of Communists does not have within its organization a special department "that would play a role in the field of education". This role, it is stated, belongs to the organs of social management in individual educational institutions and in the councils of education. The secretariat indicates that the organs of social management are "freely formed and that their members are all those citizens who are likely to contribute to its work, and that it is

¹ Bosidar Durovic, ed., *Yugoslav Survey* (Belgrade; Jugoslavija, July-September 1960), vol. I, No. 2, p. 151.

² *Ibid.*, p. 153.

not required that they be members of the League of Communists".¹

However, the League of Communists of Yugoslavia has a Commission for Ideological Questions which, in its activities, considers problems in the field of education. According to Yugoslav government sources, the commission does not impose its conclusions through administrative decisions, but seeks to exert its influence through "argumentation and persuasion". It is stated that the commission "has no direct contact with schools or educational organs, but imparts its opinions publicly".²

Other organs of the League of Communists are concerned with educational questions. In 1950, for example, the Third Plenary Session of the Central Committee was devoted exclusively to the development of education in Yugoslavia. It is stated that its recommendations for decentralization of state educational organs had an important influence later in the implementation of social management in the field of education.³ The League of Communists is also concerned with education in its Congresses.⁴ The Resolution of the 7th Congress of 1958 included among its tasks "unceasing attention to the solution of the most important problems in the school system, in education, and in culture".⁵

In addition to the League of Communists, there are other social and political organizations interested in education. Among these are The Socialist Alliance of Working People of Yugoslavia, The Trade Union Confederation, professional organizations of educational workers, and people's youth organizations. The Secretariat of Education and Culture states that these organizations utilize the same methods as the League for the adoption of their programs and policies and that they, too, refrain from direct administrative interference in education.⁶

Pioneer organizations.—Boys and girls, aged 7 to 15, attending elementary school, may be members of the voluntary pioneer organizations which form the school pioneer detachments, grouped according to grade level. In the upper grades, children may join detachments according to their interests: cultural-educational societies, such as

¹ *Uloga Saveza Komunista Jugoslavije u Oblasti Školstva* (Role of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia in the Field of Education), Sekretarijat Saveznog Isvrnog Veka za Prosvetu i Kulturu (Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council) (Beograd, February 1961), pp. 1-2.

² *Ibid.*, p. 2.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ The Congress of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia is the supreme body of the League. It generally meets every five years, although a special congress may be convened earlier on the initiative of the Central Committee. Source: Durovic, *op. cit.*, p. 167.

⁵ Durovic, *op. cit.*, p. 155.

⁶ *Uloga Saveza Komunista Jugoslavije . . .*, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

drama, music, and folklore; technical activity groups in radio, photography, and electro-mechanics; physical culture societies, and groups interested in various subject-matter areas. The pioneer organizations are engaged in furthering the common aim of education stressed in Article 3 of the General Law on Education, with special attention to "work and social activities, the maintenance of the People's Liberation War, the strengthening of brotherhood and unity of the Yugoslav Peoples, and the spirit of internationalism and humanism."⁹

People's Youth of Yugoslavia.—This is an independent, sociopolitical organization whose membership is composed of school and out-of-school youth from 15 to 25 years of age.¹⁰

The characteristics and tasks of the People's Youth Organization have been presented as follows.¹¹

The People's Youth is a unified political youth organization rallying to itself all segments of youth, working on its education in a socialist spirit and directing its forces in the struggle for the construction of a socialist society.

The People's Youth is an educational organization aimed at having its members adopt socialism as their world outlook. In addition to work on the ideological education of youth, People's Youth seeks to build its members as comprehensively developed social personalities, ones possessing a broad outlook and a good education; and, that they should be active citizens of the socialist community. To this end, it pursues various forms of educational, cultural, and physical upbringing of youth. It is pledged to constant improvement of the conditions for the education, rest, and recreation of youth.

The People's Youth is a voluntary organization whose membership includes young people from 15 to 25 years of age. Eligible for membership . . . is every young man or woman who accepts the programme, principles, and the Statute of the People's Youth organization and desires to work in one of its local branches.

Government sources state that although the People's Youth adopts the program and aims of the League of Communists and is affiliated with the Socialist Alliance of the Working People of Yugoslavia, "it is neither a section, nor a transmission, nor an instrument of these organizations; no decision of these organizations is binding upon the People's Youth organization, except after its membership has adopted it"¹²

In the municipalities and districts there are committees of People's Youth which serve to integrate the work of the local branches in their

⁹ *Changes in the Programme of Education During the 1958-59 Academic Year*. Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council of FPRY (Beograd: Jugoslavija, 1959), pp. 31-32.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 34.

¹¹ "People's Youth Organisation of Yugoslavia," *Information Service Yugoslavia* (Beograd, 1957), p. 8.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 9.

area. The highest organ of the People's Youth in the municipality and in the district is the Conference of People's Youth, which is held annually. The highest organ of the People's Youth at republic and federal levels is the Congress, held every fourth year. These organs "determine the line of development of the organization, deliberate on its tasks in the period ahead, and elect municipal, district, and central committees of the People's Youth in the republics and the Central Committee of the People's Youth of Yugoslavia".¹³

In addition to the People's Youth, other youth organizations include the different sports federations, the organizations for technical training, the Holiday Federation, the Union of Boy and Girl Scouts, the "Partisan" Physical Education Federation, the Federation of Mountaineers, Aeronautical Federation Clubs, and the Federation of Cultural Societies.¹⁴

A SUMMARY—PROGRESS AND PROBLEMS IN YUGOSLAV EDUCATION

Education in Yugoslavia signifies much more than the mere acquisition of knowledge. It has become a national symbol to a people who, for many centuries, were subjected to foreign domination and were prevented from acquiring a high degree of literacy.

Following World War II, efforts were made to expand and industrialize the nation's economy and to elevate the general cultural level. The need for industrial expansion necessitated the extension of compulsory education. New branches in the economy required new types of vocational schools and changes in curricula in other types of schools. Efforts toward the elimination of illiteracy necessitated the extension of education to all school-age children, as well as adults, including members of national minorities, and required the establishment of additional facilities.

Compulsory education was extended from 4 to 7 years and finally to 8 years. Until the passage of the new General Law on Education in 1958 various organizational forms existed in the educational system. These included 4-, 6-, and 8-year schools along with the lower grades of the full gymnasium. Training was primarily theoretical. The new law provided for a comprehensive 8-year elementary school of general education. All schools were uniform in purpose, basic curricula, and organization. A new concept was also given to "general education"

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 12. See also *Changes in the Programme of Education During the 1958-59 Academic Year*, *op. cit.*, pp. 34-35.

which included technical training as a component part of the school program.

The privileged position of the gymnasium in the former school system was replaced by the equal ranking of all schools on the secondary level. Since the industrial and vocational schools required the same basic 8-year preparation, they were no longer considered as "lower" or at the periphery of interest of educational authorities. The new economy, on a higher technical level than before, required skilled manpower with broad technical and cultural background which the former vocational schools failed to provide. Demands were made for a school organization which would make available to all students the opportunity for advancement, as well as training for skilled and highly skilled occupations.

With its four lower grades incorporated into a compulsory 8-year school, the gymnasium became a 4-year school of general education. This new gymnasium differed from the former in the following respects: It was considered as a finishing school for those students who decided to enter the employment field, general education was expanded to include technical training, and its curricula had both a required and an elective part.

Prior to the Second World War, only graduates of the gymnasium were permitted to enroll in the university. In the postwar period, the right to enroll in a corresponding school of higher learning was granted to students of secondary vocational schools. Today, all citizens, on the basis of successful school records, are permitted to enroll in all schools. Formerly, junior vocational school students were not permitted to transfer to secondary vocational schools or to the gymnasium. Under the new law, students may transfer from one secondary school to another for purposes of continuing their education. The law further provides that not only citizens who complete the regular school may enroll in universities or schools of higher learning, but also those who lack such qualifications, providing they pass an entrance examination which shows they can successfully benefit from instruction.

Increasing attention was also paid to the training of teachers in the postwar period. Formerly, little practical training was provided, as most courses were on a theoretical level. Under the new General Law, special pedagogic academies have been proposed to train elementary school teachers, open to graduates of the secondary schools and offering a 2-year training course. This type of school is to replace the former teacher-training on the secondary level.

Education in Yugoslavia is free from the elementary school through

the university. The municipalities and districts provide funds in their budgets for the elementary and secondary schools, while the republics provide for the financing of the universities and schools of higher learning.

Although 8-year compulsory education is provided by law, all students do not attend school, generally because of the lack of available space and facilities. The realization of compulsory education is expected to be gradual and in proportion to the material development of the community. While, in the past, inadequate use has been made of the higher elementary grades as a transitional step between the 4- and 8-year school, this method may continue to be used for the realization of compulsory education. A trend has also developed toward the merging of small schools into larger organizational units. Inadequate facilities have also created problems on the secondary level. Although a greater number of students are enrolling in vocational schools each year, many are turned away because they cannot be accommodated. In addition, there is a shortage of teaching personnel.

In comparing Yugoslav education with that of the United States, it is important to note the following: The 8-4 plan in Yugoslavia is much like that in the United States, with some exceptions. Students start school at the age of 7 in Yugoslavia as compared with age 6, usual in the United States; the study of languages is begun at a much earlier age in Yugoslavia (usually in the fifth grade, sometimes in the fourth); greater stress is placed on general-technical education; courses in social and moral education are provided in the compulsory school, as well as physics, chemistry, and biology. There is a trend for students to remain in school for 6 hours per day.

On the secondary level, schools in Yugoslavia are divided into those for general or vocational training. In the United States the trend is toward development of the comprehensive type of high school. In the Yugoslav gymnasium, general-technical training is required of all students. Philosophy and psychology, generally beginning at the junior college level in the United States, are part of the curriculum of the Yugoslav secondary school of general education.

A study of the developments in the educational system of Yugoslavia during the last 20 years shows that significant strides have been made in the country, despite the obstacles created by economic underdevelopment and the holocaust of war.

It is perhaps too early to anticipate the effect of the present changes in the Yugoslav educational field. It should be remembered, for one thing, that any school administrative

system is temporary and subject not only to a succession of minor changes, but even, under various circumstances, to major changes. One who has talked with government leaders, reviewed the literature, and kept pace with the trends of education in Yugoslavia during the past period of development can only be impressed by the Yugoslav people's intense interest in and dedication to education as an essential element in their achievement of progress, national identity, and security.

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APPENDIX

GENERAL LAW ON EDUCATION¹

Part One

I. BASIC PRINCIPLES

ARTICLE 1

The social community, through state organs, economic and social organizations, shall found and develop schools and other institutions for the purpose of promoting education, in the interest of an all-round development of the socialist society and of the personality of the individual.

ARTICLE 2

The schools and other institutions for education shall be independent social institutions organized upon the principles of social management.

ARTICLE 3

The aim of education shall be:

To enable the young generations to contribute by their work, based upon the modern achievements of science and technology, to a continuous development of the socially owned productive forces, to the strengthening of socialist social relations, to the growth of the material welfare, and to the cultural development of the social community as a whole, as well as to the personal welfare and progress of the working people;

To provide the foundations for a scientific world outlook, to develop the sense of the young generation regarding the creative power of the human mind and material activity in the knowledge and changing of nature and society, in the creation of material welfare, culture and civilization, and in building up of socialist social relations;

To acquaint the young generations with the history and achievements of the Yugoslav peoples and of mankind in various fields of scientific, technical, cultural and artistic creation, and make it possible for them to acquire a wider general and professional education;

To contribute to the building up of an all-around human personality, of an independent and critical spirit possessing intellectual, high character, and moral and working qualities of the citizen of a socialist community;

To educate the young generations in the spirit of brotherhood, unity, and equality of the people of Yugoslavia, loyalty to the socialist homeland and defense of independence in the spirit of an all-around and equal cooperation and mutual aid among peoples, in the interest of peace and

¹ Translated into English by the author from "Opsti Zakon o Skolstvu" (General Law on Education), *Službeni List FNRJ* (Official Gazette of the FPRY) (Beograd: July 16, 1958), pp. 746-761.

progress in the world, and in the spirit of international solidarity of the working class;

To develop the sense of social responsibility and need for active participation in social life and social management among the young people;

To contribute to the physical education of youth in the interest of elevating the ability to work and a healthy personal life.

ARTICLE 4

In the realization of the aim of education, the schools and other institutions for education shall cooperate with the family, with the economic, labor union, youth and other social organizations, and with the professional associations, institutions, and services.

The schools shall participate in various activities, and shall themselves organize these activities, for the purpose of cultural development of the area in which they are situated.

ARTICLE 5

Education shall be achieved by means of a unified system which shall consist of: pre-school institutions, elementary school, gymnasium, vocational and higher vocational schools, university faculties, schools of higher learning, and art academies, institutions for adult education and for advanced professional training (regular schools, various schools for adults, workers' and people's universities and other institutions and forms).

Education of certain kinds of professional cadres shall be done also by means of direct work in the economic organizations and institutions.

The compulsory basic education and professional training of children handicapped in physical and mental development shall be done in special schools.

Education shall also be carried out in pupils' homes and other educational institutions outside of schools.

The education of teachers, in addition to university faculties, schools of higher learning and art academies, shall also be done in special schools founded for that purpose.

ARTICLE 6

All citizens between seven and fifteen years of age shall be obligated to attend elementary school.

Elementary education shall last eight years.

ARTICLE 7

All citizens, regardless of nationality, sex, social origin or religion, shall enjoy equal rights to education under the same conditions.

ARTICLE 8

After completion of the elementary school, education may be continued in vocational schools and in the gymnasia (Secondary school of general education).

Under conditions laid down by law, pupils of vocational schools and of the gymnasia may, for the purpose of continuing their schooling, go from vocational school to gymnasium, and from gymnasium to vocational school.

After completion of the gymnasium or vocational school, education may be continued at higher vocational schools, university faculties, schools of higher learning and art academies.

The vocational schools and gymnasia shall provide the corresponding final education.

ARTICLE 9

Enrollment in the gymnasium, vocational and higher vocational schools, at University faculties, schools of higher learning and art academies shall be done on a competitive basis which shall require conditions to be fulfilled for enrollment.

In the gymnasium and vocational schools, unless otherwise determined by law for specific types of vocational schools, the citizens who have finished the elementary school may enroll under equal conditions.

The citizens who have finished the gymnasium or vocational school shall have equal rights to enroll, under the prescribed conditions, at the corresponding higher vocational schools, university faculties, schools of higher learning and art academies.

Every citizen may enroll at a higher vocational school, university faculty, school of higher learning or art academy, if, according to the prescribed conditions and curriculum, he shows that he possesses qualifications and ability for successful studies.

ARTICLE 10

Education in schools shall be free.

Those pupils who show success in their work shall be given the necessary material aid from social funds in accordance with special regulations.

For the purpose of aiding pupils in the attendance of school and assuring better conditions for education, the state organs, economic and social organizations and institutions shall concern themselves with the founding of dormitories for pupils, school restaurants, and similar institutions.

Health and medical service for the pupils shall be provided according to special regulations.

ARTICLE 11

Teaching in the schools in the entire territory of Yugoslavia shall be based upon uniform principles.

Teaching in schools shall be done on the basis of curricula.

The curricula shall be determined in the manner prescribed by this Law.

The curricula, as well as the organization of work and life in each school, must be adapted to the intellectual and physical potentialities of pupils, the growth and life requirements of youth.

ARTICLE 12

Teaching in schools shall be done in the respective languages of the peoples of Yugoslavia.

ARTICLE 13

National minorities shall enjoy the right of teaching subjects in the national languages of the minorities in conformity with the provisions of this Law, and with the international obligations of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia.

ARTICLE 14

Education shall be based upon the premises of the sciences and principles of pedagogy, upon the achievements of the history and culture of the peoples

of Yugoslavia and other peoples, and upon the ideological foundations and the humanist spirit of socialism.

In the realization of the aim of education and in teaching, the teachers shall be independent.

ARTICLE 15

With the aim of developing the sense of responsibility in the pupils towards work and success in school, the pupils shall be assured active participation in various forms of work and life of the school.

Pupils of a specific age shall participate in the management of the school and other institutions for education.

ARTICLE 16

The schools shall issue certificates of completion of schooling which shall have the character of a public document.

The value of the certificates which other institutions for education issue shall be determined by law.

The certificates shall entitle the holders to only those rights which law specifies.

Certificates acquired in the territory of one People's Republic shall have the same value in the entire territory of Yugoslavia.

ARTICLE 17

Schools and other institutions for education shall work in conformity with law and other regulations, as well as on the basis of rules and statutes of schools and institutions.

ARTICLE 18

Individual schools shall be founded by law or other acts in accordance with the provisions of this Law.

ARTICLE 19

The state organs shall have rights and duties toward the schools and other institutions for education as determined by law.

ARTICLE 20

For the purpose of dealing with questions affecting education which are of general interest, for the purpose of consultation and agreement on questions which are of common interest for the schools and other institutions for education in all the People's Republics, as well as for the purpose of laying down the bases of the curricula for the elementary schools, the vocational and higher vocational schools and gymnasia, there shall be established a Federal Council for Education as an independent social body.

ARTICLE 21

In addition to the rights and duties determined by laws, the Councils for Education of the People's Committees of municipalities and districts and of the People's Republics, as territorial organs of social management, shall perform public work which is of common interest to the schools and other institutions for education in the territories of municipalities, districts, and Republics.

ARTICLE 22

For the purpose of cooperation and mutual assistance, as well as for the purpose of dealing with technical, pedagogical and other questions of common interest, the schools in the territory of a municipality or district may hold joint meetings, consultations and so on.

ARTICLE 23

For the purpose of advancing education, for the purpose of exercising pedagogical supervision over its realization and supervision over the implementation of the regulations for the organization and work of schools, as well as for the purpose of assisting the teachers in the carrying out of teaching and in their professional training, an educational-pedagogical service shall be organized, in accordance with the provisions of this law.

ARTICLE 24

The basic principles of this Law shall apply to all schools and institutions for education.

For the schools which are founded for the requirements of the Yugoslav People's Army, special Federal regulations shall apply.

Part Two—The System of Education

II. INSTITUTIONS FOR PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

ARTICLE 25

For the children of pre-school age, special institutions and other forms of education shall be organized (kindergartens, nurseries, day-nurseries, play-grounds, etc.).

These institutions and other forms of education may be organized depending on the local conditions and needs.

ARTICLE 26

The tasks of the institutions for pre-school education shall be expressly:

To organize for the children proper entertainment, games, and social life and thereby to contribute to their further education,

To help the parents, especially those who are employed with the caring for the children and educating them,

To cooperate with the parents and extend professional aid to them in connection with the education of children.

The institutions for pre-school education shall encourage and assist, in the places in which they are functioning, various forms of assembling and educating the children and, to that end, especially cooperate with social organizations for the care of children.

ARTICLE 27.

The institutions for pre-school education shall be established by the People's Committees of municipalities, by housing communities, and by economic and social organizations and institutions.

The founder shall be obligated to provide material resources, staff and hygienic and other conditions necessary for the work of these institutions.

III. ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ARTICLE 28

Elementary education shall be acquired in elementary schools. Elementary schools are schools of general education.

ARTICLE 29

The tasks of the elementary schools shall be expressly:

To extend to pupils the bases of socialist education and of modern general education,

To help the all-around development of pupils, to develop working habits, to cultivate and encourage their personal abilities and aptitudes and help them with the choice of a vocation.

For a more successful realization of its tasks, and for helping parents with education, the elementary school shall cooperate with the family.

ARTICLE 30

The bases of the curricula for the elementary schools shall be determined by the Federal Council for Education.

The curricula for elementary schools in the territory of a People's Republic shall be prescribed by the Council for Education of the Republic in conformity with the bases of the curriculum.

The council for education of the People's Committee of a municipality may supplement the curriculum in accordance with the requirement of the respective locality and school conditions, and in conformity with the prescribed curriculum. This Council shall be obligated to obtain in advance the opinion and proposals of individual schools as well as of the economic and social organizations concerned.

ARTICLE 31

All children who complete seven years of age by the end of the calendar year, shall enroll in the elementary school.

On the basis of medical opinion and according to the facilities of the school, physically and mentally developed children who reach six and a half years of age at the end of the calendar year, may also enroll in the elementary school.

Physically and mentally handicapped children shall attend special schools.

ARTICLE 32

Parents or guardians shall be responsible for their children regularly attending the elementary school.

The organs of the People's Committee of a municipality and school organs shall concern themselves with regular attendance of the elementary school.

ARTICLE 33

The pupil of an elementary school may not be expelled from the school while his compulsory education period lasts.

ARTICLE 34

The pupil who is prevented by illness or other justifiable reasons from regularly attending school during a long period, may make up for the lost time by taking special examinations for individual classes or by regularly completing the elementary school up to the seventeenth year of age.

A person over fifteen years of age who has not completed the elementary school, may complete it by taking special examinations.

IV. GYMNASIUM

ARTICLE 35

The Gymnasium is a school of general education.

ARTICLE 36

The tasks of the gymnasium shall be expressly:

To widen and deepen the knowledge of natural and social sciences and general technical education;

To cultivate and encourage the personal abilities and aptitudes of pupils and help them with the choice of further studies and vocation;

To contribute to further intellectual, physical, social, moral, and aesthetic education of pupils for the purpose of training them for active social work as well as for a wholesome cultural life.

ARTICLE 37

The studies in the gymnasium shall consist of a general and elective part. The general part shall be common for all pupils.

The elective part of studies will enable the pupils to acquaint themselves more deeply, according to their abilities and aptitudes, with individual fields of general education. Every pupil shall be obligated to choose one of the elective fields.

The gymnasium shall prepare those pupils who so desire for various practical activities.

Certain gymnasiums may have the task to provide on a wider scale the knowledge of classic languages and to deepen education in liberal arts.

ARTICLE 38

The bases of the curricula for the gymnasium shall be laid down by the Federal Council for Education.

The curricula for the gymnasium shall be prescribed by the councils of education of the People's Republics in conformity with the bases of the curricula of the Federal Council for Education.

ARTICLE 39

The studies in the gymnasium shall last four years.

Special examinations may also be taken in the gymnasium.

At the end of the studies in a gymnasium a final examination has to be taken.

V. VOCATIONAL AND HIGHER VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

1. General Provisions

ARTICLE 40

The common tasks of the vocational and higher vocational schools shall be expressly:

To assure to the social community a continuous inflow of various professional personnel: skilled and highly skilled workers, technical and other professional personnel on the required professional and cultural level which will contribute to a continuous and proper development of productive forces and to the advancement of social services;

To make it possible for youth to acquire the necessary professional qualifications, according to their abilities and aptitudes and in conformity with the needs of the community;

To contribute to further intellectual, physical, social, moral, and aesthetic education of the pupils for the purpose of training them for active social work, as well as for a wholesome cultural life.

The vocational and higher vocational schools shall also work as institutions for adult education and for advanced professional training.

ARTICLE 41

The vocational schools are: the schools for skilled workers, the schools for highly skilled workers, the technical and other vocational schools for economy and public services, and the art schools.

ARTICLE 42

The bases of the curricula for various types of vocational schools (Article 41) and higher vocational schools shall be laid down by the Federal Council for Education.

The curricula for the vocational and higher vocational schools shall be prescribed by the councils for education of the Republics in conformity with the bases of the curricula (of the Federal Council for Education).

The laying down of the bases and the prescribing of the curricula shall be done on the proposal of the economic, labor union and social organisations and professional associations concerned, as well as the organs of administration in charge of the pertinent activity or service.

Special regulations for various kinds of vocational schools may prescribe that the Council for Education of the Republic, in agreement with the organ of administration in charge of the pertinent activity or service, prescribe the curricula.

ARTICLE 43

The vocational and higher vocational schools may organize special classes for pupils who do not attend regular classes.

In these schools special examinations also may be taken.

ARTICLE 44

In the interest of training professional cadres in accordance with the requirements of economic and public services, the vocational and higher vocational

schools shall constantly cooperate with the economic organizations and institutions concerned.

ARTICLE 45

The organization and work of the vocational and higher vocational schools shall be determined by a separate Federal general law.

The training of specific kinds of professional cadres by means of direct work in economic organizations and institutions (Art. 5, par. 2) shall be regulated by regulations of the Federal Executive Council Secretariat for Labor.

2. Schools for Skilled Workers**ARTICLE 46**

The schools for practical training and schools for apprentices shall train skilled workers and vocational cadres for public services.

ARTICLE 47

The tasks of the schools for practical training and schools for apprentices shall be expressly:

To provide practical and theoretical vocational education which provides a basis for practical activity;

To provide education in natural and social sciences by which the general education of the pupil is broadened and deepened for the purpose of more successfully acquiring vocational, practical, and theoretical education and training for an active social life.

The practical-vocational education shall constitute a part of the entire studies, and shall be conducted under the general leadership and supervision of the school in the school workshops, in economic organizations and institutions.

ARTICLE 48

The practical training in the practical-vocational schools shall be done in special workshops or in an appropriate way in actual work in economic organizations or institutions.

ARTICLE 49

The elementary practical-vocational training of apprentices shall be done directly in economic organizations. For the purpose of supplementing the vocational education which is acquired through practical work in economic organizations, practical-vocational education shall also be conducted in workshops of these schools, schools with practical training, or in workshops of economic organizations especially organized for this purpose.

ARTICLE 50

Depending upon the degree of realization of eight year compulsory education, the special circumstances, and conditions prevailing in various areas, the Executive Councils of the People's Republics may prescribe regulations that persons who have not completed the elementary school may also enroll in the schools for skilled workers of specific vocations. Such pupils shall be provided conditions in order to successfully follow instruction (preparatory course, preparatory year, etc.).

ARTICLE 51

At the end of their schooling, the apprentices and pupils from schools for practical training shall take a final examination for the rank of skilled worker or for acquiring the proper vocational qualification.

The Federal Executive Council, or the organ which it designates, shall prescribe the program and manner of taking the examinations.

3. Schools for Highly Skilled Workers

ARTICLE 52

Schools for highly skilled workers shall prepare highly skilled workers, or their corresponding vocational cadre, for economy and public services.

ARTICLE 53

Persons who have spent the prescribed period of time working in production as qualified workers may enroll in the school for highly qualified workers.

Upon the completion of education in schools for highly skilled workers a final examination shall have to be taken.

The Federal Executive Council or the organ which it designates shall prescribe the program and manner of taking of the examination.

4. Technical and Other Vocational Schools for Economy and Public Services

ARTICLE 54

Technical and other professional schools for economy and public services (technical schools) shall prepare technicians, and corresponding vocational cadres, for economy and public services (technical, economic, agricultural, medical, transport and so on).

ARTICLE 55

The tasks of the technical schools shall be expressly:

To extend education which provides vocational-theoretical training for practical activity in a specific branch, as well as vocational practical training in the school workshop linked up with practical work in economic organizations and institutions;

To extend general education in economic and social sciences by means of which the general education is deepened and widened for the purpose of a more successful acquisition of the theoretical and practical vocational education.

ARTICLE 56

For enrollment in certain technical schools, if the character of the school so demands, a higher school qualification than completion of the elementary school may be prescribed as a condition, as well as other special conditions.

For the pupils who have completed the school for skilled workers, shortened courses in the technical schools may be prescribed.

ARTICLE 57

At the end of studies in the technical schools, a final examination shall be taken.

5. Art Schools

ARTICLE 58

The art schools shall extend to pupils, in addition to the general education, training students in specific branches of art or applied art, and thereby preparing them for relative activities or for further education in art.

ARTICLE 59

Pupils who have finished the elementary school and have passed an entrance examination may enroll in the art schools.

At the entrance examination, the abilities of the pupils for education in the relative branch of art or applied art shall be tested.

Under special regulations, pupils who have not finished the elementary school may also enroll in certain art schools, under the condition that before the completion of the art school, they must complete the elementary school.

Upon the completion of studies in the art schools, the final examination shall be taken.

ARTICLE 60

To extend the bases for education in various branches of art and preparation for further studies, the necessary institutions and other forms of education may be organized in the art school.

6. Higher Vocational Schools

ARTICLE 61

The higher vocational schools shall prepare cadres for various technical or professional duties or services which require extended or specialized vocational education and provide advanced training for vocational cadres.

ARTICLE 62

Depending upon the kind of schools, persons who have finished the vocational school for skilled or highly skilled workers, the technical school or gymnasium, as well as persons who have acquired the prescribed qualifications in the institutions for adult education and professional training, may enroll in the higher vocational schools.

By a special law or regulation of the Federal Executive Council, it may be prescribed that persons who do not possess the qualifications referred to in the preceding paragraph, but who have spent a specified period of time doing practical work in the corresponding activity and who pass the entrance examination at which they shall show that they possess the general education required for successful studies, may also enroll in certain higher vocational schools.

**VI. UNIVERSITY FACULTIES, SCHOOLS OF HIGHER
LEARNING AND ACADEMIES**

ARTICLE 63

The tasks of the university faculties, schools of higher learning and art academies shall be expressly :

To prepare highly qualified experts for various branches of social activities;

To organize and promote scientific work and prepare intellectual workers;

To contribute to the economic, cultural, and social development of the country in cooperation with the economic, cultural, and other institutions and organizations.

ARTICLE 64

The organization and work of the university faculties, schools of higher learning and academies shall be regulated by a special Federal law.

VII. SPECIAL SCHOOLS

ARTICLE 65

Special schools shall be founded in order to make it possible for children and youth who are physically and mentally handicapped to acquire elementary general and vocational education and training for independent life and work.

Special Federal regulations shall apply to elementary education of morally and socially handicapped children.

ARTICLE 66

The tasks of the special schools shall be expressly:

To work on the development of abilities and aptitudes of the pupils and on reduction and removal of shortcomings and disorders in development;

To contribute towards the physical and mental development of pupils;

To orient, prepare, and train pupils for those professions and duties which correspond to their abilities and aptitudes, and make possible their participation, in a useful and active way, in the economic and social life;

To assist the parents in proper rearing and educating of children who are handicapped in their development.

ARTICLE 67

Education of children who are handicapped in physical and mental development shall be accomplished:

In pre-school, school and other institutions organized for that purpose;

In special schools or sections of corresponding medical and social institutions.

ARTICLE 68

In the realization of the aim of education and training, the special schools and institutions shall cooperate with the professional and social organizations concerned.

ARTICLE 69

Children, whom the commission of experts in the corresponding medical and other institutions find to require such an education and training, shall be sent to the special schools and corresponding institutions.

Pupils going through special schooling may pass to regular schools on the basis of the opinion of the commission of experts.

ARTICLE 70

Secretariats for Education, Public Health and Social Welfare of the Federal Executive Council shall by agreement introduce regulations governing the keeping of records and division into categories of children who are sent to special schools.

VIII. SCHOOLING FOR MEMBERS OF NATIONAL MINORITIES

ARTICLE 71

In the territories in which national minorities live, elementary schools or sections of these schools shall be founded for the members of those minorities, in which teaching will be in the national language of the respective national minority.

ARTICLE 72

In the territories in which national minorities live, in pre-school institutions for the members of these minorities, educational work will be in the national language of the respective minority.

ARTICLE 73

In the area in which national minorities live, the members of these minorities shall also have the right to instruction in the language of the minority in the gymnasium and vocational school or in sections of these schools.

ARTICLE 74

The training of teachers for the schools for the members of national minorities shall be in the languages of the minorities and for this purpose special schools or sections in schools for teacher training shall be founded.

ARTICLE 75

In the schools and sections for the members of national minorities, the curriculum shall also include the teaching of the subject of their national culture.

For the purpose of ensuring active participation by the national minorities in the social life of the country, in the schools and sections for the members of the national minorities, the teaching of the language of the respective People's Republic shall also be one of the subjects.

ARTICLE 76

In the territories in which national minorities and peoples of Yugoslav nationalities are mixed, bi-lingual schools shall also be opened, depending upon the facilities available.

ARTICLE 77

The People's Republics shall introduce, in conformity with the provisions of this Law, regulations governing the organization of the schools in which subjects are taught in the languages of the nationalities of each minority.

IX. ADULT EDUCATION AND ADVANCED PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

ARTICLE 78

For the purpose of making it possible for the citizens to supplement and improve their general education and professional qualifications and to acquaint them with the progress and achievements in the field of science, technology and culture, adult education and advanced professional training shall be organized.

ARTICLE 79

The basic tasks of adult education and advanced professional training shall be expressly:

- To extend literacy, practical knowledge and general education to citizens;
- To make possible vocational training and retraining by extending vocational qualifications and training, by means of widening and improving vocational knowledge as well as by acquiring higher knowledge including also the knowledge obtained at schools of higher learning and universities;
- To extend proper social-economic education to producers and workers in public services;
- To enable citizens to broaden their knowledge of various fields of science, technology, and culture according to their personal interests, inclinations, and needs.

ARTICLE 80

Institutions and organizations founded for that purpose shall concern themselves with adult education and advanced professional training, namely: the workers' and people's universities, various schools for adults, cooperative schools, domestic science schools, schools for village youth, centers for training of cadets, popular science and technology organizations, etc.

All schools, ranging from elementary school to university faculty, as well as social and economic organizations and institutions and public health centers, libraries, museums, etc., shall also concern themselves with adult education and advanced professional training.

ARTICLE 81

Institutions for adult education and advanced professional training (Art. 80) shall develop their organization, activities, tasks, method and forms of work in conformity with the needs of the social, economic and cultural development of the country and coordinate it with the requirements of the respective area, enterprise or institution, as well as with the interests and needs of individuals.

These institutions shall work, as a rule, according to the curricula adapted to the age of the students.

ARTICLE 82

The People's Committees and other state organs, the economic, cooperative, professional and social organizations shall found institutions and various forms for adult education and advanced professional training.

ARTICLE 83

The People's Committees, the councils of the republics and the republic and federal organs of administration in charge of the affairs of corresponding public services and of the affairs of education, shall be obligated to concern themselves with the development of institutions and other forms for adult education and

advanced professional training, and especially with the training and specialization of teachers for work in them, and also to provide material conditions for the work of these institutions.

Economic and cooperative organizations, labor unions, associations and institutions shall concern themselves with the development of institutions and other forms of adult education, and especially with professional training of producers, and they shall provide material conditions for the work of these institutions.

ARTICLE 84

General principles governing the values of certificates of completed studies in various institutions for adult education and advanced professional training which provide specific professional qualifications, shall be prescribed by regulations of the Federal Executive Council or the organ which it designates.

X. TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

ARTICLE 85

Teachers for general education schools, vocational schools and special schools, as well as for institutions for pre-school education, adult education and advanced professional training shall be trained in special schools founded for that purpose and in other schools foreseen by this law.

ARTICLE 86

The teachers shall be trained in these schools: schools for teachers of nursery schools, schools for teachers for elementary schools (normal schools), higher teacher training schools, academies of pedagogy, schools for training teachers for vocational schools, schools for training teachers for special schools, schools for training instructors in physical education, as well as university faculties for philosophy, natural sciences, mathematics, and art schools and art academies.

Training of teachers shall also be done in other schools. Teachers trained in schools whose basic tasks is not the training of teachers must also possess the necessary pedagogical training.

ARTICLE 87

The tasks of the schools for training of teachers shall be the following:

To provide students with professional knowledge for the realization of the general aims of education and of special tasks of schools in which they will teach;

To extend to students pedagogical training for teaching and for utilization of modern teaching methods and forms of educational work.

The schools in which the teachers are trained shall also carry on research work in the field of education for the purpose of advancing education and training and in preparing students for this work.

These schools shall also work for advanced training of teachers.

ARTICLE 88

Persons who have finished the gymnasium, normal school or a vocational school of a corresponding rank may enroll in higher teacher training schools, schools for teachers for pre-school institutions, and schools for teachers of vocational

schools, while for enrollment in other schools, for the training of teachers, the existing regulations shall apply.

ARTICLE 89

The organization and work of the schools for the training of teachers shall be regulated by a special federal general law.

Part Three—The Life and Work of Schools

XI. PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE INTERNAL LIFE AND WORK OF SCHOOLS

ARTICLE 90

Every school and other institution for education regardless of its social tasks, shall be so organized that its entire internal life, relationship, forms and methods of work contribute towards the realization of the aim of education.

ARTICLE 91

A school shall be obligated expressly:

To apply and develop the forms and methods of educational work which are based upon the linking of teaching with the application of acquired knowledge;

To achieve the linking of education with productive work by means of utilizing out-of-school activities of youth and in cooperating with economic and social organizations and institutions.

Vocational schools, especially the schools for skilled workers, shall devote particular attention to the conditions and organization of practical training in the school workshops and in various economic organizations.

ARTICLE 92

The internal life and work of schools should be based upon the methods, forms of work, and internal relations which contribute towards:

Inspiration of initiative and development of independent activity in pupils, accustoming them to thorough study, working out and seeking the truth of subject matter;

Development of intellectual interest, independent judgment and critical spirit;

Building an attitude of mutual respect and trust between pupils and teachers;

Development of the significance and need of pupils for mutual cooperation and help in the solving of problems of school and social life.

ARTICLE 93

The school shall inspire the expansion and enrichment of educational work by means of various forms of free activities of pupils.

In cooperation with social organizations, the teachers shall help with the organization and carrying out of the program of free activities for the pupils.

ARTICLE 94

In cooperation with the institutions for vocational guidance, the school shall help parents and pupils with the choice of school and vocation according to the aptitudes and abilities of the pupils, and to this end it shall follow their development and give information on the character and conditions of work of various types of schools and vocations.

ARTICLE 95

For the purpose of cooperating and coordinating the educational activity of the school and family, joint meetings of school organs, teachers, parents and pupils shall be held.

ARTICLE 96

The principles governing evaluation of pupils and conditions for promotion in various kinds of schools shall be prescribed by the Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council on the proposal of the Council of Education of Yugoslavia.

ARTICLE 97

The school year shall begin on September 1, and end on August 31.

Teaching during the course of the school year shall last not less than two hundred and ten teaching days. The duration of teaching for various kinds of schools, in conformity with their character, shall be prescribed by the Council of Education of the respective People's Republic.

The Council of Education of the respective People's Republic shall determine the beginning and ending of the teaching period and the school holidays, according to climatic conditions and the character of the school.

ARTICLE 98

During school holidays, on Sundays, and on state holidays there shall be no teaching in schools.

ARTICLE 99

Regulations for a unified system of keeping records in schools shall be introduced by the Secretariat for Education and Culture of the Federal Executive Council in agreement with the Federal Executive Council Secretariat for General Administration.

XII. THE PUPILS

ARTICLE 100

Every pupil shall have the right and duty to contribute, according to his age, towards the realization of the aim of education in his school.

For this purpose the pupils shall be obligated to attend school regularly, to work and study, to respect the rules of school life and work and to fulfill other obligations of pupils.

ARTICLE 101

For the purpose of developing initiative, independence, a sense of discipline and responsibility of pupils for their work and success of the school, as well as an active assistance to the teachers in the carrying out of education, the pupils of the final year of the elementary school, as well as pupils of vocational schools

and gymnasium, shall form class organizations and school organizations of pupils.

ARTICLE 102

At meetings of their organizations the pupils shall discuss all questions affecting the life and work of the school.

The class and school organizations of pupils shall, through the members which it shall select for that purpose, as well as through pupils who are members of the school committee, acquaint the school organs with its opinions and conclusions, submit to them its proposals pertaining to the rules of the school, the organization and carrying out of the educational work and the social life of the school, and it shall attend their sessions when these questions are discussed.

The organization of pupils shall attempt to have all pupils conscientiously carry out the tasks entrusted to them by the school organs.

ARTICLE 103

For the purpose of improving their social and cultural life, technical education and physical training, the pupils may establish their organizations and clubs.

Pupils' organizations shall be voluntary and shall be based upon the principles of self-government of pupils.

The founding of the pupils' organizations and clubs, with the exception of those which are founded in accordance with other regulations, shall have to be approved by the school committee after obtaining the opinion of the teachers' council.

ARTICLE 104

In dormitories for pupils, a dormitory organization shall be formed which shall consist of all the pupils (students). The dormitory organization shall deal with all the questions of the life and work in the dormitory and acquaint the organs of management of the dormitory through representatives of its opinions and conclusions and also submit its proposals and demands pertaining to the improvement of the life and work in the dormitory.

ARTICLE 105

Those pupils who distinguish themselves by their work and conduct may be commended or rewarded.

Disciplinary measures may be applied against those pupils who do not fulfill their duties and violate the rules of school life.

XIII. THE TEACHERS

ARTICLE 106

As educators and experts, the teachers shall actively participate, through their work in school and outside of it, in the education of youth and in the spreading of education and culture.

The rights and duties of the teachers as civil servants shall be determined by a federal law.

ARTICLE 107

The teachers shall organize and conduct the educational work of the school and shall be responsible for the achievement of all the aims of education.

ARTICLE 108

A person may be a teacher who possesses the prescribed general pedagogical and professional qualifications and who with his or her work and life, social and moral qualities provides a guarantee for the realization of the aims of education.

ARTICLE 109

In the institutions for pre-school education, teachers may be persons who have finished the school for teachers in pre-school institutions or a corresponding school.

Teachers of the elementary school may be persons who have finished the normal school, the higher teacher training school or academy of pedagogy, while persons who have graduated from the corresponding university faculty, school of higher learning or art academy may also teach individual subjects.

Persons who have finished the corresponding school for training teachers of special schools, may be teachers in special schools and corresponding institutions.

Persons who have graduated from the corresponding university faculty, school of higher learning or art academy, may be teachers in the vocational schools and gymnasium, while persons who have finished the corresponding vocational school or school for training of teachers of vocational schools may also teach individual subjects.

It shall be determined, by regulations on individual kinds of schools and other institutions for education, what other qualified persons may perform the work of teachers or instructors in those schools and institutions.

ARTICLE 110

In order to enable teachers and instructors to improve their professional and pedagogical knowledge and to follow the progress of pedagogical theory and practice and subjects in which they teach, an obligatory periodical advanced training of teachers shall be introduced.

Part Four—The Position and Organization of Schools and Other Institutions for Education

XIV. THE FOUNDING OF SCHOOLS AND MEANS FOR THEIR WORK

1. *Opening and Closing*

ARTICLE 111

The elementary schools shall be founded by the municipal Committees in accordance with the program of school development which shall be drawn up by the District People's Committees on the proposal of the municipal People's Committees in the territory of a district.

ARTICLE 112

The gymnasia, vocational schools and special schools shall be founded by the People's Committees of municipalities and districts, as well as by the competent federal and republic organs in accordance with the program of development of these schools, which shall be drawn up by the Executive Council of the respective republic on the proposal of the Council of Education of the Republic.

Vocational schools may also be founded by economic and social organizations within the framework of the program of development of the respective kind of school. For the founding of a vocational school by such organizations, it shall be necessary to obtain permission from the Council of Education of the People's Committee of the respective district in agreement with the council responsible for the affairs of the corresponding domain of administration. The council may not refuse to issue permission for the founding of the school if the founding of the school is envisaged by the program of development of the corresponding kind of vocational schools, and if the other prescribed conditions have been fulfilled.

Higher vocational schools shall be founded on the basis of law, on the basis of a decision of the Federal Executive Council or under regulations of the representative body of the autonomous unit.

ARTICLE 113

The decision for the founding of a school shall be rendered and the program for development of the elementary schools drawn up by both councils of the respective People's Committee with equal rights.

The proposal for the drawing up of the program of development of schools in the territory of a municipality or district shall be made by both councils of the People's Committee with equal rights.

ARTICLE 114

A school may be founded if the prescribed conditions have been fulfilled with respect to the number of pupils, teaching staff, school premises, equipment and teaching aids, as well as other conditions provided for by laws on various kinds of schools.

ARTICLE 115

The People's Committees of two or more municipalities and districts may agree to found a school jointly or to found another institution for education.

Two or more economic or social organizations may agree to jointly found a pre-school institution, vocational school, or institution for adult education and advanced vocational training or to jointly participate in the maintenance of a school or institution.

ARTICLE 116

The founder shall have such rights and duties towards the school or another institution for education as provided for by law or other regulations.

ARTICLE 117

An elementary school may begin operation only after the organ of administration of the People's Committee of the district responsible for education ascertains, through a special commission of experts, that the conditions for commencing school work have been fulfilled.

The gymnasia, vocational schools, and special schools may begin operation only after the secretariat of the Council of Education of the Republic ascertains, through a special commission of experts, that the conditions for the commencing of work of the respective kind of school have been fulfilled.

ARTICLE 118

If it is determined that the elementary school does not fulfill any of the conditions for work, the council of education of the People's Committee of the district shall invite the founder to undertake measures for the fulfillment of those conditions within a specified period of time.

If it is determined that a gymnasium, vocational school, or special school does not fulfill any of the prescribed conditions for work, the Council of Education of the Republic shall invite the founder to undertake measures for the fulfillment of those conditions within a specified period of time.

If the founder of the elementary school does not remove the shortcoming within the specified period of time, the district council shall render a decision that the elementary school or its specific department provisionally stops work until the prescribed conditions for the work of that school are fulfilled. The decision for temporary cessation of work of other schools or their departments or sections shall be rendered under the same conditions by the Council of Education of the Republic.

The decision referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be rendered on the basis of the findings of a special commission of experts.

ARTICLE 119

A school may be abolished on the proposal of the founder and after obtaining the opinion of the school committee, only under conditions laid down by laws for various kinds of schools which pertain to the conditions of work of the school, the fulfillment of the task of a school and the need of its further existence.

A school may also be abolished if for reasons of unfulfillment of the conditions for work, the responsible organ decides that the school or its specific department or section temporarily stops work, and even after the expiration of the period left to the founder for the undertaking of measures for the fulfillment of those conditions, it is ascertained by a special commission of experts that, for reason of failure to establish the necessary conditions, further work of the school is impossible.

The decision for the abolition of the school shall be rendered by the Executive Council of the Republic.

ARTICLE 120

Every school shall have rules governing its internal order and work.

2. Funds Necessary for the Work of a School

ARTICLE 121

The funds for the maintenance and work of a school shall be provided by the founder.

For the schools which are founded by state organs, the funds shall be provided in the budget of the respective territorial-political unit.

Additional funds for the work of the schools may also be provided by subsidies given by state organs, institutions, economic and social organizations, as well as from special funds established for this purpose.

ARTICLE 122

The estimate of a school budget which has been founded by a state organ shall be drawn up by the school committee.

The school committee shall transmit the draft school budget together with explanations to the organ responsible for the inclusion of the budget into the general budget of the respective territorial-political unit.

ARTICLE 123

The budget of a territorial-political unit shall contain the total amount of funds for the work and maintenance of each school separately. The total amount of the funds for personnel expenditures and the total amount of the funds for other expenditures of a school, shall be shown separately in the budget.

ARTICLE 124

The estimate of a school budget shall be drawn up by the school committee within the limits of the total amount of the funds provided in the general budget of the territorial-political unit for the maintenance and work of the school, as well as other incomes of the school. The estimate of expenditures which it draws up shall be transmitted by the school committee to the council of education of the respective territorial-political unit from whose budget the school is financed.

ARTICLE 125

The final account of the total expenditures of a school shall be drawn up by the headmaster of the school and endorsed by the school committee.

ARTICLE 126

The provisions of Articles 121 to 125 shall also apply to financing of other institutions for education founded by state organs.

With respect to the financing of schools and other institutions for education founded by economic and social organizations, the provisions of this Law pertaining to the financing of schools founded by state organs shall apply.

XV. ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS FOR EDUCATION

1. Social Management of Schools

ARTICLE 127

A school shall be jointly managed by the teaching staff and citizens who can contribute to the accomplishment of the tasks of the school and who shall be appointed or elected by the appropriate organs, meetings of voters and organizations and institutions concerned.

In the management of the school, pupils of a determined age shall also participate through their representatives.

ARTICLE 128

The following shall directly manage a school as social organs: the school committee, the council of teachers, and the headmaster of the school.

ARTICLE 129

In the realization of social management, every organ of a school shall have an independent sphere of activities, and their mutual relations shall be founded upon the rights and duties determined by law.

ARTICLE 130

The organs which manage a school, every one within its sphere of activities and through cooperation, shall concern themselves with the teaching in the school and the entire work and life of the school realizing the aim of education and particular task of the school.

ARTICLE 131

The organs of a school shall exercise their rights and duties on the basis and within the framework of laws and other regulations, as well as the school statute.

ARTICLE 132

At the end of every school year joint meetings shall be held of the school committee, the teachers, the pupils, the representatives of the organs and economic organizations concerned, the professional associations and institutions, the parents and other citizens, at which the state and work of the school and the execution of its tasks shall be reviewed on the basis of the report submitted by the headmaster.

ARTICLE 133

Management of individual vocational schools founded by state organs for the requirements of their own services, shall be regulated, in conformity with the principles of this Law, by separate regulations on those schools.

2. The School Committee

ARTICLE 134

The school committee shall do the following work :

Concern itself with the entire work and life of the school, review the results of the work and state of the school and undertake measures for improving the education of the pupils; concern itself with the improvement of material and other conditions for the work and life of the school; help with the organization and improvement of the social, cultural and recreational life, physical culture and technical education of the pupils in the school and outside of it;

Concern itself in the vocational schools with the work conditions of the pupils in their practical work, and with the school workshops, which are to fulfill their tasks in accordance with the requirements of instruction, as well as with the work conditions of the apprentices;

Introduce the school regulations, draft an estimate of expenditures, and secure the final financial account of the school;

Concern itself with the health and social protection of the pupils; concern itself with the accommodations, feeding, living conditions, and educational of pupils in their dormitories and in similar institutions; and study and propose the granting of scholarships to pupils;

Concern itself with promoting cooperation and linking the school with the economic and cultural-artistic organizations, organizations for physical culture and technical education, and other social organizations whose activities are connected with the work of the school and with the education of youth;

Propose to the respective council of education the holding of competitive examinations for the selection of teachers; propose the filling of the vacancies and relieving from duties of individual teachers;

Deal with the proposals and petitions submitted by citizens in connection with questions of general interest for the work of the school;

Exercise general supervision over the utilization of public property given to the school for administration;

Deal with the complaints submitted by parents, teachers, and pupils; decide on the application of disciplinary measures against pupils when this is placed within its competence by special regulations.

ARTICLE 135

Depending on the kind of school, the school committees shall consist of:

A specified number of members appointed by the respective People's Committee at a joint session of both councils on the proposal of the council for education;

A specified number of members elected by the council of teachers from among the school teachers;

A specified number of members elected by the meetings of voters from the territory of the school from among its citizens;

A specified number of members selected from among their members by the economic and social organizations, professional associations, and institutions concerned.

The headmaster of the school, by virtue of his position, shall be a member of the school committee.

The school committee of the gymnasia and vocational schools shall include a specified number of pupils, whom the pupils' organization of the school shall elect.

The school committee of the schools founded by economic and social organizations shall include a specified number of members appointed by those organizations.

The composition and manner of election of the members of the school committee shall be determined by the law on the respective kind of school.

The total number of members of the school committee, the number of the members appointed or elected by individual organs, meetings of voters, institutions and organizations, shall be determined by the statute of every school, which will also specify the organizations and institutions which have to elect the members of the school committee.

ARTICLE 136

A school committee shall consist of at least seven members.

ARTICLE 137

The mandate of a school committee shall last for two years.

The election of the school committee shall be made at the beginning of the school year.

The organ or organization which elects the members of the school committee may remove certain members which it has elected even before the expiration of this period, if such member is not able to perform his duties or neglects them.

The responsible municipal or district council may dissolve the school committee and hold elections for a new school committee, if the work of the school committee is contrary to regulations.

The school committee may file a complaint against the decision of dissolution with the next higher organ.

ARTICLE 138

The school committee shall elect a chairman from among its members.

The headmaster or school teacher may not be elected as chairman of the school committee.

ARTICLE 139

The meetings of the school committee shall be convened by the chairman, and he shall be obligated to convene meetings at the request of one third of the members of the committee, at the request of the headmaster of the school, at the request of the council of teachers, or on the proposal of the pupils' organization of the school.

A meeting may also be called at the request of an economic or social organization or institution for the purpose of dealing with questions of interest to the school and to the corresponding organization or institution.

The headmaster of the school shall assist the chairman of the school committee in the preparation of the meetings of the committee.

ARTICLE 140

The school committee shall meet if and when necessary, but it must meet at the beginning of every school year, at the end of a semester, and at the end of every school year.

ARTICLE 141

The school committee shall decide on the affairs which belong to its sphere of activities at its meetings.

The school committee may reach decisions if more than one half of the members of the committee are present at the meeting, and it shall render decisions by a majority of votes of the attending members.

The school committee may set up commissions for preparation and study of various problems which affect its sphere of activities.

ARTICLE 142

The decisions of the school committee in connection with the affairs which belong to its sphere of activities shall be binding on the council of teachers, on the class council, and on the headmaster of the school.

The school committee may make recommendations regarding the work of the council of teachers, of the class council, and of the headmaster of the school.

The members of the school committee shall be obligated from time to time to inform the bodies which have elected them of the work of the school committee and of the work of the school, and render to them an account of their own work.

The school committee shall submit a report on the work of the school to the respective People's Committee at the end of the school year. It shall also be

obligated to submit a report at the request of the respective council of the municipality or district.

3. The Council of Teachers

ARTICLE 144

The council of teachers shall do the following work :

Concern itself with the successful realization of the aims of education in the school, especially with teaching, improvement and coordination of work in education, and render appropriate decisions; concern itself with the development of the methods and forms of work which contribute to an all-around and proper education of youth, and linking of teaching with productive work; coordinate the work of various departments and teachers, propose and undertake measures for improvement of their work and of the school as a whole; help with the development of the social, cultural, and recreational life of pupils;

To work out in detail the curricula, concern itself with carrying it out, and make proposals for its improvement; review the work and results of individual classes, class councils, and teachers;

In the vocational schools, devote special concern to the work conditions and vocational training of the pupils in practical work, and to devote attention to proper coordination of practical teaching and work with the demands of the curriculum;

Help the teachers with their pedagogical improvement and advanced training in the subjects in which they teach;

Decide on the division of classes into sections and assign teachers by sections and subjects; appoint heads of classes;

Cooperate with the organization of pupils of the school; maintain permanent connections with parents, economic organizations in which the pupils are trained for practical work, as well as with the institutions and organizations concerned;

Award prizes and make commendations for success in school, if the headmaster, the class council, or the head of the class is not so authorized;

Review various problems in the field of activity of the school committee and propose the introduction of appropriate measures and decisions; determine the report on the work of the school which the headmaster has to submit to the school committee;

Give opinions to the school committee regarding the founding of pupils' organizations;

Deal with complaints of pupils and parents, decide on the use of disciplinary measures within its competence determined by special regulation.

ARTICLE 145

The council of teachers shall consist of all the teachers of a school.

The council of teachers shall work in sessions.

ARTICLE 146

The sessions of the council of teachers shall be convened by the headmaster, and he shall be obligated to convene the council into session at the request of the

school committee, the class council, or one fifth of the teachers, as well as on the proposal of the organization of pupils of the school.

The decision of the council of teachers shall be valid if a majority of all the members of the council votes for it.

ARTICLE 147

For the purpose of studying and deciding questions of teaching and education and other questions of interest for various classes or sections, a class council shall be formed.

The class council shall consist of all the teachers of a class or section.

The sessions of the class council shall be conducted by the head of the class.

In the schools which have which have several sections of the same class, all the teachers of those sections shall meet for the purpose of dealing with questions of common interest.

ARTICLE 148

When the session of the council of teachers or class council deals with questions for the decision of which the opinion and proposal of the pupils is important, the council of teachers or class council may conclude that the question be first dealt with by the organization of pupils and invite the representative of the pupils to the session.

4. The Headmaster

ARTICLE 149

The headmaster shall manage the school directly in accordance with regulations as well as with the decisions of the school committee and the council of teachers.

The headmaster shall directly organize the work of the school and exercise supervision and give advice regarding teaching.

The headmaster shall represent the school and shall be the legal representative of the school.

The headmaster shall prepare and conduct the meetings of the council of teachers, concern himself with the implementation of laws and other regulations and also with carrying out decisions and recommendations of the school committee and of the council of teachers, and conduct the administration of the school.

The headmaster shall order expenditures from the school funds.

The headmaster is the direct disciplinary superior of the teachers.

The headmaster shall decide on the use of such disciplinary measures against pupils for which he is authorized by special regulations.

ARTICLE 150

The headmaster of a school may suspend the execution of decisions of the school committee, of the council of teachers, or of the class council which is rendered outside of administrative proceedings, if he considers that the conclusion is not in conformity with regulations.

The headmaster shall be obligated to immediately transmit the decisions of the school committee or council of teachers, the execution of which he has suspended through the responsible organ of administration to the responsible council of education. The council shall be obligated to render a decision on the suspension.

The headmaster shall be obligated to immediately transmit the decision of the class council, the execution of which he has suspended, to the council of teachers which shall immediately render a decision on the suspension.

ARTICLE 151

The provisions of this Law which apply to the headmaster shall also apply to the principal of a school.

5. The Principles Governing Management of Other Institutions for Education

ARTICLE 152

The provisions of this chapter which pertain to management of schools shall accordingly apply to management of other institutions for education.

ARTICLE 153

The pupils' dormitories and other educational institutions which are founded as independent institutions, shall be subject to social management, by a committee (council) which shall consist of the following: a fixed number of members appointed by the People's Committee of the municipality; a fixed number of members who shall be elected as their representatives by the school committees of the schools concerned; a fixed number of members elected from among the youth, economic and other social organizations and institutions according to the kind and tasks of the educational institution; a fixed number of members elected by the monitors, as well as a fixed number of members elected by the pupils.

The head of the institution shall be a member of the committee (council) by virtue of his position.

In the dormitory homes for pupils and other educational institutions, councils of monitors shall be set up which shall consist of all the monitors in the institution.

The statute of the institution shall determine the total number of members of the committee (council), the number of the members elected by the organs concerned, the monitors, the organizations, the institutions and other bodies and pupils, as well as the rights and duties of the council of monitors.

The provisions of this Article shall accordingly apply to students' home dormitories.

ARTICLE 154

Dormitories for pupils and other educational institutions which are a part of the school shall be managed by the school committee. For direct performance of pre-determined administrative work, the school committee may set up a special commission from among its members and other persons.

**XVI. THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF STATE AND LOCAL ORGANS
TOWARDS SCHOOLS AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS FOR EDUCATION**

1. The People's Committees and Their Organs

ARTICLE 155

The People's Committee of a municipality shall exercise the following rights and duties towards the management of schools and other institutions of education:

Review the general situation and questions of common interest for the development and advancement of the school and other institutions for education in the territory of the municipality, and introduce regulations and undertake measures for which it is authorized;

Found elementary schools, gymnasia, vocational schools, institutions for adult education and advanced professional training and other educational institutions;

Provide material resources for the schools which it has founded;

Appoint headmasters of schools in accordance with special regulations;

Concern itself with the implementation of the regulations for compulsory attendance in elementary schools;

The founding of schools and providing of material resources for the work and maintenance of the schools, shall be done by both councils (municipal council and council of producers) equally; the appointment of the headmaster of a school shall be done by both councils at a joint session, while the other work mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be done by the municipal council.

ARTICLE 156

The council of education of the municipal People's Committee shall exercise the following rights and duties with respect to the management of schools and other institutions for education:

Study and review the status and questions of common interest for schools and other institutions for education in the territory of the municipality and make proposals to the People's Committee of the municipality for introduction of regulations and undertaking of measures which belong to its sphere of activities; introduce regulations and undertake measures for which it is authorized; make recommendations to the school organs in connection with questions of common interest to the schools;

Endorse the statutes of the schools and other institutions for education, unless otherwise prescribed by this Law or special regulations for certain kinds of schools;

Review the annual reports on the work of the schools and other institutions for education; and the reports of the educational-pedagogical service on the work of the schools in the territory of the municipality, as well as questions affecting the teaching work and implementation of the curricula;

Propose the founding of elementary schools and other institutions for education to the People's Committee;

Invite competitive examinations for the selection of teachers for schools and other educational institutions, and appoint and relieve individual teachers from duty in conformity with separate regulations;

Debate on the draft budgets of the schools founded by the municipal People's Committee, and transmit it together with its opinion to the People's Committee;

Give guidance for the work of the organ in charge of the affairs of education and review reports on its work;

Exercise supervision over administration of public property given for school use and other institutions for education;

Also do other work assigned to it by special regulations.

ARTICLE 157

The council of education of the People's Committee of a municipality shall consist of:

At least two members elected by the People's Committee of the municipality from among its members;

A fixed number of members elected from the school committee or delegates of school committees of schools in the territory of the municipality;

A fixed number of members elected by the labor union organizations, People's Youth organizations, economic and other social organizations, professional associations and institutions indicated by the municipal People's Committee;

Educational and other public workers appointed by the municipal People's Committee.

The municipal council shall determine the number of members of the council and the number of members to be elected by the school committees or their delegates, and also what organizations and institutions shall elect members of the council, and the number of members which they elect.

The head of the organ of administration responsible for the questions of education shall, by virtue of his position, be the secretary of the council and he shall have the rights of a member of the council.

ARTICLE 158

The council of education of the People's Committee of a municipality shall be obligated to hold at least one meeting a year with representatives of all school committees from the territory of the municipality for the purpose of discussing the questions of principle and other questions of interest for the work of the schools and other institutions for education.

ARTICLE 159

Supervision over the legality of the work of all the schools and other institutions for education, with the exception of higher vocational schools, shall be exercised in conformity with special regulations by the municipal organ of administration in charge of the affairs of education.

ARTICLE 160

The district People's Committee shall exercise the following rights and duties towards the management of schools and other institutions for education:

Review the general status and questions of common interest for the development and improvement of schools and other institutions for education in the territory of the district and introduce regulations and undertake measures for which it is authorized;

Draw up the program for development of elementary schools;

Found gymnasia, vocational schools, special schools, and other institutions for education;

Provide material resources for the schools which it has founded;

Appoint the headmaster of the schools in accordance with special regulations.

The founding of schools, providing of material resources for the work and maintenance of the schools, as well as the drawing up of the program of elementary school development, shall be done by both councils equally; the head-

master of a school has to be appointed by both councils at a joint session, while the other work referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be done by the district council.

ARTICLE 161

The council of education of the district People's Committee shall exercise the following rights and duties with respect to the management of the schools and other institutions of education:

Study and review the situation and questions of common interest for the schools in the territory of the district, and make proposals to the People's Committee of the district for the introduction of regulations and the undertaking of measures affecting its sphere of activities; introduce regulations and undertake measures for which it is authorized;

Endorse the regulations of the schools and other institutions for education founded by the People's Committee of the district;

Review the annual reports on the work of the schools and other institutions for education founded by the People's Committee of the district, the reports of the educational-pedagogical service on the work of the schools in the territory of the district, as well as the question of teaching and instructional work and implementation of the curricula;

Invite competitive examinations for the election of teachers and appoint and relieve from duty individual teachers in accordance with separate regulations;

Propose the founding of schools and other institutions for education by the People's Committee;

Debate the drafts of budgets of schools founded by the district People's Committee, and transmit them together with its opinion to the district People's Committee;

Give guidance to the work of the organ of administration in charge of the affairs of education, and review the reports of its work;

Do also other work assigned to it by special regulations.

ARTICLE 162

The council of education of the district People's Committee shall consist of:

At least two members elected by the district People's Committee from among the councilmen;

A fixed number of members elected by the councils of education of the municipal People's Committees in the territory of a district or by the delegates of these councils;

A fixed number of members elected by the labor union organizations, People's Youth organization, economic and social organizations, professional associations, chambers and institutions indicated by the district council;

Educational and other public workers appointed by the People's Committee of the district.

The head of the educational-pedagogical service of the People's Committee of the district shall also sit on the council.

The district council shall determine the number of members of the council and the number of the members to be elected by the councils of education of municipalities or their delegates, and also what organizations and institutions are to elect their representatives on the council and the number of those representatives.

The head of the organ of administration in charge of the affairs of education

shall by virtue of his position be the secretary of the council and shall have the rights of a member of the council.

ARTICLE 163

The council of education of the district People's Committee shall be obligated to hold at least one meeting a year with the representatives of its municipal councils from the territory of the district for the purpose of discussing questions of principle and other questions of interest for the work of the school and other educational institutions.

ARTICLE 164

Supervision over the legality of work of higher vocational schools shall be exercised by the organ of administration of the district in charge of the affairs of education, unless otherwise provided by separate regulations.

ARTICLE 165

When the meeting of the council of education of a municipality or district has to debate questions which pertain to the work of individual schools or other institutions for education, the representative of the school committee and the headmaster of the school or representative of the institution shall be invited to the session. These representatives may participate in the work of the council, but they may not participate in making decisions.

The councils of education may set up commissions to study individual questions belonging to their spheres of activity and submit proposals on them.

The councils of education shall adopt their rules of procedure.

ARTICLE 166

The organ of administration of the municipal People's Committee in charge of the affairs of education shall keep records of teachers and educators of all schools and other institutions for education who are appointed by the municipal People's Committees or their organs, while the organ of administration of the district People's Committee in charge of the affairs of education shall keep records of all the teachers and educators of all the schools and institutions for education in the territory of the district.

ARTICLE 167

In exercising the right of supervision over the legality of the work in the schools and other institutions for education, the municipal and district organs of administration in charge of the affairs of education shall have the right to seek of the headmaster of a school or institution data on the work of the school or institution and other data necessary for the performance of the work which belongs to the sphere of activities of the organs of administration.

If the organ of administration ascertains that the school organs are not observing the regulations, it shall be obligated to draw their attention to the inconsistency of their work with regulations and to their obligations under the regulations.

If the organ of administration ascertains that the school committee or the council of teachers has rendered a decision which conflicts with regulations, it shall suspend the decision from execution and immediately transmit it to the responsible council of education, which shall render its own decision on the suspension.

*2. The Council of Education of the Republic***ARTICLE 168**

In addition to the rights and duties determined by separate regulations, the Council of Education of a Republic shall exercise the following rights and duties:

Review the general situation and questions of common interest for the development and advancement of schools and other institutions for education in the territory of the People's Republic;

Review the reports of the educational-pedagogical service on the work of the schools in the territory of the People's Republic and give guidance for its work;

Exercise the rights and duties towards the higher vocational schools given to it under separate regulations for this kind of school;

Concern itself with the training and improvement of professional knowledge of the teaching staff;

Propose to the Executive Council of the Republic the program of developing gymnasia, vocational and special schools and concern itself with its implementation; give guidance for the formulation of programs of development of elementary schools to the People's Committees of the district.

Introduce curricula for all schools in the territory of the People's Republic;

Concern itself with the publication of textbooks, handbooks, and construct teaching aids and approve their publication and construction;

Discuss draft laws and other draft regulations pertaining to education and teaching and concern itself with the implementation of regulations in that field;

Give opinions and proposals regarding the funds which have to be secured in the budget of the People's Republic for the purpose of expanding the school network, maintaining school buildings, and improving the work of the schools;

Determine policy and prescribe standards and conditions for the building of school houses and school equipment;

Propose the opening of new schools;

Keep general records of teachers and educators in the territory of the People's Republic.

ARTICLE 169

The Council of Education of a Republic shall consist of:

A specific number of members appointed by the Executive Council of the Republic from among the members of the Council, educators, health workers, and other public workers;

A fixed number of members to be elected by the councils of education of the People's Committees of the districts or by the delegates of those councils;

Fix the number of members to be elected from among their members by the Labor Union Council of the Republic, the People's Youth organization, the professional associations of the Republic, as well as the other social organizations concerned, chambers and institutions which the Executive Council of the Republic shall indicate.

The secretary of the Council shall be a member of the Council by virtue of his position.

In the People's Republic in which districts do not exist, the fixed number of members of the Council of Education of the Republic shall be elected by the councils of education of the municipal People's Committees.

The composition and the method of election of the members of the Council of Education of the Republic shall be determined by regulations of the Executive Councils of the Republic.

3. The Federal Council for Education

ARTICLE 170

The Federal Council for Education shall:

Initiate questions of common interest for schools in the People's Republics and if necessary make recommendations;

Debate questions of general interest for the improvement of teaching and of other forms of work on education and if necessary render conclusions;

Lay down the bases for the curricula of the schools;

Lay down the general principles for the writing of school textbooks;

Give opinions and make recommendations within its sphere of activities;

Do other work placed within its sphere of activities by this Law and by separate regulations.

ARTICLE 171

The Federal Council for Education shall consist of members elected by the Federal Executive Council and members elected by the Councils of Education of the Republics.

The Councils of Education of the Republics shall elect three members each while the president and the other members shall be appointed by the Federal Executive Council.

The rules on the organization and work of the Federal Council for Education shall be introduced by the Council and endorsed by the Federal Executive Council.

4. Institutions for Advancement of Education

ARTICLE 172

The Federal Institute for Educational Research shall organize and carry on studies of problems in the field of education, especially with respect to teaching and method of work in schools and other institutions for education, follow the experiences, results and achievements in the field of pedagogical theory and practice and help with the organization of measures with respect to application of modern achievements and methods of education, and also do other work assigned to it by other regulations.

ARTICLE 173

The Institute for the Advancement of Education of the Republics shall perform in the territory of a People's Republic the tasks specified in the preceding Article, as well as tasks outlined by Article 174 of this Law.

*5. The Educational-Pedagogical Service***ARTICLE 174**

The educational-pedagogical service shall:

Follow up and study the work, phenomena and problems in the field of education and exercise systematic pedagogical supervision in schools and other institutions for education;

Exercise supervision over implementation of regulations on the organization and work of schools as well as over the carrying out of teaching and other forms of work in schools or other institutions for education;

Assist teachers in their work and improvement of professional knowledge, inspire initiative and a creative approach towards educational work, make recommendations for work and extend professional assistance and support to teachers in the solving of the problems which they meet in their work;

Systematically follow and study the results and achievements in the field of the development of pedagogical theory and practice, lend assistance to teachers to acquaint themselves with, and apply those achievements, organize seminars, courses and other forms of work for improvement of professional knowledge of the teachers, and participate in the organization of measures for application of modern principles and methods of education.

ARTICLE 175

The work of the educational-pedagogical service in the territory of a district shall be performed by the educational-pedagogical service of the People's Committee of the district, and on the territory of a People's Republic by the Institute for Advancement of Education of the Republic.

In the People's Republic in which no districts exist, an educational-pedagogical service for the territories of one or more municipalities may be formed.

ARTICLE 176

The educational-pedagogical service of the district People's Committee and of the Institute for the Advancement of Education of a Republic shall be administrative institutions in accordance with the provisions of Article 45 of the Law on State Administration.

The educational-pedagogical service of the district People's Committee shall be responsible for its work to the council of education of that committee, while the Institute for Advancement of Education of a Republic shall be responsible to the Council of Education of the Republic.

The responsible council of education shall exercise supervision over the work of the corresponding educational-pedagogical service, give general guidance to its work, approve the program of its work, and may assign certain tasks to it which belong to its sphere of activities.

The educational-pedagogical service shall submit to the responsible council of education a program of its work and its reports, as well as proposals and opinions and, at the request of the council give proposals and opinions in connection with questions which belong to its sphere of activities.

The organ of administration in charge of the affairs of education may seek of the corresponding educational-pedagogical service the report and opinion on individual questions which belong to its sphere of activities.

ARTICLE 177

The educational-pedagogical service shall perform its tasks through educational counselors.

The duties of educational counselors shall be performed by officials of institutions which perform the educational-pedagogical service, as well as by other pedagogical experts as permanent associates of those institutions. In the performance of the duties of educational counselors, the permanent associates shall have the same authorizations and duties as the educational counselors who are officials of the corresponding institutions.

ARTICLE 178

Educators and other pedagogical experts who possess the prescribed professional qualifications for the performance of the corresponding duties of the educational-pedagogical services, who have spent the time prescribed by regulations as teachers, doing educational, pedagogical, or similar professional work, who distinguish themselves in teaching and educational work, or who contribute with their work to the advancement of pedagogical practice, and possess personal and moral qualities required for a successful performance of the tasks of the educational-pedagogical service, may be appointed as educational counselors.

The educational counselors shall be appointed by organs responsible for appointment after obtaining the opinion of the Institute for Advancement of Education of the Republic. The head of the educational-pedagogical service of the district People's Committee shall be appointed by the organ responsible for appointment on the proposal of the council of education of the People's Committee of the district, while the educational counselors shall be appointed by that council.

The regulations on civil servants in education shall apply to educational counselors.

ARTICLE 179

The educational-pedagogical service of the district People's Committee shall do the work which belongs to its field of activities in all schools and other institutions for education, with the exception of the higher vocational schools. It may perform the duties of this service in the gymnasia and vocational schools only if it has educational counselors who fulfill the conditions for the performance of these duties in these schools.

The educational-pedagogical service of the district People's Committee may, in agreement with the council of education of the municipal People's Committee, authorize officials of the municipal People's Committee who fulfill the conditions prescribed by this Law for educational counselors to perform individual duties of the educational-pedagogical service in schools and other institutions for education in the territory of the municipality. These officials shall perform the duties of the educational-pedagogical service under professional supervision of the educational-pedagogical service of the district People's Committee.

The Institute for the Advancement of Education of the Republic shall perform the duties of educational-pedagogical service in the higher vocational schools, examine and study the status of teaching and educational work in all the schools and other institutions for education, and may directly perform the duties of this service in all other schools and institutions for education.

The Institute for the Advancement of Education of the Republic shall concern itself with professional organization and proper performance of the educational-pedagogical service by the corresponding institutions of the district People's Committees, and with professional training and further improvement of knowledge of the educational counselors, lend professional aid to the educational-pedagogical services of the district People's Committees, and keep records of the educational counselors.

The Institute for the Advancement of Education of the Republic may give instructions to the educational-pedagogical services of the district People's Committees, and assign to them certain tasks which belong to their spheres of activities and submit reports on them.

ARTICLE 180

In the performance of the duties of the educational-pedagogical service, the educational counselors shall have the right and duty to acquaint themselves in every school with the work of the school and of the teachers, and to directly examine that work.

The school organs and teachers shall be obligated to enable the authorized educational counselor to uninterruptedly perform the duties of the educational-pedagogical service, and to extend to him or her all information and data necessary for the performance of those duties.

ARTICLE 181

In the performance of the duties of the educational-pedagogical service, the educational counselors shall especially have the right and duty to acquaint the headmaster, the council of teachers, and the school committee with their professional finding and opinion, to propose to them measures and means for removing discovered shortcomings, as well as measures for improvement of the educational and teaching work.

If the educational counselor ascertains irregularities in the implementation of regulations on the organization and work of the schools or in the carrying out of the educational and teaching work, the educational-pedagogical service may on the basis of his report order the headmaster of the school to remove the ascertained irregularities within a specified period of time.

Against the order of the educational-pedagogical service of the district People's Committee issued in accordance with the preceding paragraph, the organs of management of the school or a teacher may file an appeal with the Institute for the Advancement of Education of the Republic and against an order of that Institute—with the Council of Education of the Republic. For dealing with the appeal, the Council may appoint a commission from among its members which shall finally decide on the appeal. The decision rendered in connection with the complaint shall be final.

If during the performance of his duties of the educational-pedagogical service, the educational counselor discovers irregularities in the implementation of regulations, the supervision over which other state organs exercise, he shall be obligated to immediately notify the responsible organ of administration of those irregularities.

Part Five—Concluding Clauses

ARTICLE 182

A separate introductory law on the execution and implementation of this Law shall be introduced.

ARTICLE 183

Pending the introduction of the laws on individual kinds of schools and on the educational-pedagogical service of the Republics, as well as the federal laws provided for by this Law, the provisions of this Law shall directly apply in conformity with the introductory Law.