

PERMANENT EDUCATION - A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF
SELECTED NATIONAL SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION AND
THEIR RELEVANCE TO CHILE

by

T. Isabel Guajardo M.

Thesis submitted for the award of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

1989

University of London Institute of Education



Contents

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS... ..	1
SYNOPSIS	2
INTRODUCTION	3
Chapter One: INADEQUACIES OF PRESENT-DAY EDUCATION	5
Chapter Two: A. PERMANENT EDUCATION: HISTORY AND PRESENT POSITION	11
B. HOW A SYSTEM OF PERMANENT EDUCATION COULD REMOVE INADEQUACIES	31
Chapter Three: CASE STUDIES:	38
CUBA: Cuban Education in Historical Perspective	38
The Cuban Educational System... ..	50
(1) Principles, Goals and Objectives of Education	50
(2) System of Administration..	53
(3) Financing of Education	55
(4) The Structure of the National System of Education	56
(a) Pre-school Education	56
(b) General Polytechnical and Labour Education... ..	57
(c) Special Education	59
(d) Technical and Vocational Education	60
(e) Higher Education	62
(f) Training and Improvement of Teaching Personnel	64
(g) Adult Education	67
(h) Extracurricula Education... ..	69
Permanent Education and the Cuban Experience: Some Reflections... ..	85
Chapter Four: GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC: EDUCATION IN THE GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE	95
German Democratic Republic Educational System	101
(1) Principles, Goals and Objectives of Education	101
(2) System of Administration	103
(3) Financing of Education	104
(4) National System of Education	105
Organisation and Description of the Different Types of Education	105
(a) Pre-school Education and Care	106
(b) The Ten-Year General Polytechnical School	108
(c) Vocational Training	114
(d) Preparation for Higher Education	117
(e) Technical Colleges	118
(f) Institutions of Higher Education	119
(g) Adult Education	123
(h) Special Schools	125
(i) Teacher Training and Improvement of Pedagogical Personnel	127
(j) Extracurricula Education... ..	131

Permanent Education and the German Democratic Republic Experience: Some Reflections	134
Chapter Five:	
ENGLAND AND WALES:	
EDUCATIONAL HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE... ..	143
The Educational System of England and Wales	147
(1) Objectives	147
(2) Administration	148
(3) Financing of Education	153
(4) National System of Education: Organisation and Description of the Different Types of Education... ..	154
(a) Pre-School Education	156
(b) Primary Education	158
(c) Secondary Education	159
(d) Special Education	163
(e) Technical and Further Education... ..	165
(f) Teacher Training	169
(g) University Education	175
(h) Adult Education	193
Permanent Education and the England and Wales Experience: Some Reflections... ..	201
Chapter Six:	
CHILEAN EDUCATION IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE	207
Chilean Educational System	225
(1) Principles, Goals and Objectives of Education	225
(2) System of Administration	227
(a) Central (or National) level	227
(b) The Sub-secretariat of Education	227
(c) The General Directorship of Education	227
(d) The Bureau of Culture	227
(e) The "Superintendencia" of Education... ..	228
(f) Regional Level - Regional Secretariat of the Ministry of Education	228
(g) Provincial Level	229
(h) Community Level	229
(i) School Level	229
(3) Financing of Education	230
(4) National System of Education:	230
Organisation and Description of the Different Types of Education	230
(a) Pre-School Education	231
(b) Primary or Basic Education	231
(c) Secondary or Middle Education... ..	232
(d) Vocational Education	233
(e) Higher Education	234
(f) Training and Improvement of Teaching Personnel	235
(g) Adult Education	236
(h) Extra-Curricula Education	236
The School Year	237
Permanent Education and the Chilean Experience: Some Reflections... ..	237

Chapter Seven:
HOW THE FOUR SYSTEMS SHOWN HAVE ATTEMPTED TO ERADICATE
THE INADEQUACIES OF PRESENT-DAY EDUCATION. A BRIEF
COMPARISON ... 244

CONCLUSIONS ... 255

APPENDIX: ... 264

A. A CHILEAN MODEL OF PERMANENT EDUCATION:
THE UNIFIED NATIONAL SCHOOL ... 264

(1) A General View ... 264

(2) Foundations... ... 265

(3) Characteristics ... 267

(4) Objectives ... 268

(5) Structure ... 270

(6) Unified National School's Organic Structure ... 274

(7) Action and Requirement to set up the Unified
National School ... 276

B. SOME FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM SHOWN IN
THIS STUDY WHICH COULD BE ADDED TO THE 1970 CHILEAN
MODEL OF PERMANENT EDUCATION IN ORDER TO IMPROVE IT ... 283

BIBLIOGRAPHY ... 290

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to record my grateful thanks to my supervisor, Professor Brian Holmes, for all his help, kindness and understanding. Without his support this thesis could never have been written.

My very grateful thanks also to Mr. Mark Richmond and his wife Ruth, for all their kindness, friendship, help and support that they offered to me.

My thanks also to the Staff of the Library in the Faculty of Education, University of Birmingham, for all their help.

Finally, my grateful thanks are due to Dorothy Vernon for undertaking to type this thesis.

SYNOPSIS

This is a study of a new model of an education system which could be more suitable to the needs of the last decades of the twentieth century.

The study has been divided into seven chapters with a brief introduction.

Chapter One discusses the problem, i.e. the inadequacies of present day education.

Chapter Two introduces an alternative approach, namely, permanent education as a solution.

Chapter Three presents the first case study: Cuba's educational system.

Chapter Four presents the German Democratic Republic's educational system.

Chapter Five presents the educational system of England and Wales.

Chapter Six presents Chile's educational system.

Chapter Seven presents a brief comparison between the four systems in their attempts to eradicate inadequacies.

There is also an Appendix showing a Chilean model of permanent education: The Unified National School, and some characteristics of the systems shown in this study which could be added to this model in order to improve it.

INTRODUCTION

It could be argued that since the 1950's and 1960's the need to re-examine the role of education in society has become an urgent task. The need for educational change includes the learning of new job skills, acceptance of new responsibilities, the knowledge of prospective manpower needs and job opportunities, etc. So, modern educational policy should above all be characterised by a deep understanding of the fact that in today's world there are and should be many more varied ways of providing instruction and that educational needs cannot be satisfied by the school alone. In other words, what might be necessary is the adoption of an educational alternative that represents an attempt to adapt education to the conditions of modern life, that sees all educational trends and practices not as isolated, independent and without relevance to each other, but as corresponding in each case to one aspect of the overall innovative patterns imposed by modern conditions. This alternative could be permanent education.

In a permanent education system the education must form a coordinated totality in which all sectors of society are structurally integrated. It will be universalised and continual.

It may be observed that in order to build a firm theoretical basis for permanent education one does not have to start from scratch. At present there exists a vast and relevant amount of knowledge about the foundations of education, human development, learning processes, etc., which should be usable, subject to its refinement and reinterpretation. But it is necessary to stress that it is unrealistic to expect permanent education to transform the educational practice of a society, in any case, no wholesale adoption of all aspects of permanent education can be realistically expected; but its acceptance as a principle could certainly con-

tribute to fostering the conditions in which education was accepted throughout life, and in which existing practices were more open to other learning influences. In other words, it would transform what already exists, in order to make experiences favourable to permanent education easier for people.

It is also necessary to emphasise that educational practice varies in different contexts, depending upon determinants and influences such as a country's geography and history, technological development, socio-political and economic system and many other factors. Thus no single set of prescriptions for educational practice can be given which can be applied in all countries, or even in a single country at different times in its historical development.

For example the perspective of permanent education in a country with a per capita income of 300 dollars or less is, obviously, different from that in a country where the average income is 4000 dollars per annum and where 70 per cent of the population have received secondary education. Consequently educational practice in the perspective of permanent education will differ from society to society according to a large number of local conditions and traditions and, because an educational system is a national responsibility, a complete educational policy will include political, social, economic and cultural, as well as purely educational objectives, promoting the kind of educational changes required to adapt the educational system to the changing world.

Chapter One

INADEQUACIES OF PRESENT-DAY EDUCATION

The outstanding characteristics of our times is the rapidity of change in all aspects of human life. The acceleration in science and technology, which are increasing and undergoing constant renewal, the great population increase, the enlarging network of communications, social mobility and participation in political and cultural activities, are some of the main features that identify our times, and which are bringing about a radical revision of traditional ideas on education.

Pressures have come from the economy demanding a more efficient labour force and from political organisations which stress educational development as a pre-condition for national development (1).

But education has not responded to the people's expectations, and in spite of society being subject to a continual process of change, education continues to be traditional. A brief review of the present formal system of education can show the following shortcomings among other:

- Formal education is restricted to a particular phase in life, leaving a large span of life uncatered for, (from the early 20's onwards) (2).
- Education has been based upon a process in which the teacher teaches and the student learns.
- The traditional role of the school has been that of reproducing society and the existing social relations of society.
- The traditional divorce of education from life implies the separation of learning from some aspects of living.
- Education has been considered as a privilege and not as a human right.

- The expensive nature of education has helped to create small elites.

- The tendency towards early specialisation and the dichotomy between manual and intellectual disciplines have increased (3).

Now, if one looks specifically into the educational systems of the developing countries, it is possible to add the following shortcomings among others:

- Education in developing countries supports out-of-date dogmas and customs which have been inherited in the form of imported models.

- In spite of the hopes conceived a long time ago, education in developing countries has so far been no exception to the harsh rule of our times which tends to increase the unequal distribution of goods and resources.

- Education in developing countries suffers basically from a break between its content and the living experiences of its pupils, between its archaic curricula and the modernity of science (4).

- The content of education in developing countries tends to be too theoretical and academic, emphasis is put on information and facts, without due consideration for other aspects such as social values and attitudes, vocational and technical experiences, making education appropriate only to an elite which could continue theoretical studies but which is inappropriate to the majority.

- Developing countries have enlarged the existing educational establishment as rapidly as possible with relatively little change in its structure, content and methods.

- Developing countries, their people and governments have demonstrated a solid faith in education as a key to individual and national advancement. But in spite of this the truth is that educational systems find themselves besieged by a serious crisis between themselves and social-economic environments. For example, despite their rapid expansion the educational systems have been unable to keep pace with the rising popular demand, thus, a gap between demand and supply has persisted (5).

- Education, maintains an imbalance between educational output and available jobs (6).

- Education in developing countries has shown an imbalance between formal and non-formal education ignoring the fact that non-formal education has an extremely vital role to play, whether in continuing the education of already "educated" persons, or in bringing literacy and useful skills to masses of people who were deprived of formal schooling (7).

All these accumulated problems and contradictions in the field of education have, finally, produced a definitive educational crisis, and at the same time an awareness of people in most countries of the necessity for a restructuring of the educational process. However, the adoption of educational reforms of any kind in any society in the last decades of the twentieth century presents a significant problem, that of designing an education not for a known future but for life in a world characterised by continuing change, which will require the continuous adaptation by man to new circumstances, continuous learning and relearning, and continuing opportunities for education at every phase of the life cycle.

Thus four alternative educational models are being

considered:

- (a) Deschooling, supported by I. Illich (8) and in varying degrees by E.H. Reimer (9), P. Goodman (10) and P. Freire (11). Illich thinks that it is necessary to abolish schools and replace them by learning webs and networks making knowledge more widely available to all.
- (b) Non-formal education, an approach supported by the International Council for Educational Development, under the direction of P.H. Coombs (12). Much research has been done to explore the potential role of non-formal education in rural development strategies in developing countries. But its detractors argue that non-formal education would become a second rate alternative to formal education and be employed as a cheap means of educating the poor.
- (c) Recurrent education, an approach supported by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, and D. Kallen (13), which implies an alternation of education with other activities the most important of these being work.
- This strategy has been criticised because it is applicable to industrialised countries and not to developing countries, and because it places a special stress on formal education during time intervals in the post-basic stage.
- (d) Permanent education; this alternative to existing formal education system was proposed by UNESCO.
- Among these four approaches it is this one which has gained greater currency and more widespread theoretical acceptance.
- It is necessary to say that permanent education incorporates many of the elements of the three approaches already mentioned (14),

but permanent education argues that what is needed is not the abolition of schools, but the acceptance of new educational practices within them. For example, a major task of schools would be to develop a taste for permanent learning in all pupils.

Appropriate practices could include pupil involvement in decision making, opportunities for self evaluation, and inclusion of learner-initiated activities in classroom learning.

Appropriate organisational features could involve multi-age grouping, provision for group learning activities and coordination of school learning with learning agencies outside school.

As E. Gelpi (15) has pointed out, the type of change required within formal systems of education must include attempts to overcome the precedence given to intellectual over manual disciplines, to abolish streaming within schools, to eliminate early selection and specialisation and to include folk culture within the formal school curriculum. It is also necessary to consider vocational training as a part of a whole which includes initial and continued education, general education and job preparation; in other words, to provide ways of overcoming the traditional separation between the world of work and that of education.

References: Chapter One

- (1) Ireland, T.D. Gelpi's View of Lifelong Education, Manchester, Monographs 14, 1978, p.7.
- (2) Ibid., p. 8.
- (3) Ibid., p. 10.
- (4) Faure, E., Learning to Be, Paris, Unesco, 1972, p. 69.
- (5) Coombs, P.H., "The Crisis of Linear Strategy, Imbalance and Maladjustment", in Education on the Move, Unesco Press, Paris, 1975.
- (6) Ibid., p. 35.
- (7) Ibid., p. 37.
- (8) Illich, Ivan, Deschooling Society, Harper and Row, New York, 1970.
- (9) Reimer, Everet, School is Dead: Alternatives in Education, Herder and Herder, New York, 1971 and An Essay on Alternatives on Education, CIDOC, Cuaderno No. 1005, Cuernavaca, Mexico, 1975.
- (10) Goodman, Paul, "What use is Formal Schooling" and "A Plea for Incidental Education", in Education on the Move, Unesco Press, Paris, 1975, pp. 18-19 and 140-141.
- (11) Freire, Paulo, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Herder and Herder, New York, 1971.
- (12) Coombs, P.H., The World Educational Crisis: A Systems Analysis Oxford University Press, London, 1968 and "Nonformal Education: Myths, Realities, and Opportunities" in Comparative Education Review, October, 1976, pp. 281-293.
- (13) Kallen, D., "Recurrent Education" in Recurrent Education Concepts and Policies for Lifelong Education, edited on behalf of the Comparative Education Society in Europe, by Raymond Ryba and Brian Holmes, p. 62.
- (14) Ireland, T.D. op.cit., p. 12.
- (15) Ibid., p. 46.

Chapter Two

A. PERMANENT EDUCATION: HISTORY AND PRESENT POSITION

The concept of permanent education is not new, it dates back to antiquity. It is also seen in the writings of theorists such as Comenius and Matthew Arnold, and many others.

About 70 years ago the term "permanent education" first appeared in English educational writings. (A.L. Smith's report on Adult Education, 1919) (1), while ten years later the notion re-appeared in its definitive English form as "lifelong education" in a work by B.A. Yeaxlee (2).

In France it began to take shape in the 1930's in the hands of the philosopher Gaston Bachelard, although it was not adopted in educational circles until after the Second World War. However, the conceptualisation of the principle is more recent.

Internationally, the concept of permanent education was first expressed in the 1965 Conference of Ministers of Education of member states of the Council of Europe (3). The idea was also adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1966 and so became part of UNESCO's educational and social programme:

In June of 1967 the Council for Cultural Cooperation of the Council of Europe issued a statement in which they stressed the need for member states to give priority,

"to the implementation of the concept of lifelong education in the forward-looking perspective of Europe twenty years ahead" (4).

The term permanent education itself carries more than one connotation, and everybody is inclined to have their own very different interpretation of it, so some attempt at defining its exact content is indispensable.

The word "permanent" takes on a significance which demands

careful definition. It does not mean "continuous" in the ordinary mathematical sense which would imply a Utopia in which education began in the womb and ceased only in the grave (5). What it really implies is that education ought not to stop at a given moment, but that it can be interrupted and later resumed.

In this sense it conveys a desire not to limit education to a certain period in an individual's existence but, after what is traditionally regarded as the completion of his studies, to provide subsequent periods of additional education which he can combine with his daily life and occupation, without breaking the continuity of either.

Our traditional assumptions will then be replaced by two principles: Firstly, that education can take place at different periods of life, and that there is no need to restrict it to the "usual-age", the result being that permanent education can apply to any period of a person's life. The second principle is that education can be interrupted for long periods and resumed again later and need not be in any way linked to the concept of continuity in time (6).

Permanent education must not be confused with adult education or with continuous education as happens frequently. Adult education is only one aspect of a system of permanent education. As for the idea of continuous training, it is also restrictive in that it relates exclusively to the vocational side of education, whereas in the concept of permanent education the term "education" is understood in its broadest sense (7).

For permanent education, educational activity is conceived as a whole integrated in a single system. But permanent education is not a recipe which can be applied to all situations. It is a general directive, a guide and an outlook on which educational systems should be built. This general concept must be adapted to the realities

and needs of each society.

Permanent education is also an ideology (8). It would be a mistake to think that the concept of permanent education raises questions only of administrative or structural order; permanent education is a genuine educational project and as such it looks to the future: it envisages a new type of man, it is the carrier of a system of values, it involves a project of society. It constitutes a new philosophy of education. This project also contains political options. It is ideological, and for some it is a Utopia.

However, as in all matters concerning education, the idea of permanent education gives rise to a wide variety of reactions involving frequent differences of opinion and controversies, but for its promoters permanent education is the only kind of education which would be suitable for modern man.

Now, in searching for a definition of the concept, a wide range of proposed definitions exists, for instance, the one given by R.D. Dave, who said that,

"Permanent education is a comprehensive concept which includes formal, non-formal and informal learning extended throughout the life-span of an individual to attain the fullest possible development in personal, social and professional life. It seeks to view education in its totality and includes learning that occurs in the home, school, community and workplace, and through mass media and other situations and structures for acquiring and enhancing enlightenment. In this context the concept of permanent education provides a new perspective to all educational goals, activities and structures, emphasising the all-round development of the individuals over the whole life-span. Permanent education is not just preparation for life, it is an integral part of life. Learning and living are closely intertwined, each enriching the other. Thus, permanent education becomes a continuous quest for a higher and better quality of life" (9).

Dave's definition, which brings out the multi-faceted character of the concept of permanent education is supplemented by that provided by Paul Legrand:

"By permanent education we mean quite simply that education is not restricted to schooling. On the contrary, its influence extends over all sectors of the learner's existence, private as well as public - his family and professional relationships, his politics, his social activities, his leisure pursuits and so on. It makes its appeal to all kinds of agencies: school, college, and university but equally the family, the community and the world of work, books, press, theatre and the media for mass communication. What it amounts to is that the educational enterprise is a global and continuous process which takes place from the moment of birth to the death of the individual: a process which implies in a circular relationship the education of children, adolescents and adults at different ages and stages of development. If education is to become permanent and all-embracing it follows that its contents, its methods and the training of the specialised personnel in the various sectors of the educational enterprise must be very radically changed" (10).

Two of the most common definitions of permanent education have been given here, but it is necessary to lay stress on the idea that the concept of permanent education is the result of international cooperation. It is the collective thinking and exchange of ideas and experiences between educators, research workers and administrators, of various nationalities, conducted thanks to such organisations as Unesco and the Council for Cultural Cooperation (C.C.C.), created by the Council of Europe which have developed and promoted this concept

In 1967 the Council for Cultural Cooperation had given the following definition of permanent education,

"The concept of permanent education as the organising principle of all education implies a comprehensive coherent and integrated system designed to meet the educational and cultural aspirations of every person in accordance with his abilities. It is intended to enable everyone throughout his life, whether through his work or through his leisure activities, to develop his personality" (11)

Having outlined the main features of permanent education and having provided some widely-accepted definitions, it is important to say that the introduction of permanent education

represents a major change with implications for all aspects of a system of education, including its objectives and contents; the institutions upon which it has been based, the structure of responsibility and authority, forms and methods of financing its legal tasks. In addition it would have implications for the roles of learners and teachers, the use of educational technology, and so forth. The most important aspects to be affected by the adoption of the principle of permanent education are examined as follows.

Objectives

It is known that the aims of education are the result of philosophical reflections on man, on human existence in its historical context and on the system of relationships connecting man to nature and to the society in which he lives, creates and acts.

Aims and objectives of education are emanations of value systems and norms which are also explicit in other cultural contexts: in myths and beliefs, in religions, philosophies, ideologies, literacy work, etc. They are characterised by three general indicators: the nature of man, the nature of society and the nature of knowledge (12).

Every education system embodies a vision of man, a project of society and an ideal of knowledge. One can notice that these factors are always taken into account by educators when attempting to work out the aims of education and the programmes which implement these aims.

In the case of permanent education it is necessary to begin by recognising that the aims, contents and methods conceived as a response appropriate to the aspirations of individuals, to the demands of each national community and to the imperatives of the contemporary world have not yet been spelled out in detail. Nevertheless, since

we are in an era of scientific, technological, political and social change, the principal objectives of permanent education should be:

- (1) To educate individuals to adapt to change;
- (2) To maintain and improve the quality of life;
- (3) To equalise educational opportunities at all levels to enable every one to go to school as far as their aptitudes and capabilities permit unhampered by economic and social conditions;
- (4) To develop learners who are capable of learning independently i.e. self-learning, and in so doing give them the opportunity to learn to consider the rights and welfare of others as well as those of their own;
- (5) To permit the flexibility and diversity in content, learning tools and techniques, forms of acquiring education, and time of learning;
- (6) To permit the integration of school, home, community and world of work;
- (7) To prepare older individuals for retirement from the world of labour.

In sum, the emphasis on objectives of permanent education should be on improving socially, economically, aesthetically and spiritually the majority of the people, to enable people to be persons and not only technical and executive instruments, and to be people not only who do their own thinking, but who do the kind of thinking that springs from deep convictions.

Curriculum

In a system of permanent education the curriculum areas should be selected in such a manner that they constitute a broad base for subsequent education both in general and professional fields (13).

The nature of the subjects should be taken into account while selecting subjects and organising their content, because any subjects undergoing quick changes in respect of their content need frequent updating. Other subjects have certain elements, especially the skills involved, which by themselves are permanent in nature.

The curriculum areas or subjects should be designed in such a way that they provide tools of enquiry, basic starting points, and practical knowledge for acquiring the methods of learning.

The curriculum should be organised in a way which is integrated both vertically and horizontally. It should be heavily concerned with values, attitudes and motivations.

Another essential point is that the curriculum content should have an appropriate mixture of work and study so that the learner forms a habit of making work his principal tool for enriching his learning and widening his horizons. It is important to the development of creativity (14).

As permanent education is a process that occurs both in and out of school, it is necessary to have an out-of-school curriculum, and in this case it might be necessary to have a curriculum for the very young which takes into account development of language skills, intellectual functioning, social behaviour, personality and motivation. A curriculum for people beyond conventional school age could take into account adults' interests, creativity, responsibility, common sense, etc. A curriculum for work could take into account personal initiative, creativity, interaction, critical sense, capacity to devise solutions for work's problems, etc. Finally, a curriculum for life itself could emphasise that education is more than intellectual knowledge, that everything is important, that life itself is a major source of learning, and also that one can learn from life during all of its stages and phases. In relation to

learning process and material, it is difficult to detect the implications of permanent education in terms of specific learning processes because they vary among students, teachers and school systems. Nevertheless an attempt at certain general implications can be made:

- From the beginning of formal education it is necessary to give adequate emphasis to self-learning.
- The need for guided learning should become lower as learners advance in age, educability and maturity. To an increasing extent, they should be entrusted with responsibility and initiative for planning and organising their own studies.
- The problems of study should be of major importance and interest for the learner.
- In order to be able to work in groups, the pupil should be trained to express himself, to listen to others, and to consider other people's opinions.
- For the learner to be able to carry out guided-learning, inter-learning and independent individual learning it is necessary for him to know and to use a variety of learning aids, that is, to make the maximum use of all the facilities provided by the modern educational technology.

If one looks into evaluation procedures, it is clear that the new objectives that emerge from the idea of permanent education will obviously be the reference - criteria for designing an adequate programme of evaluation according to psychological, pedagogical and social functions and consequences. It must be understood that, at the learner's level, a radical renovation of evaluation procedures is absolutely necessary, and that in an educational system with many routes to self-development, which are all considered worthwhile, evaluation must be applied carefully.

Some of the main factors and issues in relation to

evaluation procedures are embraced by the following arguments:

- The primary purpose of evaluation should no longer be to establish a process of selection for bringing about repetitions and failures, but should be to guide and help them to make progress.
- The tools and techniques of evaluation should be to appraise the competencies developed for attaining further growth through later learning in formal and non-formal settings.
- It is important to emphasise continually the importance of self-evaluation and to encourage students to develop this quality.
- Evaluation of educational achievement should be orientated to improve it.
- It will be necessary to develop a differential evaluation system that enables every learner to discover his/her strengths, and his/her chances of success in some areas of study.
- It will be necessary to design a flexible system of evaluation which may have several alternatives and allows their combination.
- To improve the factors that influence educational achievement, such as curriculum plans, material, and processes, it is necessary to be an integral part of the total evaluation programme.
- On the other hand, continuous evaluation is also necessary at the level of the system itself, which will have to be periodically challenged. Permanent education needs a permanent critical evaluation of education and its systems.

Organisation

The decision to adopt the principle of permanent education is fundamentally a matter of national policy. But the fact remains that the world has become smaller, frontiers have been opened especially for work, education and science, and the impact of the mass media has been far-reaching; all of these developments have contributed to internationalisation. As a result many supporters of permanent education, for instance, trade unions and international and multinational companies have been building up an excellent network of international cooperation. On the other hand, if education can be seen as a means for securing peace in the world, the implementation of permanent education in as many nations as possible would help to reach this goal (15).

At the international organisations level, the United Nations and its agencies are essential for expanding the idea of permanent education. The United Nations Charter of 26.6.1945 is the starting point for an international constitution. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 10 December 1948 establishes "a right to education" including modalities of permanent education; moreover, the "right to education" has political and moral importance because it is a principle, a value which is accepted universally as a goal worth striving for, and which has the force of a directive for the member states (16).

The implementation of permanent education at national level requires a very comprehensive and long-term national undertaking which makes necessary a cohesive organisation, good cooperation and a large number of personnel.

On the other hand, implementation of permanent education does not concern educational policy alone, it involves social policy, economic policy, infrastructural policy, regional policy and financial

policy. Permanent education can only be achieved if the entire national policy is revised in the perspective of this principle. Thus the Cabinet, the Minister of Education or Culture, research institutions, advisory groups and planning staff and representatives of non-governmental agencies must be involved in the process.

Finally, because education is always closely linked to the society in which it takes place, the form of implementing permanent education in individual countries will have to be devised by the country concerned, according to each nation's constitution and legislation which will determine the possibilities and limitations for promoting permanent education. Nevertheless some prescriptions and guidelines that relate to changes in the structure and organisation of the present educational systems will be cited now.

- The system of education should be understood as a total educational continuum, with the effect that a sharp break between different stages of education should not exist.
- The system of education should provide universal basic education during childhood and adolescence periods. But according to the concept of permanent education appropriate arrangements for post-basic education should be made.
- It would be very wise to insist that education does not end with schooling and to use multiple models of education like evening schools, part-time schools, correspondence courses and open plan schools as a form of merging school and out-of-school learning and to reduce the rising cost of education.

The educational system that permanent education needs could be built up in a pluralist and organic way. They could include all the varieties of education which society needs, according to various circumstances arising from the age and the situation of those being

educated. The functioning of such systems could be flexible and fluid to permit the students freedom of movement throughout the whole of the educational system. The system could use many agencies such as: schools, training courses taken during employment (in administration or industry), study groups, cultural institutions, libraries, theatre, music, dancing, cinemas, museums, zoos, sports, games, place of work, vocational associations, family, community groups and organisations, social occasions, clubs and associations, religious institutions, religious festivals, political meetings, radio, T.V., newspapers and magazines, traditional and modern teaching aids, travel, places of amusement, markets and fairs, etc. This list is not exhaustive: every country with a permanent education strategy will have to draw up a list of the agencies which it considers relevant.

Permanent education intends that education be free from "enclaves" in which it has been enclosed and that all the educational potential of the community be made available to it.

Administration

In considering the nature of the administrative process insofar as permanent education is concerned it will be useful to keep in mind the fact that administration is by no means the simple, technical process which many people assume. It is a complex process which is economically, politically and emotionally very sensitive. Administration is concerned with putting policy into practice with maximum efficiency and economy (17).

Much of the literature on administration is concerned with the everyday activities carried out by administrators but, in the case of permanent education, of greater concern will be the capacity to move the organisation forward in the milieu of coopera-

tion with other very different organisations.

Those responsible for educational administration are still in the process of building up their knowledge and experience regarding how to organise a system of education encompassing formal and informal institutions, or how to coordinate institutionalised forms of education with non-formal education, or how to get cooperation among different forms of education. Nevertheless, some general principles can be stated, for instance:

- Central policy-making of a general nature;
- Local policy-making of a detailed nature;
- Community participation in policy-making;
- Central financing, evaluation and supervision of local facilities; and
- Vertical and horizontal coordination of educational services (18).

Today, for most administrators there is a tension between maintaining a system which is functioning relatively smoothly and making changes which could cause all kinds of problems.

If permanent education is to become a reality, the administrators can not afford to become complacent. The administrators that permanent education needs; are expected to fulfil a leadership role, but people do not become leaders merely because they have administrative titles such as "principal" or "director"; for the role of leader must be earned. This implies good communication with others, identification with them, motivational ability and flexibility, qualities which are essential for creating an administrator - educator (19). However, to create such a person is a difficult task, requiring the reform of administrative procedures, the amendment of training programmes, and systematic collection, analysis and dissemination of data.

All organisations concerned with the formal preparation of managers, administrators and the like should include in their curricula references to permanent education.

It needs to be emphasised that without competent and enthusiastic workers any enterprise will fail.

Finance

The problem in this field is how to use the method of financing education to support a system that is both "lifelong" and "lifewide" and how might resources already being devoted to education be redeployed so as to encourage and support permanent education.

Some relevant criteria are given below:

- When resources are considered on the "lifewide" perspective it is necessary to take into account not only the resources that are currently employed by the traditional educational system but also the resources used by all educating agencies in the society. This means that to move to permanent education may not require as much as might at first be supported.

- From a lifelong perspective a serious attempt should be made to gear the use of educational opportunity to changes in the economy. This means that during periods of higher economic activity, the demand for education would be lower and would rise as economic activity diminishes. This approach could help reduce the real cost of permanent education by reducing the opportunity costs.

- From the above it is possible to deduce another criterion which could mean that, from a perspective of a lifetime, each individual might not draw on the educational resources of society very much more than he does now. Only the distribution would be different.

- Another criterion is in relation to maximum personal effort by participants, the economic consequences of dealing with motivated learners are incalculable, and under such conditions, resources are likely to be far more effectively utilised than under arrangements that compel participation.

Additional factors to be considered in any permanent education financing arrangements include the mixing of public and private support, and public and private control, and even more, the desirability of some mix of institutions because the provision of free, public permanent education would be enormously expensive, and might not function in the expected way.

In relation to the individuals whose education is to be financed it will be necessary to increase participation. Furthermore, educational finance policy should be relatively "age neutral"(20).

In relation to the educative agencies, traditional education relies on formal education agencies, but permanent education presupposes the use of other non-traditional, and self-directed learning. This means that the financing arrangement must take both into account.

In sum, the most viable basis for moving from the present to a permanent education system would be to start with present levels of expenditure and gradually change the method by which it is distributed.

The Education

Considering that teachers are an important factor mediating the effects of educational services, institutions and systems, and that the influence of teachers on the future personal, social and productive lives of pupils reflects the professional training they have received, it is necessary to give major importance to the problems of the "educator" in the perspective of permanent education. In

addition any step taken to formulate an educative strategy should include the role of the educator whose cooperation is vital for success.

Curriculum changes in the light of permanent education could not be achieved without teachers who accepted their value, and who possessed the necessary attitudes, motives and skills.

According to the paper from the International Teacher Organisations presented in Geneva at the 35th International Conference on Education, August-September 1975, the changing approach to knowledge needed by the teachers is,

"The teacher remains the central figure in education but he has to take into consideration that he is no more the only source of information, that mass media, etc are strong competitors, that some students may be better informed than he is in some special field of knowledge. He is no more an unquestioned authority, he becomes a guide helping his people to develop their capacities and abilities, fulfill their aspirations, remaining himself capable of learning, capable of self-criticism, capable of keeping steady and close personal contact with his pupils and students" (21).

Permanent education requires a democratisation of learning, of the content, pedagogy and the role of the teacher. Knowledge is not the prerogative of certain groups to receive and certain professions and institutions to transmit. All have a right to learn.

The changing of values and knowledge in modern society means that static roles are no longer appropriate for any educator. The educator may act as curriculum specialist, or as the teacher responsible for the in-service training of his colleagues, or as a research associate in the school, or as a counsellor, etc., and every single teacher will need social and technical problem-solving capabilities as well as generalist and specialist knowledge, and intellectual tenacity and adaptability (22).

In addition, the teacher required by permanent education is one who should act as an animator, facilitator and coordinator

of learning rather than as a figure of authority and sole custodian of knowledge.

Another essential aspect for the development of permanent education is the extension of the concept of "educator" to many members of the community. Teachers are not only those who teach as a profession but other members of the society who are not professional teachers, but who do a great deal of teaching. Some of them are part of the non-formal educational system while others are part of the educational system. One large group of people who function as teachers but often without recognition includes librarians, experts in zoos, museums, education officers in professional associations, social workers, family counsellors, etc. Doctors, dentists, lawyers, and pharmacists are also coming to be included in this group. However in addition, there is another major group of often unacknowledged teachers: it is a group that consists of those who know how to do things, which are important in life - the practitioners - they include parents, peers, siblings, workmates, friends and many others (23).

More generally speaking, it is important to determine the characteristics required in a new kind of educator who will make it possible for the community to participate fully in educational work and to train such educators.

The role of educator for permanent education demands an understanding of the way in which educational programmes for children, young people, adults, workers and older citizens can be harmonised together.

The teacher that permanent education needs should also have sufficient personal sense of security to acknowledge that the knowledge and expertise which he acquires during his initial education has a rapid decay rate and that all new knowledge he acquires

will be useful only for a short time (24).

In permanent education there exists a close relationship between activities taking place in schools and the events of every day life. According to this, teachers should need, among other things, skill in linking school and life. This implies that practice teaching should thus involve opportunities for student teachers to participate in non-formal and informal setting, for example, leading youth groups and working in clubs and societies. Thus practice teaching is not going on only in schools, but in other places as well, and is concerned not only with school age learners, but with other ones too.

The organisation of the preparation of professional educators in the framework of permanent education is an ambitious and long-term project.

Traditionally, teacher education curricula have acknowledged three major areas of work:

- (1) subject specialisation;
- (2) pedagogical and methodological elements;
- (3) practical experience.

In the framework of permanent education it is necessary to re-examine these and test them for their coherence, inter-relationship and relevance to the task envisaged.

In permanent education the teacher needs a broad general education rather than highly specialised knowledge of a narrow field. His task is increasingly to provide his pupils with means and criteria for the acquisition and integration of new knowledge.

According to A.J. Cropley and R.H. Dave, a teacher college curriculum oriented in the direction of permanent education would include a course with information about permanent education (history of the concept, reasons for its emphasis, advantages of

permanent education, over traditional educational systems, etc.). It would help students to become aware of the need for permanent education and subsequently adopt it in their teaching practices, learning processes and in their own daily lives (25).

Opportunities for personal experiences of permanent learning activities are suggested as of great importance.

The structure of the curriculum would introduce a broad central core of information aimed at building a broad grasp of the organisation of knowledge and of the ways in which it is created, validated, located and used. This would include knowledge of self, of culture and society, of the means and forms of production, and of the environment (26).

Learning skills must be fostered. This means that there would be encouragement to emphasise the development of a wide range of basic skills and abilities and the recognition that there are many ways of learning and communicating.

In relation to the methods and techniques employed, they would try to put emphasis on a variety of methods, with lectures supplemented by project work, research programmes, student responsibility for locating information, student-led seminars and tutorials, etc.

The permanent education curriculum for teacher training would emphasise that there is a substantial body of human and material resources for learning available outside the college and would encourage students to make use of these resources (27).

About evaluation processes, the purpose of evaluation for permanent education is to provide constructive information to learners, so that they can assess how they are achieving their goals and can take appropriate corrective steps where necessary. In this

form, evaluation serves a diagnostic, corrective and guiding purpose; this is called "formative" evaluation (28).

A second important notion is that evaluation should occur through all learning processes and not only at the end of the academic year. That is to say the evaluation could be continuous.

Thus the programme of teacher preparation should be changed to give the teacher the skills and attitudes necessary to a new school programme. This should include a variety of teaching strategies, learning techniques, teaching aids, evaluation procedures, etc.

Changes in the objectives and methods of teacher training are already being made in many countries.

Teachers' unions are showing an ever-increasing interest in educational innovation planned in relation to the overall development of society, and are voicing reservations about educational action in which the teacher's contributions to educational renewal appears to be overlooked.

In sum, the educator as impresario, as guide, as counsellor and as link-man, could be the new specialism in a permanent education system. But all these changes in the patterns of educational work, would only emerge as a consequence of new forms of training, not so much "teacher training" as "educator-training".

B. HOW A SYSTEM OF PERMANENT EDUCATION
COULD REMOVE INADEQUACIES

Coming back now to the inadequacies of present day education seen in Chapter One, it is possible to note that a system of permanent education could be efficient for coping with changes in all aspects of human life, which is the main characteristic of our times. A permanent education system, if properly organised is capable of making every human being participate fully in all aspects of the scientific-technological revolution, and in political and cultural activities.

A system of permanent education would allow for the flexibility with which educational structures should be endowed so as to offer the student many diversified options and courses, enabling him to enter the system at any stage, to transfer from one course to another, to leave the system and subsequently to return to it.

A system of permanent education could offer one route to adaptability in a world where it is no longer possible to go on relying on the knowledge and skills acquired in youth. As it becomes more difficult to predict the knowledge and skills needed for adult life, permanent education stresses that the education of young people would have to concentrate on the learning skills to be used and developed throughout adult life. Thus education is not just an event in childhood but an experience available at any time in life, and it is provided by the whole of society in different contexts and at different times, and extended to whatever the individual does in the various circumstances and situations of his life (couple, family, work, church, political party, trade unions, clubs, etc.).

The unprecedented demand for education and the right to be educated which has come to be recognised as one of the basic

human rights could be a reality because permanent education, by reasons of its flexibility, should represent, for young people and adults who have completed their regular education or dropped out before its completion, an extension of opportunities to educate themselves, giving them a second chance in education and providing educational formulas which would be more suitable to their situations and needs.

The maintenance of a competent and skilled labour force, whatever the changes that scientific and technological progress may bring, is precisely the concern of permanent education and, so long as this is adequately developed, it would avoid any serious disparity between the requirements of a job and the training given to the workers.

New technologies reduce the demands of work and enhance opportunities for leisure, but they also put a premium on the adaptability of knowledge and skills not possessed by those with only limited educational attainments. A comprehensive system of permanent education would provide the poorly educated with much wider opportunities to improve their general level of education and hence their employability: it would remove people temporarily from the labour market, making room for others, particularly young people, to take their place, and it would provide opportunities for adults to play a more creative part in cultural and social activities.

The democratisation of education requires not only wider access to education in school but also equality of opportunities, which involves compensating for initial handicaps and, after a common basis of education has been provided, educational action adjusted to the aspirations, characteristics and needs of the different age-groups and the different socio-economic and occupational categories. In this way, everyone should be able to have a second

chance in educational systems which lie increasingly outside the bounds of the formal system.

If the critical assessment of the present state of education in the world is now specifically related to developing countries, where the inadequacies of education are aggravated moreover by the social, economic and political problems deriving from underdevelopment, a system of permanent education could help them to continue to advance and reach goals which mean prosperity and well being for the future.

Because many of the developing countries are in the process of industrialisation they need an increasing labour force which implies giving further training to those who are now working and raising them to higher levels of technical ability by means of permanent systems of refresher courses for people in all sectors of economic activity.

A system of permanent education should help developing countries to bridge the break between education and society. This break has separated for centuries the needs and interests of the people from the ends pursued by imported academic institutions and has caused education up to the present time to be inadequate and inefficient in relation to social aspirations and needs.

Up to now education in developing countries has been influenced by the markedly classicist social structure inherited from the colonial period which left its selective and antidemocratic stamp on school systems and which has retarded the expansion of education and prevented the spread of equal educational opportunity. In this connection permanent education should help developing countries' educators with the problem of the mutual dependence that exists between education and society.

In relation to democratisation of education this is a very important problem, especially at this time of far-reaching social,

economic and political change. The educational systems of developing countries have mirrored the social structure prevailing in Europe in the colonial era and, because of this, their democratisation has taken place very gradually, in proportion to the transformation of the society.

A system of permanent education should change the trend and the content of studies as education ceases to be designed for a relatively homogeneous minority and is opened up to a broad heterogeneous mass of people.

In developing countries permanent education could absorb a huge clientele made up of adolescents who have left school early and would like to continue their primary education and to learn or have further training in, a particular trade, and adults wishing to complete their partial primary or secondary education, as well as untrained adults wishing to acquire a trade or profession. This is especially so if the young worker knows that he will have to change employment two or three times in the course of his working life, frequently change his work station and often adapt to new production techniques, and the adult knows that he, if well motivated, can learn in three months what an adolescent under constraint has refused to learn in three years.

Other groups which a system of permanent education could benefit would be adults in technical occupations wishing to receive further training so as to become better qualified for their jobs, adults seeking admission to universities and wishing to obtain the necessary qualifications and young people or adults wishing to gain some knowledge in the spheres of art or science in their leisure time and with all the freedom that permanent education allows.

Taking all of the foregoing discussion into account, it

may be observed that permanent education represents a tremendous challenge to traditional educational systems, ideas and practices. It demands a major shift in thinking about educational needs and the way in which they can be satisfied. Indeed, permanent education offers an opportunity to envisage what modern educational provision in both developed and developing countries not only can but also should be aspiring to achieve.

References: Chapter Two

- (1) Wiltshire, H., Taylor, J., Jennings, B. (reprinters), Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham, 1980. The 1919 Report - The final and Interim Reports of the Adult Education Committee of the Ministry of Reconstruction 1918-1919. Final Report, p. 5.
- (2) Yeaxler, A.B., Lifelong Education. A Sketch of the Range and Significance of the Adult Education Movement, London, Cassell, 1929.
- (3) Jackson, R., "Recurrent and Adult Education, Expectations and Realities" in Recurrent Education, Concepts and Policies for Lifelong Education, edited on behalf of the Comparative Education Society in Europe, by Raymond Ryba and Brian Holmes, 1973, p.112.
- (4) Council of Europe, Permanent Education, Strasbourg, 1970, p. 376.
- (5) Lanteri-Laura, G., in Permanent Education, Strasbourg, 1970, p. 207.
- (6) Ibid., p. 208.
- (7) Hummell, Ch., Education Today for the World of Tomorrow, Unesco, 1977, p. 35.
- (8) Ibid., p. 37.
- (9) Dave, R.H., Reflections on Lifelong Education and the School, Unesco, 1975, p. 43.
- (10) Richmond, W.K., "The Future of Education. A Dialogue with Paul Lengrand", Scottish Educational Journal, No. 59, 1976.
- (11) Council of Europe, Permanent Education, Strasbourg, 1970, p. 376.
- (12) Holmes, B., Aims and Theories in Education: A Framework for Comparative Analysis, meeting paper for the Panel of Consultants on Educational Goals and Theories, Geneva, 1975.
- (13) Hummel, Ch., Education Today for the World of Tomorrow, Unesco, 1977, p. 52.
- (14) Ibid., p. 53.
- (15) Faure, E., Learning to Be, Paris, Unesco, 1972.
- (16) The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 26.
- (17) Walker, W.G. in Towards a System of Lifelong Education, edited by Cropley, A.J., Pergamon Press and Unesco, Hamburg, 1980, p. 141.

- (18) Parkyn, G.W., Towards a Conceptual Model of Lifelong Education, Unesco, 1973, p. 44.
- (19) Walker, W.G. in Towards a System of Lifelong Education, edited by Cropley, A.J., Pergamon Press and Unesco, Hamburg, 1980, p. 143.
- (20) Kurland, N.D. in Ibid., pp. 163-169.
- (21) Paper from the International Teacher Organisation, presented in Geneva at the 35th International Conference on Education, August-September 1975, p. 7.
- (22) Lynch, J., Lifelong Education and the Preparation of Educational Personnel, U.I.E., Monographs 5, 1977, p. 20.
- (23) Ibid., p. 28.
- (24) Ibid., p. 22.
- (25) Cropley, A.J. and Dave, R.H., Lifelong Education and the Training of Teachers, Pergamon Press, Unesco, 1978, p. 44.
- (26) Lynch, J., Lifelong Education and the Preparation of Educational Personnel, U.I.E., Monographs 5, 1977, p. 45.
- (27) Ibid., p. 47.
- (28) Ibid., p. 48.

Chapter Three

CASE STUDIES

As stated earlier, the essential elements of a permanent education system are already present in some degree in most societies. There are some facilities for adult education in every country; there are school and university systems for children and adolescents in almost every country; there is a variety of pre-school and out-of-school arrangements and facilities for on-the-job training in vocational skills, and there are libraries, galleries, museums and so on. But today there is no country in the world which has set up a complete system of permanent education. It is an extremely complex task. However, there are some countries which have enacted interesting legal provisions which constitute the base of innovations and reforms conceived from the point of view of permanent education.

The educational systems of certain selected countries will now be analysed; it will become evident that various forms of permanent education will be found in these educational systems but with different degrees of development and extent. The first country to be examined is Cuba.

CUBA

Cuban education in historical perspective

As in other Latin American countries, in colonial Cuba, education was in the hands of religious congregations such as Dominicans and Franciscans. The first schools opened in Havana in 1574-78. However, in 1833 there were no more than 60 schools. The first Cuban university opened in 1728. In the middle of the 19th century some efforts to reform and expand education were made, but in spite of this by 1894, 90 per cent of the population still was

not entitled to have formal education (1). As R.G. Paulston has pointed out, during the nineteenth century,

"Cuban education continued to follow the colonial pattern in which a relatively small elite of plantation owners, bureaucrats, and professionals educated their children in private schools or abroad. A few public, religious and charity schools existed for the urban, middle strata, leaving children of the large rural lower class unschooled as had always been the case (2)".

When the United States assumed control replacing Spain, the first comprehensive system of public primary schooling was established. From 1900 schooling was compulsory for students from the ages of six to fourteen, but in practice not all children attended school. According to M.R. Berube,

"In 1907, slightly over 30 per cent of children aged five to fourteen attended school; by 1919, 28.7 per cent were in school. A high of 63 per cent was reached in the prosperous years 1925-1926... There are no statistics for the 1930's but after a depression and a world war, the total was 58.1 per cent in 1950. By 1955, that had dropped to 51 per cent, the lowest in Latin America (excepting three countries) (3)".

However this attendance was not equally distributed. In spite of the fact that two thirds of Cubans lived in the country, city children were favoured. For instance, in many villages there was no school at all, and children whose parents worked in non-manual jobs were five times as likely to complete primary school as were those of agricultural labourers or peasants (4).

There existed in Cuba public and private education with economic, social and racial discrimination. For instance, the university of Havana would not admit anyone with negro blood, in a country one third of whose population is black or mulatto (5).

As R.G. Paulston has pointed out,

"The Cuban school system provided strikingly unequal educational opportunities to students according to their socio-economic status and place of residence. The system intensified rural-urban divisions and inculcated upper-class values and fostered aspirations that were simply unrealistic for the vast majority of Cuban child-

ren and largely dysfunctional for national development (6)".

Looking at literacy, it can be noted that in 1899, 43.2 per cent of the population over 10 years of age was literate and by 1931 it had reached 71.7 per cent of the population. In 1953 over 50 per cent of the school-age population had never attended school (7).

Immediately prior to the Revolution, 76 per cent of the population could read and write and this was a reasonable level of development by Latin American standards. However, in terms of Cuba's own needs,

"its education by the mid-fifties... was quantitatively inadequate and qualitatively inappropriate. It was elite-oriented; served as a force for economic stagnation; and perpetuated the alienation of the people (8)".

In spite of schooling being theoretically open to all, it served the few but not very well because the quality was low. According to a 1951 World Bank report, there was administrative waste, inefficiency and corruption in the schools:

"a teacher in Cuba was a government official with life tenure on full salary, whether teaching or not (9)".

Paulston, R.G. has added that,

"Absenteeism, apathy and social antagonism especially among teachers assigned to rural primary schools further intensified the marked differences between urban and rural education... Most teachers and inspectors live in the capital city or an important provincial city. They commute each day and from the moment they arrive at their respective schools, they have only one thought in mind - to leave in time for the last vehicle that will take them back home (10)".

According to the available educational figures, the state of education in 1958 was:

- (1) One million illiterates;
- (2) Over one million near-illiterates;
- (3) 600,000 children without schools; and
- (4) 10,000 teachers without jobs (11).

In order to understand how decisive was the 1959 Revolution

for Cuba and all aspects of the island's life, let us consider some more facts and figures:

Prior to 1959, the statistical picture of life in rural Cuba was bleak. According to P. Bourne,

"Seventy-five per cent of rural dwellings were huts made from palm trees. In rural areas, there was one physician for every two thousand persons. A third of the population had intestinal parasites, and vaccination programmes were non-existent.

"Only 4 per cent of the Cuban peasants ate meat on a regular basis; 1 per cent ate fish; less than 2 per cent ate eggs; 11 per cent milk, 3 per cent bread; none ate green vegetables.

"More than 50 per cent of rural dwellings had no sanitation, 85 per cent had no running water, and 91 per cent had no electricity.

"Twenty-seven per cent of urban children and 61 per cent of rural children did not attend school. Among adult peasants, 43 per cent were completely illiterate.

"Twenty-five per cent of the labour force was chronically unemployed. There was virtually no system of rural roads, keeping much of the peasant population in perpetual isolation (12)."

The main features of the pre-revolutionary economy were, among others: The capitalist penetration of the economy and the proletarianization of rural areas, the low rate of economic growth, the control of technology by foreign corporations, and the cultural influence of the United States, and the unequal distribution and the cultural influence of the United States and the unequal distribution of income and wealth and the concentration of technical, research, and managerial functions in United States hands.

In order to change this picture of Cuba the new government started to launch programmes which would reverse these statistics. According to Carnoy, M. and Wertheim, J.,

"In 1959 Cuba began a process of revolutionary change that transformed virtually all its institutions. Until that year, it had been dominated by the United States trade, investment, and cultural influence. The revolution not only shifted Cuba's trading partners, but made it into a Socialist state with goals and ideals fundamentally opposed to the existing capitalist structure and organisation of production.

"Cuba's new leaders attempted to develop a new set of values to guide the individual in social relations. At the same time they strove to incorporate the mass of the Cuban people into dynamic sectors of the economy and to raise their productivity through improved skills. It was in this context that educational reform took place (13)."

The accomplishments of the Cuban social programmes are impressive. In thirty months more classrooms were opened than the previous government opened in thirty years; Cuba's health-care system is the best in the developing world (there are a network of rural health centres and urban "polyclinics"; universal vaccination against childhood disease; virtual eradication of malaria and reduction of infant mortality rates). Six hundred miles of rural roads were built in the first six months of the revolution. rural areas had water and sanitation schemes, and houses were constructed for the peasant population. Children's nurseries and day-centres, institutions for the handicapped and homes for the aged were put up (14).

Although the Cubans did not use the concept of permanent education at the time, they were already moving towards it through the leadership's emphasis on opening up and extending the educational system. A high priority was given to education by providing large budgets for school construction programme development, teacher training, and the clearest sign of all of this being the Literacy Campaign. Two years after the revolution, in April 15, 1961, Fidel Castro started a mass literacy campaign. During nine months schools were closed, and everybody able to read and write went out to teach illiterates the 3 Rs, (23 per cent of the

population was illiterate at this time) (15). According to M. Richmond,

"Participating in the campaign were over 100,000 student volunteers organised into brigades (they were freed from their normal studies during the campaign). 121,000 alfabetizadores (literate adult volunteers); 15,000 workers released from their jobs on full pay, organised in the Patria o Muerte Brigade; and about 35,000 professional teachers. Of the 271,000 volunteers, 83.2 per cent came from urban backgrounds and 87.5 per cent were under the age of twenty (16)."

The two basic principles of the literacy campaign were:

- (a) If there were illiterates among the people, there were also teachers, and
- (b) those who know more should teach those who know less.

The campaign had significant results: illiteracy was reduced from over 23.6 per cent to 3.9 per cent, the lowest rate in Latin America and one of the lowest in the world. According to a UNESCO study conducted from 27 February to 27 March 1964, and published in 1965,

"The Campaign was not a miracle, but rather a difficult conquest obtained through work, technique and organisation..."

and concluded that this Campaign was

"a great event in the educational field that could serve as a model for other literacy campaigns" (17).

For the next decade the aim was to win the "Battle for the Sixth Grade" whereby more than half a million adults completed sixth grade adult education programmes, which made other levels and types of education available (18).

After the success of the literacy campaign the next goal was access. In July of 1961 (called the "Year of Education") and with the aim of providing equal educational opportunity, all private schools in the country were nationalised. Schools from pre-schools to universities opened their doors to every citizen without taking into account class, race, sex or ability to pay.

According to M. Richmond,

"Today Cuba's educational institutions are typically multi-racial, co-educational and contain students drawn from diverse social and cultural backgrounds" (19).

Looking into educational levels, it is possible to say that pre-school education has been increased dramatically, (this process of expansion started in 1959). Today the infant circles take children from 45 days old to 6 years old (through kindergarten). In 1983, 839 day care centres had an enrolment of 93,200 and a staff of almost 17,000 (20).

In Primary education (grades 1-6) enrolment has shown a big increase. In 1956 a little over one-half of Cuban's children were enrolled in school; today virtually all children aged from 6 to 12 go to school.

The Secondary school population has also experienced a big increase. Enrolment today, with 84 per cent of children between 13-16 years old, is 13 times higher than in 1958-1959.

With regard to Vocational Education, at the time of the revolution it was practically non-existent in Cuba. There were a few poorly equipped vocational training centres. There was only one centre of Industrial Education for training middle level technicians, plus 17 centres for skilled workers. Agricultural Education had six farm schools with 30 students each. Commercial Education had 11 public and 20 private schools (which make it the most developed) (21).

Today, this sub-system has been of special concern to the Cuban leadership for purposes of socio-economic development since technical-vocational education and training are critical for building up the country's labour force of skilled workers and medium-level technicians.

Between 1975-76 and 1979-80, enrolment in technical-

vocational schools more than doubled, from 100,000 to 214,000 students (22).

With regard to Higher Education, in 1959 there were only three universities with 15,000 students. Now there are 46 higher educational centres with over 240,000 students (23). About 50 per cent of students work. Higher education is tuition-free and students are entitled to receive support in the form of lodging, board and stipends (24).

In the future, as more and more students finish secondary education, enrolments in the universities will probably increase.

On the question of teacher education after the revolution, because of the rapid expansion of educational opportunity and the exodus of middle class professionals, there was an enormous demand for teachers. Consequently, Prime Minister Castro turned to youth to meet the teacher shortage. The selected young people received a general and ideological education of a high standard, as well as a minimum of training in psychology and educational theory (25). For this, many observers have criticised the teacher quality in the sense that they were not properly trained and were under-qualified or non-qualified. Their methods looked authoritarian, teacher-centred and examination-oriented. The government was aware of all this, but it felt that it had to make concessions. For instance, at this time the need for staff was so severe that some teachers were taking morning classes to learn what they were to teach the same afternoon (26).

Many efforts have been made to improve teacher quality. In 1972 prospective students at teacher training institutes had to have a ninth-grade level of achievement, which was raised in 1977 to a twelfth grade for admission for teachers of intermediate education.

A massive in-service training programme has been organised, which operates during the academic year and for one month in summer.

In relation to educational materials there were shortages of textbooks, poor quality of existing ones, lack of supplementary aids, etc. Very important changes in these aspects have been made. For instance, Cuba now produces its own modern audio-visual materials, and new textbooks have been produced and distributed at every grade level. Cuban teachers, helped by consultants from abroad, have prepared new materials and courses of study appropriate to Cuba's needs (27).

In the case of Adult Education, because of the diversity of formal and non-formal schemes for which Cubans can apply, it is difficult to give an estimation of the total number of enrolments but Adult Education has grown in such a way as to make lifelong learning a reality for many Cubans.

Adult Education, however, does not monopolise the combining of work with study, for Cuban secondary schooling manifests some interesting developments in this area.

In 1966 the school to the countryside was introduced. The school programme stipulated that urban secondary school students would carry out productive work in agriculture for five, seven or more weeks a year. After 1970, however, this programme was de-emphasised and some criticisms were made, for instance, that it does not contribute to give a solution to agricultural production problems; students do not devote enough time to study when in the work camps, and the time spent in these places disrupted the students' academic progress (28).

In the 1968-1969 school year, the government inaugurated the secondary school in the countryside.

According to J.J. Cogan,

"These co-educational basic secondary boarding schools are a major focus of current Cuban educational policy. Better than any other facet of the educational system, they symbolise Cuba's 'living' revolution. Students live, work and study together. They contribute directly to the economic production goals of Cuba." (29)

Its introduction in Cuba came after several years of experimentation and now they constitute a wide network in the country.

As in all basic secondary schools in Cuba, education is general and polytechnical and covers all subjects. However, the organisation and other features of this kind of school are unusual. These schools develop innovative curricula, methods of teaching and pedagogical research; in sum they are laboratories where solutions to educational problems can be tested (30).

According to M. Richmond,

"It seems possible that these schools can cover their operating expenses and over the years repay to the state some of their capital cost" (31),

and he adds,

"this educational innovation, therefore, may be seen not only as an answer to the need for self-financing education, but also as a way to create better work habits in the young and a deeper understanding of the value of productive work" (32).

In recent years, pre-university institutes have also been introduced into the countryside; again the work-study principle is applied here and in universities as well. Some minor productive work is even performed in primary schools.

If one looks into Cuban expenditure in education, one can see that its growth has been remarkable.

"The state education budget rose from 77 million pesos in 1958 to 332 million pesos in 1967, to 700 million pesos in 1973 and to an estimated 1340.8 million pesos in 1980... Per capita expenditure on education, furthermore, rose threefold between 1958 and 1966 to 39 pesos. By 1975 this figure had risen to 87 pesos per capita and to 137 pesos in 1980" (33).

Much of this money was spent in building new schools. Between 1958 and 1969 the number of primary schools almost doubled and secondary schools increased from 171 to 416. During the decade 1970-1980, 1,483 educational establishments were built. Part of this money went to the scholarship programmes, of which Cuba has one of the biggest in the world, covering such items as room and board, clothes, shoes, health care, recreation and a monthly allowance (34).

In spite of the success achieved, analysis of Cuban's education has revealed serious problems, many of which were inherent in the expansion of education and some resulting from the effect of the dead weight of cultural, social and economic underdevelopment. For instance, there were problems of attendance, drop-out., repetition, shortage of fully trained teachers, insufficient educational materials, etc.

According to Salas, L.,

"In 1969 over 400,000 students between the ages of six and sixteen were neither attending school nor working. By 1972 this applied to 215,513 school-age children. These children accounted for 2.4 per cent of ten year olds, 5.5 per cent of twelve year olds, 13.1 per cent of thirteen year olds, 23.3 per cent of fourteen year olds, 44.3 per cent of fifteen year olds, and 60.2 per cent of sixteen year olds" (35).

However, thanks to much effort and several new initiatives, by 1976 the Government was able to report a 98.5 per cent attendance rate for 6-12 year olds and a 78.3 per cent rate for 13-16 year olds (36).

If one looks into drop-out rates, it can be seen that, during the early years of F. Castro's government, in primary schooling the rate was 80 per cent. However, because of several measures taken by the government, for instance, a law against loafing, compulsory military service between 1971-1972, integration into units to aid agricultural production, extension of education after the sixth grade, etc., in 1976 a drop-out rate of 2 per cent

was reported for primary education; 6.7 per cent for basic secondary education and 3.4 per cent for pre-university institutes (37).

Promotion rates were also disappointing at that time, for instance, in 1968-69 over 700,000 students between 6-16 years old had to repeat the equivalent of two years of schooling.

However, in 1976 the promotion rate was 97.3 per cent for primary education, 96.1 per cent for basic secondary education and 95.9 per cent for pre-university institutes (38).

In sum, it is possible to say that post-revolutionary Cuba had to implement several reforms set in the context of its revolutionary ideology. In the educational field the most important reforms were the radical change in Adult Education, the expansion of primary and secondary education, the shift of schooling to rural areas, the close relation between study and work, and the linking of schools and workplaces. So, Cuba in these 29 years has virtually wiped out illiteracy and given all adults at least six years of schooling and the majority nine; it has a large pre-school network; university intake has increased nearly 13-fold and there are many more higher education outlets.

At the same time it is true that some problems and controversies still persist, for example, the existence of special or elite high schools for highly gifted children may appear ill-suited to a developing country promoting egalitarianism; also the traditional practices of academic selection, grade promotion, and individualistic competition may seem anomalous in a revolutionary socialist society. On the other hand such elitist and individualist tendencies are not free from counteracting trends: the Cuban system continues to emphasise revolutionary idealism, socialist ideas, collective effort and moral incentives as ways of mitigating these tendencies.

In conclusion this effort of 29 years which has trans-



formed education in both formal and non-formal structures has been, as E. Epstein has pointed out, an

"heroic effort to raise their standards of education and make learning a natural part of their everyday lives. Few, if any other nation can claim the use of schools to achieve such a pervasive transformation of social, political and economic life" (39).

The Cuban Educational System

The Cuban educational system shows the following features:

(1) Principles, Goals and Objectives of Education

The aim of Cuban education is to form the new generations on the basis of a scientific outlook on the world; to develop fully the intellectual, physical and spiritual capabilities of the individual, and to promote elevated sentiments and aesthetic taste.

The objectives, goals, principles and priorities of education are established in Articles Nos. 8-38-39-50 and 51 of the Constitution of the Republic.

"Article 8 - The socialist state:

- (a) Carries out the will of the working people and channels the efforts of the nation on the construction of socialism;..
 - assures the educational, scientific, technical and cultural progress of the country;
- (b) as the power of the people and for the people, guarantees...
 - that no child be left without schooling, food and clothing;
 - that no young person be left without the opportunity to study;
 - that no one be left without access to studies, culture, and sports.

Article 38 - The state orients, forments and promotes education, culture and science in all their manifestations. Its educational and cultural policy is based on the following principles:

- (a) the state bases its educational and cultural policy on scientific world view, established and developed by Marxism-Leninism;

- (b) education is a function of the state. Consequently, educational institutions belong to the state. The fulfilment of the educational function constitutes a task in which all society participates and is based on the conclusions and contributions made by science and on the closest relationship between study and life, work and production;
- (c) the state must promote the communist education of the new generations and the training of children, young people and adults for social life. In order to make this principle a reality, general education and specialised scientific, technical or artistic education are combined with work, development research, physical education, sports, participation in political and social activities and military training;
- (d) education is provided free of charge. The state maintains a broad scholarship system for students and provides the workers with multiple opportunities to study, with a view to the universalisation of education. The law establishes the integration and structure of the national system of education and the extent of compulsory education and defines the minimum level of general education that every citizen must acquire;
- (e) artistic creativity is free as long as its content is not contrary to the Revolution. Forms of expression of art are free;
- (f) in order to raise the level of culture of the people, the state forments and develops artistic education, the vocation for creation and the cultivation and appreciation of art;
- (g) creation and investigation in science are free. The state encourages and facilitates investigation and gives priority to that which is aimed at solving the problems related to the interests of the society and the well-being of the people;
- (h) the state makes it possible for the workers to engage in scientific work and to contribute to the development of science;
- (i) the state promotes, forments and develops all forms of physical education and sports as a means of education and of contribution to the integral development of the citizens;
- (j) the state sees to the conservation of the nation's cultural heritage and artistic and historic wealth. The state protects national monuments and places known for their natural beauty or their artistic or historic value;
- (k) the state promotes the participation of the citizens, through the country's social and mass organisations, in the development of its educational and cultural policy.

Article 39: The education of children and young people in the spirit of communism is the duty of all society.

The state and society give special protection to children and young people.

It is the duty of the family, the schools, the state agencies and the social and mass organisations to pay special attention to the integral development of children and young people.

Article 50: Everyone has the right to an education. This right is guaranteed by the free and widespread system of schools, semi-boarding and boarding schools and scholarships of all kinds and all levels of education, and because of the fact that all educational material is provided free of charge, which gives all children and young people, regardless of their family's economic position, the opportunity to study in keeping with their ability, social demands and the needs of socio-economic development.

Adults are also guaranteed this right and education for them is free of charge with the specific facilities regulated by law, by means of the adult education programme, technical and vocational education, training courses in state agencies and enterprises and the advanced courses for workers.

Article 51: Everyone has the right to physical education, sports and recreation.

Enjoyment of this right is assured by including the teaching and practice of physical education and sports in the curricula of the national educational system; and by the broad nature of the instruction and means placed at the service of the people, which makes possible the practice of sports and recreation on a mass basis." (40)

Otherwise expressed, according to the educational policy established by the Cuban State and Government, education in Cuba is a function of the state in which all members of society participate. Education is thus a right and a duty of all citizens of the country. In Cuba all citizens, regardless of race, sex or social origin, have access to education. To ensure the universalisation of education the Cuban state guarantees schooling for all school-age children and young people, and provides all young people and adults willing to continue higher specialised studies with study facilities which include courses for workers.

All Cuban education from the elementary to the higher

levels, is built on one ruling principle: that of the combination of study with work, the fundamental way of linking theory with practice, instruction with production and social services, and, in short, of linking the school with life.

The ultimate aim of Cuban education is the formation of a multilateral and harmoniously developed personality capable of building the new society for the full enjoyment of its own accomplishment (41).

To achieve this lofty aim, the Cuban educational system combines intellectual education with scientific and technological education, political and ideological education, physical education, moral education, aesthetic education and patriotic and military education.

(2) System of Administration

The system of Administration is determined by the Constitution of the Republic which establishes the organisation and functional principles of the National and Local Organs of People's Power as well as by other state laws.

The technical and administrative structure of the Ministry of Education is based on the principle that education is a life-long uninterrupted process whose beginnings and end is the human being himself, and which is continued throughout his life. So, it is not only up to schools but all institutions outside the school which have an educational function have to lend their support to the school and work in co-ordination with the Ministry of Education (42).

The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education carry out and supervise the educational policy of the State and the Government. The provincial and municipal Offices of Education are entrusted with the administration of the

educational centres and services subordinated to them at each level. The Ministry of Higher Education is in charge of carrying out the Government's policy at this level. In addition, Law 1307, establishes the structure of Higher Education specialities which are organised into fifteen groups corresponding to the main lines of the country's development, and determines the national network of centres of higher education (43).

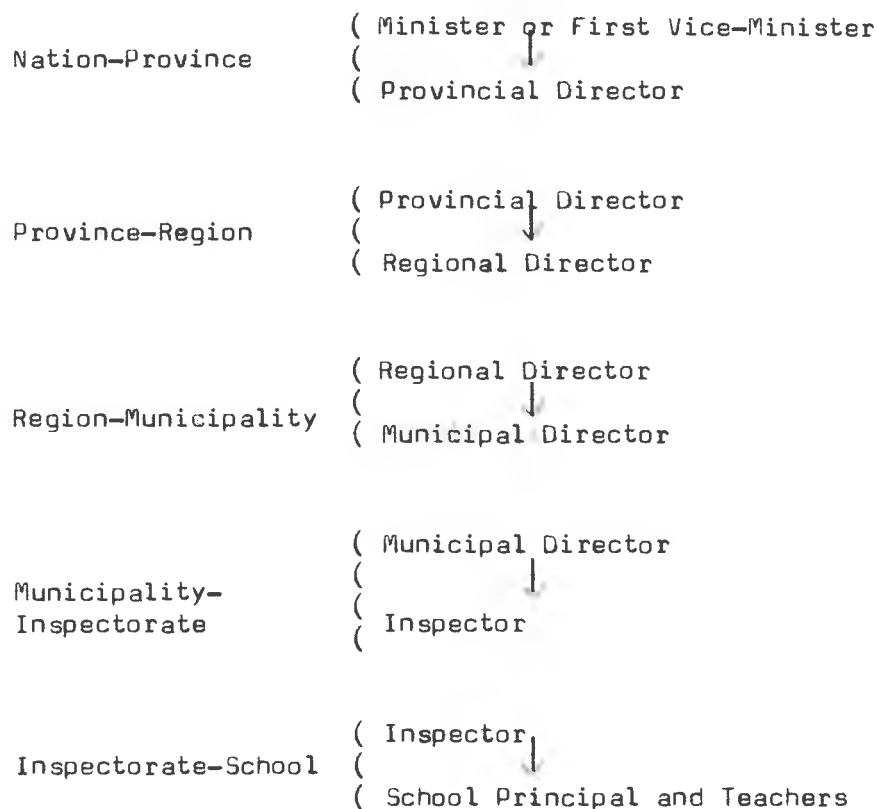
Municipal and provincial Offices of Education are subject to the double subordination principle that is, to the People's Power local organ in regards to administrative matters, and to the Ministry of Education in normative and methodological matters.

On the basis of the double subordination principle, the Ministry of Education is responsible for, and has decision-making powers concerning the different municipal and provincial offices of education in the following aspects: principles, methodological standards and procedures; technical advice, training of pedagogical personnel and provision of technical cadres in short supply; research and experimentation; general and specialised supervision in educational centres and accessories; and complementary statistics (44).

Through this, a balanced combination of centralisation and decentralisation is achieved between the organs of the central administration, and the local organs of People's Power. Consequently, the Municipal Offices of People's Power, are responsible for the proper functioning of all schools in their jurisdiction and on the other hand, the Ministry of Education exerts its methodological guidance through the above mentioned functions. This arrangement guarantees the unity of the system in regard to the social responsibility entrusted to it by the state.

This structure operates according to the principle that

technical and administrative decisions always reach each level from that which immediately precedes it in the hierarchy:



(45)

(3) Financing of Education

Educational cost, both current expenditure and investment (school building, equipment, etc.), are met by State funds approved in the State Budget by the National Assembly of People's Power (46).

In spite of the economic difficulties resulting from the drop in sugar prices and the blights that have affected certain basic sectors, there has been a sustained increase in the budget for education. Whereas the budget for the first school year following the triumph of the Revolution ran to 12 pesos per capita, by 1982 it had risen to 154 pesos.

According to L. Blum, the Cuban Government "has been investing an average of 7 per cent of G.N.P. in education each year" (47); and it has been said that in the most recent time more

than 11 per cent of the G.N.P. is devoted to education (48).

(4) The Structure of the National System of Education

The organisation and responsibilities of the different types of education will now be examined.

The national system of education is conceived as a set of subsystems that are integrated and articulated at all levels and types of education. These sub-systems are the following:

- Pre-School education;
- General Polytechnical and Labour education;
- Special education;
- Technical and Vocational education;
- Higher education;
- Training and Improvement of teaching personnel;
- Adult education;
- Extracurricular education.

(a) Pre-school Education

This constitutes the first stage within general education and the one which sets the foundations for the future development of the child and prepares him gradually for school, which he enters at the age of 5 in the pre-primary grade.

The day-care centres known as circulos infantiles, (infant circles), basic institutions in which pre-school education develops, were created in 1961, to meet two essential needs: first, to scientifically educate and develop the children from a very early age (from 45 days old), and second, to facilitate the access of women to work by providing care and education for their children.

When they were initially introduced the day-care centres were resisted because of the traditional family structure in Cuba,

in which children are taken care of by mothers and grand-mothers, but once mothers realised the rewards of working outside the home for part of the day, resistance diminished (49).

At present, there are 817 institutions which attend to 95,373 children. In these institutions 13,666 teachers work at a ratio of 8 children per teacher. The number of women benefited by these institutions amounts to 35,899 (50). This service is constantly extended depending on the resources available. These care centres keep open from 6.0 a.m. to 7.00 p.m. when mothers returning from work could bring their children home (51). At the same time these centres give to children three nutritionally balanced meals a day, emphasise health care, and are much concerned with cleanliness (52).

In these childhood institutions an extensive programme of activity is carried out, including also education for parents, accomplished through Parents Committees and through lectures with the aim of getting them to participate more actively and consciously in the education and guidance of their children. Pedagogical and psychological knowledge is also disseminated through radio and T.V. programmes and the written press.

(b) General Polytechnical and Labour Education

This sub-system comprises:

- Pre-primary grade;
- Elementary education;
- General Secondary education.

The pre-primary grade, which lasts one year, constitutes the preparatory cycle for the beginning of elementary education, and its objective is to promote the intellectual, physical, moral and aesthetic development of the five year old child. There are at present more than 122,000 children of five years of age doing

their pre-primary grade (53).

This pre-primary grade was guaranteed to all children under the Plan for Improving Schooling of 1976; however, the universalisation of Kindergarten education has not yet been realised (54).

Elementary education starts at six and comprises 1st to 6th grades and is divided into two cycles: one from 1st to 4th grades and the other from 5th to 6th.

The objective of the first cycle is to provide a good basic grounding in the Spanish language and mathematics, to develop the skills and habits necessary for independent work, to inculcate a love for study and to contribute to the integral formation of the pupils. In short, to prepare students to be able to assimilate the systematic teaching programmes that begin in the 2nd cycle (55).

During this first cycle the students have only one teacher for all subjects and they move on with him or her until they finish the cycle (56). Cuban Educators think that in this way teachers will better know the students' deficiencies and have more time to work on these shortcomings. On the other hand, the students are promoted without regard to national or provincial tests (57).

The second cycle (5th to 6th grades) continues the development of the first cycle's objectives and begins developing the content of the subjects that are included in the syllabuses up to 12th grade.

In the fifth year promotion is based on school and provincial tests (60 per cent and 40 per cent respectively), and in the sixth year graduation is based on school and national examinations (60 per cent and 40 per cent respectively), so, external criteria are used at this level (58).

In primary education new methods have been introduced. For instance, a new method was introduced for teaching children how to read, known as the phonetic-analytic-synthetic system, which is the outcome of a scientific analysis of the process of learning how to read. Another very important teaching innovation was introducing modern mathematics right from 1st grade (59).

The school year at primary level consists of 36 five-day weeks, with a minimum of 4½ hours of study a day (urban and rural sectors).

General Secondary education also comprises two cycles: lower secondary which covers 7th, 8th and 9th grades, where students continue the systematisation of their studies by subjects, and pre-university or in-depth education from 10th to 12th grades (60).

Upon completion of 9th grade the students have attained the compulsory basic education necessary to continue the general secondary education or to begin studies in a technical and vocational centre, in a teacher-training school or in a day-care teacher-training school (61).

Pre-university education enlarges and deepens previous knowledge and provides a complete general polytechnical secondary education.

Twelfth grade graduates having an adequate cultural background can continue higher studies in polytechnical institutes or at the university, or start working as medium-level technicians, after taking a one year specialisation course.

(c) Special Education

The special schools in Cuba are organised according to the types of physical or mental handicap. Thus there are schools for the blind, the weak-sighted, the deaf, the hard-of-hearing and

the mentally retarded. Special education also comprises educational institutions for children and youth with behaviour problems.

The programmes for these children are geared to teaching them to study, to work and to function socially.

In all provinces there are Diagnosis and Orientation Centres responsible for carrying out the analysis and diagnosis of the children and youth, that need to go to these special schools.

The syllabuses and curricula in force in the General Polytechnical Labour Education are applied in these schools with suitable adaptations (62).

The enrolment in this branch of the educational system in the last twenty years has been gradually increasing. According to figures this increase has been as follows: 1959-60 : 134 students; 1970-71 : 7880 students; 1975-76 : 12,483 students; 1979-80 : 25,026 students (63). The teaching staff in the last five years has increased from 2,347 to 4,936, and a series of seminars and follow-up courses have been held during which the teaching staff were taught the principles, methods, procedures and techniques to be applied in order to make the improvement programme a success (64).

(d) Technical and Vocational Education

This sub-system is in charge of providing the qualified medium-level labour force that the country's economy requires for the development of the different branches of production and social services. Enrolment in this sub-system fluctuates in accordance with the government's strategy for economic growth.

Ninth grade graduates entering this sub-system can choose between two types of courses: those for skilled workers and those for medium-level technicians. The training of skilled workers, takes place in polytechnical schools through courses lasting from

one to two years; and the training of medium-level technicians is carried out in polytechnical institutes, through courses lasting from 3 to 4 years (65).

Upon completion of these courses the students have obtained a speciality and have reached a level equivalent to 12th grade of General Education, which allows them to start higher studies.

As an exception, a three-year course for the training of skilled workers is kept with a 6th grade entrance level for students who have dropped out of the National System of Education and are re-entering it as older students, or, for pedagogically retarded students. This type of pupil, generally aged 13 to 16, enrolls in the Workshop School of the Youth Movement, in which he acquires a level equivalent to 9th grade, as well as a trade; this enables him to start working and continue studying in a Polytechnical Institute or to follow up-grading courses, developed by various Ministries (66).

This sub-system also gives technical advice and supervises the courses organised and directed by various state agencies for the students of the formal system of education; in addition, it develops training and complementary courses for workers in 235 specialities of which 110 correspond to courses for medium-level technician and 125 to courses for skilled workers (67).

New polytechnic centres have been attached to sugar and other industrial complexes in rural areas to train skilled workers for factories and farms in rural Cuba. Part of the curriculum of these schools is 16 hours of work per week for each student in his or her vocational speciality (68).

(e) Higher Education

Like all the other levels of education, higher education was not ignored by the revolutionary government. Worker-peasant Faculties were set up to deal with the people that before were denied a chance of further study. In 1960, a system of grants for students was introduced as well as a chain of residences. In 1962 a university reform was introduced which broke with the old classical mould. But the real change came only in the mid-1970s when the university started to follow models set by other socialist countries, in particular the concept of preparing specialists the economy needed rather than individuals for careers (69). The university became almost entirely oriented to technical subjects. According to F. Castro,

"The old idea of the classic university will disappear as a concept and as an institution that belongs to a superseded society. And so, production itself, the productive processes, will constitute the material base, the laboratory, where in the future all workers will receive their higher education" (70).

The changes were so deep in higher education that it became necessary to set up a central supervisory body, the Ministry of Higher Education.

The higher education network is composed (1984 figures) of 4 Universities; 38 Institutes; 2 Polytechnics and 2 Centres besides some special schools attached to Ministries (71). In these centres, 162 specialities and 150 specialisations are taught and they can set up their own branches and teaching units which they direct (72).

Students reach Higher Education through the following two ways: one, after the culmination of complete general secondary education (12th grade) within the National System of Education, and another through the parallel system of Adult Education, or teacher-training schools or mid-level centres of technical and vocational education.

In the first case, the students enter day courses in which they study on a full-time basis; in the second case, they enter worker's courses, in either of two modalities: day or evening courses, and guided courses, which allow them to study without leaving their work. Fifty per cent of the student body in the universities is composed of workers (73).

The universities offer post-graduate courses which now are called the Fourth level of education with 25,090 post-graduates (74) and they are responsible for the granting of scientific degrees and doctorates to those who have reached a high level of development in their specialities.

As in the other educational levels, university students, as part of their course, have to do some practical work. This may take the form of special detachments as in the case of doctors and teachers, or simply working in sugar mills, manufacturing, mechanical engineering, etc.

On finishing their studies, all students work two to three years in any place the country needs them as a symbolic way of "paying back" the State for the education they have received.

There is also an Open University whereby students enrol, pick up a reading list, do private study and sit the examinations.

These courses are very important for the Cuban economy and for the State because it is a means of acquiring a more skilled labour force and for the individual because it means better job prospects (75). In other words, this modality based on self-teaching makes it possible for workers, housewives and pensioners to raise their academic level with the maximum economy of lectures and facilities, which are used only during examination periods.

(f) Training and Improvement of Teaching Personnel

After the victory of the revolution, there were in Cuba 10,000 qualified elementary school teachers without a job. Aware of this, the government created over 10,000 vacancies for teachers at rural schools; but not all of them wanted to work in rural schools, so many of them tried to find work in towns. For this reason, F. Castro turned to youth, who were called "voluntary teachers", to teach in rural areas.

Prime Minister, F. Castro, in a public speech, defined the basic principles of the teaching profession as follows:

"Elementary school teachers must be prepared by making greater demands on them every time; secondary school teachers must be prepared by making full use of our magnificent conditions, which also exist for the preparation of our teachers of polytechnical and technical trade schools and universities. We must prepare them adequately for their work and also enable them constantly to improve their cultural standard. We must also have the necessary reserves to allow us to provide for our own requirements as educated people and, if possible, to be able to assist fraternal peoples if they are for it". (76)

The new system of teacher preparation (which remained in effect until 1968-69) took students who finished the sixth grade and put them in a five-year course, the first of which had to be spent in a mountain school, and the last two years in a training school in Havana (77).

This was the time when the Cuban policy in teacher preparation proclaimed that if the revolution in education was to occur, preparation of teachers should take place in rugged, isolated rural conditions (78).

However, by the 1970s this method had too many critics, claiming that it had affected teacher recruitment and the quality of teacher training. Even more, the Prime Minister in his Report to the First Congress of the Communist Party recognised that, by adopting this policy, the regime had made "a major mistake in

education during the 1960s". He said,

"We were slow in realising that the system was unrealistic.... and that for a time it affected the availability of graduate teachers" (79).

During the early 1970s teacher-training was decentralised. Many teacher-training centres were established all over the country.

"In 1983 there were 21 teacher training facilities with an approximate enrolment of 48,025 students" (80).

The various plans for the training of teachers which had existed since 1959 were replaced by an integrated sub-system of initial and further educational training under the direction of a Department at the Ministry of Education.

This sub-system comprises two levels: Intermediary and Higher.

Intermediary pedagogical training provides the graduates with a general preparation equivalent to pre-university level. The enrolment is carried out through a process of selection of applicants that have finished general secondary school (9th grade) or any equivalent standard of education.

These intermediary level institutions are called Teacher-Training Schools and here teachers are prepared for work at elementary school and also within the scope of the Five Year Plan, for work at special schools. This level includes the pedagogical section attached to polytechnical institutes, the training of school librarians and the training of teachers of Day-Care Centres (81).

Training for this level of education takes four years and the future teacher is trained in two directions: for teaching in classes 1-4 (general training in all subjects), and specialised training for teaching one or two subjects, for instance, Mathematics; Spanish Language and History; Geography and Biology, etc. (82).

Pedagogical training in Higher Education furnishes a higher level preparation for its graduates, and it is carried out

through day, evening and guided courses. The entrance to higher pedagogical institutes, where this level of training is provided, takes place after a process of selection of applicants who have finished pre-university studies (12th grade) or any equivalent level. In other words, admission to higher educational training requires university entrance standard and the graduates of such training courses have a university degree (83).

This level also includes the Higher Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages where foreign language teachers for secondary schools are trained, and the Higher Pedagogical Institutes for Technical and Vocational Education, where teachers for this type of secondary school are trained. At the higher pedagogical institutes the duration of courses is also four years, although the need to extend the courses at this level is being analysed (84), and 14 special subjects are offered.

Practical training courses are envisaged for the 3rd and 4th year of studies and they are organised in such a way that 50 per cent of the students continue their theoretical studies during one semester while the other 50 per cent are in practical training. During the next semester the students change place (85).

The up-grading and improvement of the in-service teaching personnel is carried out through the Institute of Educational Improvement (I.E.I.).

The I.E.I. and its network of provisional and municipal institutes is in charge of planning, organising and developing the technical and methodological guidance for teachers and to contribute decisively to the application, intensification and systematization of the knowledge and training of in-service teaching personnel.

Some of the activities carried out by this Institute

are the following:

- up-grading courses and seminars;
- courses to confer a degree to those teachers not having the proper one;
- periodic pedagogical seminars, in which the best teachers meet and disseminate their experiences, are used to encourage and support creative ideas in the search for new ways of improving the vanguard pedagogical experiences;
- post-graduate courses and studies for graduate teachers (86).

In short, the Institute of Educational Improvement and its network, as methodological and teaching centres, have as their main task the strengthening of the in-service teachers through the work of pedagogic personnel with reference to the theoretical-scientific, general methodological, and pedagogical levels.

According to figures obtained by M. Leiner at the Ministry of Education in Cuba in 1984,

"During the 1982-83 school year Cuba had approximately 250,000 teachers and professors, more than 83,000 in the primary schools, more than 94,000 in the secondary schools, almost 8,600 in special education, approximately 25,000 in adult education, and nearly 12,500 in university centres. The present teaching population is approximately 11 times higher than before the Revolution with 130,000 having been added to the teaching force since the early 1970s" (87).

(g) Adult Education

The main function of Adult Education in Cuba is to make it possible for all workers and adults to have access to culture, to meet their spiritual and cognitive needs.

On the other hand, Adult Education contributes to meeting the social needs of a qualified labour force; for this purpose, it offers the basic academic requirements to enrol in the courses, schools and institutes which provide technical or vocational up-grading.

In the main, adult education is consistent with the sub-system of General Education in regard to the essence and main content of the curricula and syllabuses for each level; however, it has special features according to the type of student, his age and characteristics and previous knowledge derived from his labour experience and past life (88).

The sub-system of Adult Education has the following structure:

- Worker-farmer education;
- Worker-farmer secondary level;
- Worker-farmer pre-university level;
- Language schools for workers;
- Special courses.

Worker-farmer education constitutes the elementary education for adults and comprises four courses, each of which corresponds to a semester in the school year (89).

According to G.H. Read, this level of the sub-system of Adult Education,

"seeks to up-grade the meagre knowledge of the peasants and workers which was acquired during the literacy campaign or after a few years of schooling" (90),

and prepared the students for worker-farmer secondary level, polytechnical schools and other training courses which require elementary school admission level.

The Worker-farmer Secondary level consists of basic secondary education for adults, providing its graduates with a school level equivalent, in the main, to the lower secondary level of general education (91). This education provides the general academic requirements to enrol in polytechnical centres and other courses that train skilled workers and medium level technicians.

It also prepares the students for the worker-farmer pre-university level.

The Worker-farmer pre-university level constitutes the complete general secondary level for adults, which makes enrolment in higher education possible for those workers who require it (92).

Language schools provide the knowledge of a foreign language as a means of social communication as a work tool, and for self-education. The number of language schools for workers has been increased to over 90 and they are distributed throughout the country and are attended by some 30,000 students.

Special courses, are organised for personnel having special characteristics: for the cadres of political and mass organisations, for those who belong to Merchant Marine units and the Ministry of Fishing Industry, for the penitentiary schools and others. These courses have the same syllabuses established for each level of adult education.

(h) Extracurricula Education

Besides the above mentioned types and sub-systems of education, there is the Extracurricular Education, which is devoted to complement, reinforce and enrich the instructive educative role played by the school. According to A. Gillette,

"to some extent this part (extracurricular education) was designed to offer pupils educational experiences for which there was no time or place in the formal school structure" (93).

For Gillette, Extracurricular Education has played, in the shift toward technology and science, a role whose magnitude has no precedent in Latin America and perhaps in the world.

This education comprises non-teaching activities that may be performed in school or elsewhere by teachers (monitor's

movement, interest circles, elective classes, etc.); by the state agencies (school and youth games, art festivals, etc.); and by social and mass organisations (contests, emmulations, and political and ideological, cultural, sports and patriotic-military activities organised by the Young Communist League, the Federation of Secondary School Students and the University Students Federation) (94).

Extracurricular activities are developed in educational centres, and other local institutions, as an articulated sub-system beginning in elementary school and intensified in general secondary and higher education. The organisation and development of these activities facilitates the proper use of the student's leisure time and contributes to his multilateral and harmonious development (95).

The following are some of the main activities organised by this sub-system:

- Interest Circles (Circulos de Interes)

The Interest Circles in primary and secondary schools and also in cultural activities as ballet, painting and cinema appreciation, begin in 1963. The aim of the Interest Circle is

"to provide a complementary function to Cuban education, develop other phases of student personality, and help students toward possible career choices" (96).

The Interest Circles range from agricultural and industrial specialities to literacy and artistic ones, and have been designed to further academic competence in areas that may best serve the development of the economy (97).

The circles are a very popular and a voluntary spare-time activity. Each circle is composed of a group of 15 participants with a shared interest. Meetings take place outside normal school hours, once or twice a week under the leadership of an adult, who plays the role of a technical adviser and,

"who might be a scientist from a nearby university, a research specialist from a local enterprise, or a technician engaged in practical problems of production" (98).

The students remain in a given circle during the whole school year or more if they show interest and aptitude for it.

Cooperating agencies such as hospitals, factories and laboratories work with the Interest Circles on exchange visits and support them with advice and leadership. The Interest Circle breaks away from the traditional scholastic system by using the rich experience of the community to benefit students' learning (99).

There are, of course, no marks or examinations to sanction participation.

Information concerning the interest circle is given through the mass media or by personnel visiting schools to tell students of their range of activities.

During the 1979-1980 school year, there were 20,295 interest circles with an enrolment of 300,602 students, and 12,260 lectures on vocational information were given (100).

- School Contests and the Monitors Movement. These are activities that promote the interest of the students in those subjects in which they are more capable. These activities, which allow them to participate in contests on various academic subjects, are organised yearly at all levels, leading up to the National contests in the case of general secondary education. Monitors are the pupils that are more capable in one subject, who carry out specific activities that help their classmates during the teaching-educational process under the direct guidance of their teachers.

- Sports and Recreational Activities - In Cuba every student has access to sports; the generalised practice of sports is a goal to

achieve by educational institutions. From this great mass of students, and through a process of selection, the most out-standing participants are chosen; these reach a higher stage of participation: the School Sports Games and the Youth Games, which constitute the final stage of sports activities in each school year.

- Tourist-Recreation Circles, Camping and Summer Camps -

There has been an increase in the development of the tourist recreation circles and camping during recent school years, not only in the amount of circles that were created but also in the quality with which this programme was developed. At present there are more than 500 circles with more than 15,000 participants (101).

Summer camps are organised during the summer vacations, for the recreation of secondary school students. These camps are located on the beaches and develop a broad programme of sports, cultural and recreational activities.

- Study-recreation Pioneer's Camps -

There are 12 study-recreation camps, which are attended by nearly 145,000 students a year (102). Each group of students stays in these camps for 15 days, during which they continue having their lessons and carry out numerous extra-curricular activities as well.

- Youth Seminars for Studies of Marti's Work -

These seminars, carried out yearly, have as their main objective to deepen into the study of the life and works of Jose Marti, Cuban's National hero.

- Amateur Art Movement - The branches of the Ministry of Culture, together with the students and youth organisations develop

a broad movement of art amateurs who may form part of music, drama, dance, plastic arts and choral groups. These activities culminate in the municipal, provincial and national Amateur Art Festivals.

Guided visits to museums, historical monuments, art galleries, and other cultural centres of the country are programmed for each year; in the same way, literacy works, shops, guitar as well as plastic arts groups, and film debate groups are organised in every educational institution. In the Houses of Culture that exist in all municipalities, a great number of opportunities are offered, with the aim of raising the level of the students' participation in cultural activities, and, at the same time, to channel their artistic inclinations, as well as to give them a chance to participate more often in the cultural life of the country.

- Patriotic-Military Activities - A broad plan of these kinds of activities is developed systematically in all educational institutions of the country. The objective of these activities is to develop in the pupils love of country, respect for Cuba's martyrs and heroes, to deepen into the study of Cuban History, and to care and preserve historic monuments.

- School for Parents - In Cuba the family plays an important role in the education of children. Parents are informed and given guidelines on pedagogical and psychological matters in the School for Parents, which prepare the family for a more effective relationship with the school and a better participation in the integral formation of the students. This task is also reinforced by radio and T.V. programmes as well as newspapers and magazines.

Study-work

The combination of study and work is a ruling principle of Cuban education; this principle is meant to be fulfilled at all levels and types of education through different modalities. It constitutes a fundamental variant of the principle that links theory and practice, the school with life and education with production.

In elementary education this principle is applied whenever possible through the school-gardens, located on the school premises, where students work out of school hours during the whole school year. Basic secondary school students from urban, non-boarding schools and pre-university institutes participate yearly for 45 days at harvest time in the School to the Countryside programme during which they work in various agricultural plans (103). Students of secondary school (Schools in the Countryside) constructed in accordance with industrial and agricultural plans, work for one session (3 hours) and attend classes in the other during the whole school year. Students in the Technical and Vocational Education Centres, in the Teacher-training Institutes and in Higher Education, systematically combine their speciality with production (104).

This principle serves two purposes: to acquaint the students with the world of work, developing in them a producer's consciousness, eliminating intellectualism from education and promoting interest in the production processes; and to satisfy the manpower needs of the economy, incorporating the labour force of thousands of students into production and social services as a contribution of the young people to the socio-economic development of the country (105).

So, as M. Richmond has pointed out,

"Productive work is clearly an integral element of Cuban education and has been incorporated into the day-by-day, week by week operation of most educational establishments. It tends to be regular, structured, well-organised, and socially valued, and may thus be rather different from 'work experience' schemes to be found elsewhere" (106).

Forms of Organisation of Studies

At present there are three forms of organising studies in the different sub-systems of the National System of Education: boarding, half-boarding and day schools.

The boarding schools are residential schools where the students sleep during the week, returning home on the weekend.

Semi- or half-boarding schools are schools where students spend the entire day until approximately 7.00 p.m.. They take lunch there and participate in after-school activities (of academic and recreational nature). This form of schooling permits parents to work knowing that their children are cared for until they can collect them.

The educational authorities want to increase these kinds of schools throughout the country, especially at primary level to help families where both parents work (107).

In elementary education, day or half-boarding schools are predominant. Boarding elementary schools are created only in exceptional cases, to solve family or social problems.

Both in the city and in some rural areas these are graded schools. But in the rural areas there are also semi-graded schools, from 1st to 4th grade, concentrated schools, 5th and 6th grade, and multigrade schools with a small number of pupils of various grades, to solve those cases in which it is impossible to complete the enrolment for each grade.

Lower secondary and pre-university schools in the cities are organised as day schools, whereas in rural areas they are boarding

schools.

The Schools in the Countryside represent a modality which is the most clear example of the work-study principle. The first of these schools was built in 1971 after several years of experimentation, and today it is possible to see several hundred of these schools throughout Cuba (384 junior high and 183 senior high schools). They are capable of taking 500 to 600 students equally divided between girls and boys (108).

Each new school is equipped not only with classrooms, laboratories, library and recreational areas but also has dormitories, dining rooms and a kitchen (109).

In these schools one half of the day is devoted to work in agricultural production and the other half to academic work. As a rule the students spend 20 hours per week in productive tasks (110).

The students are divided into two groups. One attend classes in the morning while the others work in the fields, and during the afternoon they reverse their activities (111), which form part of an economic development plan. The students are expected to study three nights a week and use the others for recreation. These schools at the moment accommodate about 35 per cent of all students between the ages of 13 and 17 (112).

During the summer the schools become holiday centres for the parents and relatives of the students. This facility is offered free of charge, but the adults contribute two hours daily working in agricultural tasks. In this way the crops are taken care of during holiday time and the schools serve the community as a recreational field (113).

As M. Leiner has pointed out,

"Although work-study programmes exist in other socialist and capitalist countries, the Cuban boarding school, which is located in rural areas and offered as the national mode for secondary school education is unique. The Cubans see this model as consistent both with Cuban historic roots and Marxist philosophy" (114).

Prime Minister F. Castro emphasises the importance of these schools in helping to accomplish basic revolutionary goals,

"This school is consistent with our pedagogical concepts; it corresponds with reality; it meets true needs, it is based on the most profound Marxist thought, which conceives of education and training of the individual as closely related to productive and creative work... This kind of school provides a real opportunity for combining education, study and work... This is a school in which (students) begin to carry out productive activities, create things with their own hands, and engage in productive manual work in addition to intellectual work. In other words, they begin to learn the techniques for producing the material goods needed by man and to acquire the habit of working as the most natural and elementary duty of every citizen, together with the habit of studying" (115).

Boarding vocational schools (7th to 12th) located in the outskirts of the provincial capitals throughout the country provide the students who have obtained the highest marks in each province with a general secondary education characterised by a strong vocational character.

Polytechnical schools and institutes can be boarding or day schools. These urban and rural centres are also attended by half-boarders, and their objective is to train specialists for the whole country, or for the province where these centres are located. The urban day centres train specialists for their area, which may compromise one or more municipalities, close to the students' homes. Both kinds of centres have evening courses for workers.

Within adult education there are different kinds of teaching centres to meet the requirements of worker-students. The majority of these are evening, afternoon, or day external schools that function in the facilities used during the day by the school belonging to the general secondary education. When the work centres

have adequate facilities, adult education schools and classrooms may also function on premises conditioned for this purpose. For workers who cannot attend ordinary adult courses, special schools are organised where they may study as boarding students for a specified period (116).

The School Year

For all schools throughout the country, the school year begins on September 1st and ends on August 31, including class time, evaluations and tests, the teacher's methodological preparation and in-service training, holidays, teaching practices and other activities related to school work.

"In the elementary level of General Polytechnical and Labour Education the school course has 40 weeks of classes, distributed in four uniform periods. In basic secondary schools and pre-university institutes in the countryside the school course has 40 weeks, structured in two semesters of 20 weeks each. In urban basic secondary schools and pre-university institutes the school course has 34 weeks distributed in 2 semesters of 18 and 16 weeks respectively, during which the students carry out productive activities out of town in the period devoted to 'the school goes to the countryside'." (117)

In the Technical and Vocational Centres, the school year has 41 class weeks structured in two semesters of 20 and 21 weeks respectively, including the pre-professional practices with which professional training is completed.

The calendar of Pedagogical Schools has a total of 36 class weeks distributed in two periods from 1st to 3rd year. During the course five weeks are devoted to 'the school goes to the countryside' activities. During the fourth year, 20 weeks are devoted to classes, 20 to teaching practices and two to methodological preparation (118).

"Higher Pedagogical Institutes have 36 class weeks for the 1st and 2nd years; in 3rd and 4th years, students are divided into 2 groups: one group carries out its teaching practice while the other attends classes, and vice versa, for 22 weeks each." (119)

Procedure for Entrance to the Different Levels and Categories

The structure of the National System of Education characterised by its coherent and national articulation guarantees continuation of studies for all, from elementary school to higher education, in keeping with personal and social requirements.

In the 6th, 9th and 12th grades of General Polytechnical and Labour Education, state or nationally centralised final tests are applied; these examinations are drawn up and applied by the Ministry of Education, as the ruling agency of the State's Central Administration in this sector. The marks obtained in these systematic or periodic tests; determine whether the students have passed the course or not.

The students passing 6th grade are automatically promoted to 7th grade, the first year of lower secondary education, which ends in the 9th grade. Those who pass 9th grade can apply for enrolment in any of the courses offered in secondary education taking into account the applicant roster system, established in each of the 169 municipalities of the country for the various fields of study.

These rosters are drawn up taking into account the academic assessment as well as other aspects related to the pupil's comprehensive evaluation included in the 'student cumulative record'. This document contains the data concerning the integral and harmonious formation of the student's personality from the moment he enters school until he graduates and enrolls in university studies or begins his working life.

The roster system makes it possible to have a national, provincial or municipal option system for students applying to enter vocational schools, and polytechnical institutes (skilled workers and medium-level technicians), pre-university institutes, pedagogical schools and day-care teacher-training schools in keeping with the

municipal facilities, the interests of the students and the needs of the country. Upon completion of 12th grade, the students have the possibility to enter the university or to begin their working life, after taking a one-year specialisation.

Syllabuses

Syllabuses are drawn up by the Ministry of Education in each of the Educational Offices. Teams of specialists draw up the draft syllabuses, which are analysed and revised by sub-commissions which function within the Permanent National Commission for the Revision of Curricula, Syllabuses and Textbooks of the Central Institute of Pedagogical Sciences, for each subject, group or branch of subjects. This Commission is made up of scientists, pedagogues and experienced teachers. According to the Commission's dictum, the Direction of the Ministry of Education adopts and promulgates the official syllabuses for all the nation in the different kinds and levels of the system.

Syllabuses conform with the following principles:

- multilateral and harmonious development of the personality;
- application of the didactic principles of socialist pedagogy;
- logical and scientific character;
- correspondence with the demands posed by the scientific-technical revolution and the social progress;
- combination of theory with practice and study with work;
- incorporation of the most out-standing achievements of pedagogical sciences;
- exclusion of the superfluous and unnecessary details.

In General Polytechnical and Labour Education the time allotted to each subject cycle, from 1st to 12th grade is the

following:

Science cycle	39.22%
Humanities cycle	37.20%
Aesthetic cycle	3.21%
Workshop education cycle and complementary cycle	18.96%
Electives	1.29%

All these disciplines are compulsory, except for electives, in which the student chooses the course he is interested in; however, once he has made his selection, attendance is compulsory.

The main contents of General Polytechnical and Labour Education syllabuses and curricula are taken into account when drawing up those corresponding to the other sub-systems, bearing in mind the specific characteristics of each.

In Adult Education the time allotted to each subject cycle, from the 1st course of worker-farmer education to the 6th semester of the worker-farmer pre-university level, is the following:

Mathematics and Natural Sciences Cycle	58.7%
Humanities and Social Sciences Cycle	41.3%

For the drawing up of this curricula and syllabuses, Special Education takes into account, besides those of General Polytechnical and Labour Education, the theoretical and methodological principles of defectology and of special pedagogy and psychology.

The curricula for the training of pedagogic personnel comprise the following contents and time distribution:

Secondary Pedagogical Training

General Cycle	61.5%
Vocational Cycle	24.0%
Political Social Cycle	4.7%
Specialisation Cycle	4.6%
Electives	4.8%

The curricula for the training of teachers for practical teaching lasts 4 years, like those of the previous kind of teaching. They comprise the following subject cycles:

Speciality subjects	46.8%
Psychological and Pedagogical subjects	25.1%
General and Basic subjects	23.5%
Marxism-Leninism	5.0%

Higher Pedagogical Training

Students entering Higher Pedagogical Institutes must have a 12th grade level. The studies for the Licenciante Degree in Education, in the various specialities last four years.

There are three different kinds of Pedagogical Institutes:

- Higher Pedagogical Institutes, specialised in the subjects taught in general education;
- The Higher Pedagogical Institute for Technical and Vocational Education, which trains licenciates in education in technical specialities for polytechnical institutes;
- The Higher Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages, which trains teachers and translators of various languages.

In general terms, the curricula comprises the following cycle:

Speciality cycle	61.3%
General Training cycle	13.2%
Psychological-Pedagogical cycle	14.1%
Social-Political cycle	11.3%

Ordinary courses devote some time to special courses and seminars in the 3rd and 4th years, their main objective being the in-depth

study of general or special subjects and research work on definite areas in a given speciality.

Along with these ordinary courses, correspondence courses are given for those in-service teachers who do not have the proper degree.

Organisations which have helped in implementing this educational policy

Several institutions collaborate with the Ministry of Education in putting Cuba's educational policies into practice, for instance:

- The Young Communist League (U.J.C.) which plays a major role in the ideological education of children and young people.
- The Pioneer Organisation, under the guidance of the U.J.C. has also played a very important role in the political and ideological education of children up to the 9th grade. This organisation has as its major objective a monitoring of student academic performance and the handling of whatever discipline problems arise in schools and its major concern is about promotion rates, student attendance, and student discipline (120).
- The student organisations, the Federation of Intermediate Education Students (F.E.U.), have participated in organising and carrying out educational activities.
- The Central Organisation of Cuban Trade Unions (C.T.C.) has been directly responsible for organising and carrying out activities related to the Battle for the 6th grade and to the beginning of the Battle for the 9th grade. The organisation has a long tradition of struggle that dates back to the Literacy Campaign.

- The Committee for the Defence of the Revolution (C.D.R.) which exist to aid the educational process and nearly 8 per cent of Cuban parents belong to it (121); the Federation of Cuban Women (F.M.C.) and National Association of Small Farmers (A.N.A.P.) have given their active support to all school activities, and the School Councils, where all this work is organised, have made possible the close relationship that exists between the schools and the parents and the entire community. This School Council also concerns itself with the triad of promotion, attendance, and discipline (122).

- The Militant Mothers of Education, organised by the F.M.C., and the Exemplary Parents Movement, of the C.D.R., constitute an example of the most positive mass activities in support of education.

- The Trade Union of Education Workers has also played a very important complementary role in the development of educational plans.

The mass media have made a double contribution to the implementation of the educational policy:

First, they reserve a lot of space and time for coverage of educational activities; this contributes to letting the population know about the purposes, activities and achievements of the educational plans being put into practice; and

Second, they participate as a means of education themselves from a cultural, political and ideological standpoint (123).

Permanent Education and the Cuban Experience: some reflections

Looking at Cuban education in relation to the objectives of permanent education (see page 16) it is possible to see that they are present throughout the entire educational system. One manifestation of Cuba's commitment to some forms of permanent education is the sheer pervasiveness of education, for example, it is said that one in every two Cubans over five years of age is undertaking an educational course or programme of some description (124). Another sign of Cuba's support for the idea of permanent education is the abundant variety of the types of educational provision (some formal, others non-formal or informal) and the different modes of attendance available (full-time, part-time, self-study). The lifelong access to educational services is shown throughout the acceptance of very young children in the circulos infantiles (from the age of 45 days) through to the provision of educational opportunities to the old. To encourage Cubans to take advantage of the educational resources available, attempts have been made to 'demystify' certain forms of education, for example, one may note the symbolic opening up of the university, which is half regulated by workers pursuing various non-degree level courses of study.

One requirement of permanent education is that it is adaptable to change. In this respect Cuba has made strong efforts to bring education into line with the often dramatic and rapid transformations occurring within a post-revolutionary society. The adaptability of the pattern of educational provision has focused mainly upon changing economic requirements (shifts in development strategy; revisions of economic policy; cutbacks and shortages due to unforeseen circumstances); upon changing political needs (the increase on popular participation in the 1970s; the mobilisation of efforts for national defence); and changing pressures within

the educational system itself (the expansion of secondary education to cope with the 1960s baby boom and the increased output of the primary schools; the growth of university enrolment; the retraining of primary teachers in the 1970s and 1980s to play a role in post-primary education). Perhaps the most striking sign of this adaptability was the far-reaching Improvement Plan implemented in the mid-1970s in response to the multitude of internal and external problems facing the educational system.

In order to improve the quality of life and equalise educational opportunities, major efforts have been made to democratise Cuban education; such efforts have been prominent since the beginning of the post-revolutionary period, being most evident in the Literacy Campaign and the follow-up adult education and literacy programmes, especially the battles for sixth and ninth grade education. The idea of expanding educational opportunities implicit in the concept of permanent education is clearly expressed through the opportunities available today to many Cubans formerly with restricted access to education, for example, women, blacks, rural people, the poor, and those beyond school-leaving age.

"Schools in Cuba libre, it was decided, would open their doors to every citizen regardless of class, race, sex or ability to pay, so that educational opportunity would be universal from pre-school to university." (125)

While the universalisation of educational opportunity has not been fully achieved in practice in Cuba, there has been a marked opening-up of the educational system. Thus, many thousands of women have been able to enjoy not only a large period of education but also access to different types of education (126).

The integration of school, home, community and the world of work can be seen through the Literacy Campaign of 1961, the schools to the countryside, the schools in the countryside,

and the highly developed infrastructure of parents, mass and political organisations, and students' organisations which supports the whole educational enterprise in Cuba. This integration of educational establishments and processes with the wide society offers one way in which Cuba has tried to fulfil its leader's ambitions that the country be turned into 'one big school'. Most important of all, however, is the integration of education with the Revolution. The leadership's interest in the idea of permanent education can only be understood if one recognises the requirement that education had to serve revolutionary purposes. The attraction of permanent education, therefore, is at least partly explained by its promise to involve everyone in the educational process, a highly desirable state of affairs for a revolutionary regime determined to secure widespread social change with and through the mobilisation of the people.

The backbone of Cuba's efforts regarding permanent education is made up, firstly, of the system of General, Polytechnical and Labour Education available to all Cuban children and young people, and secondly, of the facilities for adult (worker-farmer) education which make it possible for all workers and adults to have access to culture, to improve their educational levels, and to contribute to the country's need for a growing qualified labour force.

It is always dangerous to generalise from one case, especially when one is aware that a great deal still remains to be achieved in Cuba. However, Cuba's experience in the area of permanent education has many positive implications and represents a useful model in a problem area common to many countries. On the other hand, the highly particular circumstances of a revolutionary society which has turned all education into an instrument of change must be kept in mind.

The next chapter offers an analysis of the education system of a country governed, as is Cuba, by a socialist regime in order that any similarities and differences in the approach to permanent education may be identified.

References: Chapter Three

- (1) Gillette, Arthur, Cuba's Educational Revolution, Fabian Research, Series 302, June 1972, p.3
- (2) Paulston, Rolland, G., 1971, quoted by M. Richmond in The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba, unpublished Seminar Paper (Master of Education Programme) Institute of Education, University of Hull, January 1982.
- (3) Berube R. Maurice, Education and Poverty. Effective Schooling in the United States and Cuba, Greenwood Press - Westpoint, Connecticut, 1984, p. 84.
- (4) Gillette, Arthur, op.cit. p. 3.
- (5) Johnetta B. Cole, "Race Towards Equality: The Impact of the Cuban Revolution on Racism", The Black Scholar, November-December 1980, p. 17.
- (6) Paulston Rolland, G., Education in Mesa-Lago (editor) Revolutionary Change in Cuba Economy, Policy and Society, University of Pittsburg Press, Pittsburg 1971, p. 385.
- (7) Berube R. Maurice, op.cit., p. 84.
- (8) Gillette, Arthur, op.cit., p. 3.
- (9) International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Report on Cuba, John Hopkins Press, Baltimore 1951, p. 404.
- (10) Paulston Rolland G., quoted in Cuba: Training and Mobilisation, Carnoy, M. and Wertheim J., 1983, p. 206.
- (11) Torsten Husen and T. Neville Postlethwaite (editors in chief) The International Encyclopedia of Education, Vol. 26, Pergamon Press, 1985, p. 1125.
- (12) Bourne, Peter, Castro: A Biography of Fidel Castro, Macmillar, London 1987, p. 275.
- (13) Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, "Cuba: Training and Mobilisation" in John Simmonds (editor) Better Schools International Lessons for Reform, Praeger 1983, p. 197.
- (14) Bourne, Peter, op.cit., pp. 275-76.
- (15) Blum Leonor "Fidel's other Revolution" in The Times Educational Supplement, 22.11.85, p. 22.
- (16) Richmond, Mark, The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba, unpublished Seminar Paper (Master of Education Programme) Institute of Education, University of Hull, January 1982, p. 7.
- (17) UNESCO, Methods and Means Utilised in Cuba to Eliminate Illiteracy, Havana Editora Pedagogica, 1965, p. 72.

- (18) Leiner, Marvin, "Cuba's Schools: 25 Years Later", in S. Halebsky and J.M. Kirk (editors), Cuba: Twenty-five Years of Revolution, 1959-1984, New York, Praeger 1985, p. 29.
- (19) Richmond, Mark, "Education and Revolution in Socialist Cuba: The Promise of Democratisation" in Colin Brock and Hugh Lawton (editors) Education in Latin America, London, Croom Helm, 1985, p. 11.
- (20) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 32.
- (21) Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, "Cuba: Training and Mobilisation" in John Simmonds (editor) Better Schools International Lessons for Reform, Praeger 1983, p. 243.
- (22) Richmond, Mark, The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba, 1982, p. 9.
- (23) Smith, Patricia "A Revolutionary Growth" in The Times Educational Supplement, 1.2.85.
- (24) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 31.
- (25) Figueroa, Araujo Max, "The Role of Teachers and Their Training Problems in Cuba", Teachers of the World, 4 1978, p. XI.
- (26) Berube, R. Maurice, op.cit., p. 114.
- (27) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 39.
- (28) Richmond, Mark, The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba, 1982, pp. 14-15.
- (29) Cogan, John J. "Cuba's Schools in the Countryside: A Model for the Developing World?", Phi Delta Kappan, September 1978, Vol. 60, No.1. p. 30.
- (30) Figueroa Max, Prieto Abel, Gutierrez, Raúl The Basic Secondary School in the Country: An Educational Innovation in Cuba, The Unesco Press, Paris, 1974, p. 14.
- (31) Richmond, Mark, The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba, 1982, p. 16.
- (32) Richmond, Mark "Preparation for the Transition from School to Work in Socialist Cuba" in Keith Watson (editor) Youth, Education and Employment: International Perspectives, London, Croom Helm, 1982, p. 112.
- (33) Richmond, Mark, The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba, 1982, p. 10.
- (34) Ibid.
- (35) Salas, L., "Juvenile Delinquency in Post-revolutionary Cuba: characteristics and Cuban Explanations" in Horowitz, J.L., (editor) Cuban Communism, 4th edition, New Brunswick, N.J. 1981, p. 258.

- (36) Richmond, Mark, The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba, 1982, p. 11.
- (37) Ibid.
- (38) Ibid. p. 12.
- (39) Epstein, Erving, quoted by Marvin Leiner, Cuba's Schools: 25 Years Later, p. 29.
- (40) Political Constitution of the Republic of Cuba, Article 8, a.b.
- (41) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, Cuba, Organizacion de la Educacion, 1981, p. 5.
- (42) Figueroa, Max, Prieto Abel, Gutierrez Raul, op.cit., p. 26.
- (43) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 7.
- (44) Ibid.
- (45) Figueroa, Max, Prieto Abel, Gutierrez Raul, op.cit., p. 26.
- (46) Torstøn Husen and T. Neville Postlethwaite, op.cit. p. 1128.
- (47) Blum, Leonor, op.cit., p. 22.
- (48) Gramma, La Batalla para mejorar la Calidad de Nuestro Sistema Educacional, La Habana, Noviembre 16, 1980.
- (49) Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, op.cit., p. 225.
- (50) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 11.
- (51) Berube, R., Maurice, op.cit., p. 131.
- (52) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 32.
- (53) Gramma, La educacion en los ultimos cinco años, La Habana, Noviembre, 16, 1980.
- (54) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 32.
- (55) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 11.
- (56) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 32.
- (57) Berube, R. Maurice, op.cit., p. 109
- (58) Ibid. p. 111.
- (59) Information taken from a press conference given for Mr. J.R. Fernandez, Minister of Education for Cuba, in November 1980.
- (60) Torstøn Husen and T. Neville Postlethwaite, op.cit. p. 1127.
- (61) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 12.

- (62) Ibid., p. 13.
- (63) Gramma, La education..." La Habana, Noviembre, 16, 1980.
- (64) Ibid.
- (65) Torsten Husen and T. Neville Postlethwaite, op.cit. p. 1127.
- (66) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 13.
- (67) Ibid.
- (68) Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, op.cit., p. 217.
- (69) Smith, Patricia, op.cit.
- (70) Fidel Castro, Speech in March 13, 1969, in Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, op.cit. p. 209.
- (71) Smith, Patricia, op.cit.
- (72) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 14.
- (73) Ibid.
- (74) Smith, Patricia, op.cit.
- (75) Ibid.
- (76) Figueroa Araujo Max, op.cit., p. xii
- (77) Carnoy, Martin, and Wertheim, Jorge, op.cit. p. 224.
- (78) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 37.
- (79) Fidel Castro, Report of the Central Committee of the C.P.C. to the First Congress, Havana: Department of the Revolutionary Orientation of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Cuba, 1977, p. 173.
- (80) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 37.
- (81) Figueroa Araujo Max, op.cit., p. xv.
- (82) Ibid, p. xvi
- (83) Ibid.
- (84) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 15.
- (85) Figueroa Araujo Max, op.cit., p. xvi.
- (86) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 16.
- (87) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 27.
- (88) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit., p. 17.
- (89) Torsten Husen and T. Neville Postlethwaite, op.cit. p. 1127

- (90) Read, Gerald, H., "The Cuban Revolutionary Offensive in Education", Comparative Education Review, Vol. 14, 1970. p. 141.
- (91) Torsten Hùsen and T. Neville Postlethwaite, op.cit., p. 1127.
- (92) Ibid.
- (93) Gillette, Arthur, op.cit., p. 19.
- (94) Information taken from a press conference given for Mr. J.R. Fernandez, Minister of Education for Cuba in November 1980.
- (95) Ibid.
- (96) Berube, R. Maurice, op.cit., p. 116.
- (97) Ibid.
- (98) Richmond, Mark, "Preparation for the Transition from School to Work in Socialist Cuba" in Keith Watson (editor) Youth, Education and Employment: International Perspectives, London, Croom Helm, 1982, p. 107.
- (99) Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, op.cit., p. 210.
- (100) Ministerio de Educacion Publica - Cuba, op.cit. p. 18.
- (101) Ibid.
- (102) Ibid.
- (103) Richmond, Mark Preparation for the Transition from School to Work in Socialist Cuba, op.cit. p. 105.
- (104) Ibid.
- (105) Berube, R. Maurice, op.cit., p. 90.
- (106) Richmond, Mark, "Preparation.... p. 106.
- (107) Berube, R. Maurice, op.cit., pp. pp. 91-92.
- (108) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit. p. 35.
- (109) Ibid.
- (110) Richmond, Mark, The Transformation... p. 15.
- (111) Cogan, John J., op.cit., p. 32.
- (112) Blum, Leonor, op.cit., p. 22.
- (113) Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, op.cit. p. 215.
- (114) Leiner, Marvin, op.cit., p. 36.

- (115) Fidel Castro, Speech quoted by Cogan John J. in Cuba's schools in the Countryside... p. 30.
- (116) Information taken from a press conference given for Mr. J.R. Fernandez, Minister of Education for Cuba, in November, 1980.
- (117) Torsten Husen and T. Neville Postlethwaite op.cit., pp. 1127-1128.
- (118) Ibid.
- (119) Ibid.
- (120) Berube R. Maurice, op.cit., p. 111.
- (121) Dominquez Jorge, Cuba: Order and Revolution, Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1978, p. 264.
- (122) Berube, R. Maurice, op.cit., p. 111.
- (123) Information taken from a press conference given by Mr. J.R. Fernandez, Minister of Education for Cuba, in November 1980.
- (124) Richmond, Mark Education and Revolution... 1985, p. 13.
- (125) Gillette, Arthur, op.cit., p. 6.
- (126) Richmond, Mark, Education and Revolution... 1985, pp.31-35.

Chapter Four

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
EDUCATION IN THE GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

After the German Reich ceased to exist with the total defeat of the Nazi regime, four zones of occupation – one Soviet, one British, one American and one French – were formed in line with what had been agreed by the anti-Hitler coalition.

The Supreme Commanders of the four occupation forces set up an Allied Control Council with its headquarters in the capital, Berlin. Its function was to coordinate the activities of the occupation powers and to settle questions affecting all zones. The Supreme Commanders were vested with supreme authority in their respective zones of occupation.

From 17th July to 2nd August 1945 Schloss Cecilienhof near Potsdam was the scene of a summit meeting of three heads of government: J.V. Stalin for the U.S.S.R., W. Churchill for the United Kingdom, and H. Truman for the United States. After the election victory of the Labour Party in Britain, the second was replaced by C.R. Attlee (1). The purpose of the conference was to lay the foundations of a stable structure of peace in Europe, building on previous arrangements of the anti-Hitler coalition. The German problems played a central role. After protracted negotiations, the conference agreed on fundamental measures that would lead to the demilitarization, denazification and democratisation of Germany. The arms industry and the monopolies were to be dismantled, and an economy devoted to peaceful purposes built up.

The Potsdam Agreement, to which France acceded later while making a few reservations, created internationally valid foundations for the struggle of the German antifascists. It was

a document that was basic for the establishment of a stable post-war order in Europe and for the settlement of the German problems.

But, despite strenuous efforts, the aim of creating a unitary and democratic German state on the basis of the Potsdam Agreement was not attained. In their London recommendations of June 1948 the Western powers announced the formation of a separate West German state.

With the division of the city, a new City Council was formed on 30th November 1948 in the Soviet sector of Berlin.

When in September 1949 the Bundestag met in Bonn and a government led by Konrad Adenauer and including representatives of the G.D.U., C.S.U., F.D.P. and the German Party was formed, the partition of German was consummated. Determined counter-measures were required to safeguard peace and the revolutionary gains of the working people in the Soviet occupied zone. In late September and early October 1949 numerous working people urged that a democratic government be formed in Berlin. In October 1949 a joint session of the Presidium of the German People's Council and the Bloc of antifascist-democratic parties decided to convene the German People's Council for a meeting on 7.10.1949.

By a unanimous vote of the 330 delegates present the German People's Council reconstituted itself as the Provisional People's Chamber of the German Democratic Republic (2).

The first Constitution of the G.D.R. confirmed the historic achievements of the antifascist-democratic revolution such as the exercise of state power by the working class and its allies, the elimination of monopolies and landed wealth, the creation of a nationally owned sector of the economy, the right of all citizens to work and education, and the granting of equal rights to women, young people, and the Sorbian national minority. At the same time,

it ensured the continuance of the revolutionary process begun in 1945 and helped pave the way for the construction of socialism.

On 10th of October 1949, the Supreme Chief of the Soviet Military Authority (S.M.A.D.) proceeded to transfer, on instructions from his government the administrative functions previously exercised by the Soviet Military Authorities under the Potsdam Agreement to the Authorities of the G.D.R.

On 11th of October 1949 a working class leader, Wilhelm Pieck was elected as the first President of the G.D.R.

Regarding education, and according to M. Siebert Klein,

"The most significant factor influencing the origin of the East German school system was the Soviet occupation of the Eastern Zone and the unique set of circumstances that this provided " (3).

This factor however, was not the only factor - as the German Communist Party (K.D.P.) as early as 1944 had begun to modify the school system in the East Zone of Germany bringing changes in the entire curricula in order to eradicate fascism amongst the young and introduce a democratic school system (4).

The first legislation concerning education was the "Law relating to the Democratisation of German Schools" which received legal sanction on June 12th of 1946. This Law,

"sought to educate the young to be capable of thinking for themselves and acting responsibly, able and willing to serve the community. The Law also determined that the new education should be free of militarist, imperialist or racialist ideology" (5).

The educational authorities must also develop other important tasks in order to break the educational privileges of some social classes, eliminate the differences between urban and village schools, improve the academic content of the school above the pre-war levels, and abolish fees for secondary schools (6).

The Law finished with the intermediate and grammar schools

inherited from the Third Reich, these being replaced by co-educational, comprehensive schools for all 6-14 year olds. This act also permitted most school-leavers to go to vocational training, and the academically gifted were sent to high schools on completion of their eight years of general schooling. Higher education was now for all suitable students irrespective of their parental background (7). This act also ended the decentralised nature of education and its educational elitism. The first uniform curricula together with the appropriate textbooks came into force.

After the founding of the G.D.R. and the beginning of the first Five-Year-Plan, this revolutionary process in education, science and culture was systematically continued. The workers' and peasants' faculties (A.B.F.s) which had been established in October 1949 at universities and some other institutions of higher education proved their value. For thousands of young workers they opened the way to higher education.

Numerous new institutions of higher and technical education were founded to train cadres for the management of the state and economy. Great efforts were also devoted to vocational training and the up-grading of skills.

Events testifying to an intense cultivation of the humanist heritage in the G.D.R. included the activities and publications connected with the Goethe bicentennial in 1949, the Bach tricentenary celebrations in 1950, the 125th anniversary of Beethoven's death in 1952, the first Handel Festival in Halle in 1952, and the establishment of the National Research and Memorial Centre of Classical German Literature in Weimar and of the Ernst Barlach Memorial in Güstrow.

In the meantime new ideas about education were appearing, for instance, the idea of developing the schools into institutions

where students could be properly educated and trained to become productive members of a socialist society. So, in the curricula implemented in 1951, it is possible to find directives for introducing polytechnical education in G.D.R.'s schools, but because of important circumstances it was postponed until 1956.

Between 1956 and 1958 many investigations in order to implement polytechnical education were made at individual schools, and on September 1st of 1958, Polytechnical education was introduced in all compulsory schools of the G.D.R. (8).

On December 2nd of 1959, the People's Chamber passed a law, which had previously been the subject of a nation-wide public debate. This was the "Law on the Socialist Development of the School System in the G.D.R.". This law replaced the eight-year school by a general ten-year polytechnical school for all children. The term polytechnical meant that a blend of academic and industrial or agricultural experience was introduced. Polytechnical education passed to be a basic feature and an integral part of education in all schools.

The G.D.R. had created an efficient system of education which had also gained international recognition. However, the demands made on it increased with the growing role of science and technology. So, on February 25th 1965, the People's Chamber adopted a third education act, the "Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System". The basic principles underlying this law, worked out by a commission, were discussed by hundreds of thousands of people. The most important new feature which the law provided was the general introduction of ten-year comprehensive polytechnical education for all children and young people of school age (9).

This Act brought the elements of education and training together into one coherent scheme. With the introduction of the

fully integrated system considered in this Act greater relevance was accorded to the real needs of society the central principle of all courses was the unity of education and professional training, the curriculum was now treated as a whole, and supplemented by an ever-growing number of extra-curricula activities which would ensure that the work of the classrooms continued in after-school hours (10).

The state made available extensive funds in order to implement the Act. Although there was a shortage of labour in the G.D.R. and the introduction of ten-year compulsory education at first exacerbated the position in the short run, the S.E.D. and government introduced this measure as they looked upon it as an "investment for the future" and as the creation of an education system designed to fulfil the needs of an advanced socialist society.

The Act defined the content of education under the new conditions and laid down the position and function of the various types of educational institutions. It ensured a uniform educational process starting from pre-school education to comprehensive poly-technical schools, vocational schools and technical colleges, colleges and universities as well as vocational training and further training. It was, and remains the purpose of this Act, to provide a high standard of education for the people as a whole so that all are able to develop comprehensively, uniting all-round knowledge with a firm class point of view and living a fulfilled and happy life worthy of human beings (11).

The socialist education system rests on the principle of the unity of education and upbringing, of a scientific approach and of commitment. The integrated nature of the schools and the participation of the public in the education and upbringing of the young generation are not only constitutionally guaranteed but are also a feature of everyday life.

At the end of the 1960's polytechnical education underwent a change in as much as it was turned into the preparatory stage for vocational training. New basic skilled trades and vocational training combined with the school leaving certificate were introduced and the system of training and further training for working people was expanded (12).

German Democratic Republic Educational System

(1) Principles, goals and objectives of education

The avowed aim of G.D.R. education is to bring up young people with a good all-round knowledge, and who will be prepared for life, work and social activities in such a way that they will not only be good skilled workers, scientists or artists but also active and expert members of the public. Of major importance in this work is equal and high level education, scientifically based, for all children, the encouraging of their particular talents and gifts, and their training in creative thought and activity, at the same time the educational system is orientated towards the future demands of the scientific and technological revolution, the growing demand for specialist knowledge, and ever-widening cultural and intellectual needs.

The objectives, goals, principles and priorities of education are established in Articles 17 (1.2.3), 25 (1.2.3.4.5.6) and 26 (1.2.3) of the Constitution of 1968.

"Article 17

- (1) The German Democratic Republic promotes science, research, and education to protect and enrich the community and the life of its citizens. For this purpose the scientific and technological revolution is combined with the advantages of socialism.

- (2) The G.D.R. assures all citizens a high standard of education corresponding to the constantly increasing social requirements through the integrated socialist educational system. It enables citizens to shape socialist society and to participate creatively in the development of socialist democracy.
- (3) Any misuse of science directed against peace, international understanding, against the life and the dignity of man is prohibited (13).

Article 25

- (1) Every citizen of the G.D.R. has an equal right to education. Educational facilities are open to all. The integrated socialist educational system guarantees every citizen a continuous socialist education, training and higher training.
- (2) The G.D.R. ensures the march forward of the people to a socialist community of universally educated and harmoniously developed people imbued with the spirit of socialist patriotism and internationalism, and possessing an advanced general and specialised education.
- (3) All citizens have the right to participate in cultural life. Under the conditions of the scientific-technical revolution, and increasing intellectual demands this becomes of growing significance. The state and society encourage the participation of citizens in cultural life, physical culture and sport, for the complete expression of the socialist personality and for the growing fulfilment of cultural interests and needs.

- (4) In the G.D.R. general ten-year secondary schooling is compulsory, this is provided by the 10-year general polytechnical secondary school. In certain cases the secondary schooling may be completed within the framework of vocational training or the further education of the working people. All young people have the right and the duty to learn a vocation.
- (5) Special schools and training establishments exist for mentally and physically handicapped children and adults.
- (6) The solution of these tasks is ensured by the state and all social forces in joint educational work (14).

Article 26

- (1) The state ensures the possibility of transference to the next higher stage of education up to the highest educational institutions, the universities and colleges, this is done in accordance with the performance principle, social requirements, and taking into consideration the social structure of the population.
- (2) There are no tuition fees. Training allowances and free study materials are granted according to social criteria.
- (3) Full-time students at the universities, colleges and technical schools are exempted from tuition fees. Grants and allowances are given according to social requirements and performance" (15).

(2) System of Administration

"Administration and planning is centrally controlled and hierarchically structured. Central decisions regarding all aspects of national educational policy are made at the highest level of this structure, and directions for implementation are passed down through consecutive hierarchical

levels to the level of local educational administration...

The G.D.R. Council of Ministers, the chief executive organ of the State, is at the highest level of the hierarchical structure for educational administration and planning" (16).

The state organs directly responsible to the Council of Ministers for matters concerning education are:

- (a) the Ministry of Health, which supervises the crèches attended by children under three years old;
- (b) the Ministry of Education, which is responsible for the control of kindergartens for children between three and six years old, the ten-year general polytechnical secondary schools, the development of programmes of instruction and curricula, and teacher training;
- (c) the Ministry for Higher and Technical Education, responsible for the control and planning of technical schools and other institutions of higher education including the universities;
- (d) the State Secretariat of Vocational Training;
- (e) city, county, and district councils which are popularly elected bodies concerned with the administrative functioning of the schools, and responsible for the management of school services, provision and maintenance of buildings and experiment, and provision of school inspectors, supervision, and administration (17).

(3) Financing of Education

The state undertakes the financing of education, the training of teachers and the provision of necessary buildings and materials. Because education in schools is free and all students receive a grant, no pupil or student is excluded from the training schemes on material grounds (18).

In relation to expenditure on education, there are difficulties in looking at official statements in a socialist country.

"They say money comes to educational institutions not only from the ministry which pays the salaries but from the region that puts up the schools, the local council that pays for their day-to-day running, and from factories, which are wholly responsible for their own factory-schools (though not for the salaries of the teachers), and partly responsible for the schools, of which they are the patrons. Groups of parents, individuals or firms also provide unpaid labour for supplying and installing equipment and so on" (19).

In spite of the difficulties in finding figures it is possible to say that more than 7 per cent of the gross national product is devoted to education (20).

(4) National System of Education.
Organisation and Description of the Different Types of Education

The national system of education in the G.D.R. is fully integrated, all component parts, from kindergarten to university being systematically based upon each other. The system is general and flexible, and offers everybody, whatever his age, a choice of formats for learning and further education, thus forming an important base for establishing equality of opportunity.

The fundamental components of this educational system are:

- Pre-school education and care;
- The ten-year general polytechnical school;
- Vocational training establishments;
- Preparation for higher education;
- Technical colleges;
- Institutions of higher education;
- Adult education;
- Special schools;
- Teacher training;
- Extracurricula education.

(a) Pre-school education and care

The upbringing of children in families and in the state establishments such as crèches and kindergartens offers the best guarantee for their optimum development in their pre-school years. It is up to the parents to decide whether or not their child should attend one of these child care facilities.

There are crèches and kindergartens build and run by the state and others attached to nationally owned enterprises. They are all supervised by the government and all of them have a wide variety of toys and teaching aids appropriate to the children's age (21).

According to N.J. Moore -Rinvolucri the kindergarten building are,

"modern, airy, light and well supplied with indoor and outdoor play material of all kinds... and a very high standard of cleanliness... There is great emphasis on hygiene, on beauty in the environment and on the informal learning absorbed from pleasant surroundings" (22).

Care is free, the only cost to the parents being a small charge for meals (in crèches 1.40 marks a day, in kindergarten 0.35 marks a day (23).

In all these facilities the cost of staff and materials is borne by the state, as is that of the care and education of children.

The crèches take children up to the time of their third birthday. At present, places in crèches are available for 61 per cent of the infants (24). A student, a teacher and any working woman gets official free-time to come in to attend to the physical needs of her baby.

The crèche frequently part of a factory complex is in the charge of a nurse and a team of helpers whose job is to bring the children on physically and to provide them with mentally stimulating

play activities. In order to control children's state of health, doctors pay regular visits to the crèches (25).

The crèches are open from six in the morning to seven in the evening for the convenience of parents, but by law no child can stay more than ten hours a day in the crèche (26).

All children of kindergarten age (from three to six, when they start school) whose parents so wish, have a place guaranteed. In 1980, 93 per cent of children of an appropriate age attended kindergarten (27).

The kindergarten is not part of compulsory education, catering as it does for the pre-school child, but it is state supervised and run by trained people. One of the reasons for their existence is that the economy, making no unequal distinctions between men and women, needs the work, whole or part-time, of as many women as possible.

Children are not prepared for school by a particular programme which anticipates "school methods" but by a gradual and continuous preparation through general education and care geared to unfolding the physical and mental capabilities of the children so much so that starting school is no abrupt or stressful undertaking.

Kindergartens within a given area have close contact with workers in local enterprises. The ratio of kindergarten assistants to the children under their wing is 1:13 (28).

There are children who do not go to a kindergarten in the G.D.R. but they are encouraged to attend one year in their last pre-main school year, at least on a part-time basis, in order to prepare them for starting life in the school community (29).

(b) The ten-year general polytechnical school

The name of this component of the educational system in the G.D.R. is,

"the general term applied to the compulsory schools attended by G.D.R. youth starting at the age of six and continuing until satisfactory completion of the academic requirements of mandatory education has been accomplished. The title... is also the individual name of the 5,067 general schools distributed throughout the G.D.R." (30).

This level of the educational system is an organically integrated unity from the first class to the tenth. Scientific principles underlie the system at all levels and in all subjects; special subjects are introduced right at the beginning. It could be said that polytechnical education,

"aims at a high level of scientific instruction in all school subjects that engage hand and head; its theory is tested out in real-life situations, which means that young people are expected to work in factory or business as part of their general education" (31).

After completion of this ten years of compulsory school specialised education offers opportunities for special knowledge and the acquisition of vocational skills (32).

The school is arranged into three stages,

- The lowest level (primary): classes 1-3.
- The intermediate level (transitional): classes 4-6.
- The highest level (secondary): classes 7-10.

At the primary level, systematic training and educating begins, building on the pre-school experiences of the child.

The children acquire the basic skills of reading and writing, improve their facility in speech and begin to learn mathematics.

Approximately 50 per cent of instruction time is devoted for the study of the German language and literature, and mathematics represent 24 per cent of formal instruction time (33).

The children are taught in local history and geography adapted to their age so as to understand certain problems of social and natural sciences. Workshop practice in classes 1-6, and lessons in caring for the school garden in classes 1-4 give the children an early taste of elementary mechanics, technology and economics. The arts subjects of drawing and music as a component of lessons in German-literature lay the basis for the children's aesthetic tastes. Sports lessons contrive to further all-round physical agility, swimming is taught in the second and third classes (34).

In each general school, after school care facilities are offered to children from the first to fourth classes where they can spend the afternoon if their parents so wish. Trained staff look after the children while they do their homework, play, do craftwork or sports. Visits are frequently organised to cinemas, theatres, museums and exhibitions.

At the intermediate level or transitional level, lessons begin in natural and social sciences, and a first foreign language is studied. In the fifth class the subjects of biology, history, geography and the first foreign language, Russian, are added to those already studied. Physics lessons begin in the sixth class.

In arts subjects at this level the pupils study singing, music-making, painting and modelling. While dealing with works of art and German and world literature as well as other cultural treasures the pupils' knowledge and understanding are promoted and their interest stimulated.

Physical exercise in many kinds of sport is part of the curricula, and apart from that there is a great variety of opportunities to do sport (in school sports groups or sports associations in the national sports organisations) to encourage the great number of talents and interests of the children.

In sum it can be said that, on the average, 44 per cent of formal instruction is devoted to history, geography, German language and literature, drawing and music (reserving 29 per cent of this to German language and literature). Mathematics takes up 19 per cent; biology and physics which are introduced in the fifth and sixth grades take up 7 per cent; polytechnical education and training 8 per cent; the Russian language (which starts in the fifth grade) takes 12 per cent; and sports take 10 per cent (35).

At the secondary level the new subjects of chemistry and civic studies are introduced, together with another foreign language as an optional subject for the pupils, and this as a rule is English (36). Astronomy is a subject taught in class 10.

At the secondary level the pupils acquire, to a growing extent, the ability to recognise law-governed necessities and the foundations of scientific theories. They learn intellectual techniques, so that they are in a position to widen and extend their knowledge on their own. Through optional work in the areas of mathematics and the natural sciences, as well as the technical, cultural, artistic and social fields individual interests, abilities and gifts can be catered for and encouraged (37).

An essential characteristic of the general school is its polytechnical nature which is reflected for instance in the extent to which the lessons are related to life outside the school, in the close contact the pupils have with workers in enterprises (mostly in the form of sponsorship agreements between schools and enterprises), as well as in the general learning programme, particularly mathematics and natural sciences which provide the essential groundwork for an understanding of modern technology and production.

At the primary and transitional levels workshop instruction and lessons in the school garden are specific subjects.

The secondary stage is marked by the intensification of the polytechnical education and training area of instruction (38). The polytechnical lessons from class 7 combine three complementary parts: introduction to socialist production, technical drawing, and the productive work. These lessons are alternately taught in industrial and agricultural farms for four hours a week and are based upon binding the curricula. Although among others the polytechnical lessons serve the preparation for the child's future working life, they are an element in the general education offered and not meant to forestall vocational training.

It is especially through their own productive work that the pupils learn to use their knowledge, learning to be consistent in their work, how to take conscious responsibility, and they learn pride in their own work, all of which have deep influences on their personality development.

Today about 5,200 industrial enterprises and agricultural farms give polytechnical lessons to over a million pupils from the 7th to the 10th classes.

Some 3,400 classrooms exist in the enterprises for these pupils and over 35,000 tutors, engineering teachers, skilled workers and teachers of special skills help the pupils in their polytechnical lessons (39).

At this stage an average of 14 per cent of the educational programme is devoted to polytechnical education and training; 34 per cent to social sciences, German language and literature, drawing and music; 22 per cent to natural sciences, 15 per cent to mathematics; 9 per cent to Russian language and 6 per cent to sports (40).

General school ends with examinations - written examinations in the German language and literature, mathematics, Russian and, according to choice in physics, chemistry or biology, oral examina-

tions (at least two, at most five), and a sports examination.

Also part of the general polytechnical school system is a small number of special schools and special classes in which teaching is done according to the generally valid curricula of the general school but with extra lessons in selected subjects at a higher level. In this way especially talented pupils in any particular subject, including those of social importance, are given additional help and encouragement.

There are special schools, with more intensive courses in particular subjects, such as arts, music, mathematics, sciences, sports or foreign languages.

In spite of no official figures being published for students attending the special schools, these are considered to be low in comparison to the students attending the general schools (41). According to E.B. Schneider the percentage is 0.05 of all pupils (42).

There are in the G.D.R. about 6,000 general schools. The total number of pupils is about 2.4 million. The average class size is 22.7 pupils (43). Students attend school only in the morning for six days a week, and normally from 8.00 a.m. to 1.00 p.m. they have homework on only four days (44).

Each school wherever it is situated is equipped with learning aids. Every school holds complete experiment kits for science and polytechnical lessons, T.V. and radio sets, tape recorders and record players, slide and film (16 mm.) projectors, and overhead projectors. In the last few years the state has spent 1,200 million marks on giving schools modern teaching aids.

School textbooks have been stable in price for many years, the average price being two marks. School books for the ten years of schooling cost a total of 195 marks per child, those for the first class about five marks and those for the tenth may cost up to twenty-five marks.

The close collaboration between school and home can be seen for instance in the great number of elected parental representatives - about 600,000 fathers and mothers are active in this capacity. In the G.D.R. parents have the right to play a part in running education establishments. To do this there is the parents' groups where all the parents of children in a particular class meet at the start of the academic year in order to elect the persons to run this group. The aim of this is promoting contacts and cooperation between teachers, parents and social organisations. Then there is the parent-teacher association the members of which are elected every two years and represent parents of all children in a given school. It acts as partner to the school management, guides the parents' groups in their activities and analyses what has been done (45).

Two thirds of all pupils take school meals, for which their parents pay 0.55 marks per child per day (46).

State subsidies for school meals came to around 862 million marks in 1980; and the total state subsidy to the education system was 9.800 million marks (47).

After completion of compulsory education in the ten-year general polytechnical school, and upon successful conclusion the young East Germans have three available options:

- "(1) training for vocational qualifications at a vocation school for a period of two years;
- (2) entering a three-year school in which vocational and academic preparation for the Abitur are obtained concurrently, and
- (3) continuing academic work in the extended secondary school"(48).

(c) Vocational Training

After finishing the ten-year general school the majority of pupils, over 85 per cent go on to vocational training centres generally lasting two years (49).

The G.D.R. offers every school-leaver a place to continue his education. In this way it guarantees every young person a job or profession. Everyone takes advantage of this offer which means in practice that no one enters his working life without having received training.

The guaranteed right to vocational training is established in the G.D.R.'s Constitution:

"Compulsory education exists in the G.D.R. for a 10-year period, to be fulfilled by attendance at a ten-year comprehensive polytechnical school.

In particular instances this can be completed at a vocational training institution or an institute for the training or further training of working people. All young persons have the right and duty to learn a trade or profession" (50).

This constitutional right is formulated more precisely in the Integrated Socialist Education Act of 1965, the Youth Act of 1974, the Labour Code of the G.D.R. of 1978 and the Vocational Training Act of 1979 (51).

How many places for training are available in each field is calculated according to the present and future needs of the national economy. In order to match the personal wishes and talents of the young people and the needs of society, career counselling and in depth information to children is offered. This has had the effect that today over 80 per cent of school-leavers go on to train for their chosen professions (52).

Careers information and counselling begin very early on in the schools and enables the pupils to learn about a great variety of job opportunities. Enterprises hold open days in order to offer

advice and individual help to young people. The mass media also plays its part here.

There are 217 careers counselling centres run by the state and the enterprises which offer information to the pupils and their parents, most intensively at the time when the actual choice of career is made (at the beginning of the tenth class). The qualifications, conditions and training facilities for individual jobs are all explained clearly.

Courses for skilled workers usually last two years and end after examinations, with presentation of a skilled worker's certificate. Ninety per cent of trainees complete the theoretical and practical final examination (53). The state guarantees that every one can practise the profession or job for which he has been trained .

Training on the theoretical side proceeds according to state established rules in schools run by the state or the enterprises. Many halls of residence are attached to the enterprise-run schools, so that young people can take up opportunities which are not offered in their own locality.

"Of the 1,000 vocational schools in the G.D.R., 727 are run by enterprises. Here apprentices receive both practical and theoretical training.

The 300 or so municipal vocational schools provide theoretical training to apprentices from small enterprises which have no training school of their own, and to apprentices from service centres, banks and cooperative and private craftshops. Close ties exist between the vocational schools and the training enterprises" (54).

The practical training of apprentices in apprentice shops, training laboratories and similar institutions is conducted by instructors. In the final part of their training the apprentices work under the conditions which will obtain in the later working groups, and as a rule they perform as well as other skilled workers.

Normally the training is arranged so that two-thirds is practical work and one-third is theoretical work.

Vocational training is given free of charge. Apprentices receive a monthly pay of 120 marks in their first half year, rising to 200 in their sixth. In addition to training allowances they now also receive twenty-four days paid holidays (55).

Today skilled workers are being trained in 291 vocations with about 500 specialisations leading to a wide range of positions (56).

Men and women normally enjoy the same opportunities, except for thirty jobs which are unsuitable for women for health reasons.

There is equal pay for women and men.

Pupils who leave the general schools early, on health or other grounds, can receive and finish vocational training in any of sixty fields within three years.

The few pupils who leave school before the eighth class, are offered access to certain parts of a vocational training scheme according to their abilities.

Over the past 20 years the G.D.R. vocational training facilities have catered for about five million young people who are now highly qualified skilled workers.

In the years 1971-80, about two million young people received training (the working population of the G.D.R. is 8.2 million) (57).

"At present more 50,000 vocational school teachers, instructors and educationists are employed at the G.D.R.'s approximately 1,000 vocational schools and over 1,300 apprentices hostels. In addition some 100,000 authorised skilled workers are involved in the practical side of vocational training.

Approximately 12,000 classrooms are available in vocational schools with an average of 23 apprentices per class.

There are 600 modern training workshops and labora-

tories for practical vocational training.

A total of 20,000 marks is set aside from the national budget at present for the training of every apprentice. Approximately 2,400 marks are annually set aside from the national budget ~~per~~ apprentice for board, lodging and care in apprentices hostels. The apprentices pay only 1.10 marks per day for board and lodging" (58).

(d) Preparation for Higher Education

The extended secondary school (EOS) (classes 11 to 12) prepares pupils for the Abitur (final school examination which university applicants have to take), as the basis for further education in a university, college or academy. According to Nina J. Moore R., about 13 per cent of the school population go to the two-year course in the E.O.S. (59).

This stage builds on the knowledge gained in the general school and consolidates, deepens and broadens the experience of the pupils. Entrance to the extended secondary school depends on previous academic success. The most able and promising pupils are chosen, taking into account the social structure of the G.D.R. population and maintaining a fair proportion between the sexes (60). The number of pupils who attend the extended secondary school is set according to the social needs and to what may feasibly be offered, which means that every pupil who passes his Abitur will get a place to study.

The different ways of gaining access to higher education (vocational training with Abitur, successfully completed technical college course, passing the Abitur through adult education schemes) make it, in principle, possible for all talented young people to enter or re-enter education at all stages of their personal development and working life.

Study in the extended secondary schools adds up to 27 or 28 hours per week. In addition the pupils can choose between

obligatory subjects (5 hours per week) and optional subjects (3 hours per week). All pupils take four hours scientific, practice-related work in an enterprise or academic institution. In addition, excursions and periods in the production process (3 weeks in class 11 and 2 weeks in class 12) are part of their timetable. Since September 1st 1981, all pupils in classes 11 and 12 have been in receipt of a monthly grant of 110 marks for class 11 pupils, and 150 marks for those in class 12 (61).

At the present parents can ask for their children to be admitted to the extended secondary school, but the decision is taken by the school headmaster, the class tutor and teachers and the extended secondary school headmaster, the final word coming from the local education authority (62).

(e) Technical Colleges

In the technical colleges of the G.D.R. students are trained as highly specialised and skilled experts who will be available to work as technologists, economists, medical staff, educationalists, and cultural workers in many different fields of national life. In these colleges general knowledge is combined with vocational training and the students receive professional qualifications (63).

There are in all 236 engineering and technical colleges, including industrial engineering colleges, building, transport, post and telecommunications colleges, colleges for agriculture and forestry and food processing, for economics and for political science, librarianship and archives -keeping and museum work (64).

Enrolment at the majority of these colleges presupposes completed training as a skilled worker. Study at a medical, educational or art college can be undertaken directly after leaving the general school. The length of such a course is normally three

to four years.

(f) Institutions of Higher Education

Preparation for university and higher educational institutions is, provided, as stated earlier, by the two-year extended secondary school. The demand for specialists prepared at universities is based on the requirements of the planned economy. The directive "Task of Universities and Colleges in the Developed Socialist Society" demand that higher education research and teaching concentrate more closely on supporting the economy and all research going into productive action (65). So, every year the Minister of Higher Education increases or reduces the number of university places. For instance,

"in 1975 there were 136.854 registered students, which was a decline of 5.4 per cent compared with 1974 and of 15 per cent compared with 1972 (the last year when student numbers were increased). 31,000 new students matriculated at the beginning of the 1976/77 academic year in the universities and higher educational institutions" (66).

Universities and other institutions of higher education had been expanded in accordance with the expectations raised by the scientific-technological revolution; but soon it was clear that there was no longer a need for so many graduates who, when finishing their courses could not find a suitable job. Since then the number of admissions has been reduced. It has been carried out using two ways: lowering the number of students going to the extended secondary schools, and by raising standards in the universities and colleges entrance examinations (67).

Those most affected by this policy were individuals already working and who were seeking admission to correspondence courses. In 1971 9,711 of them were admitted at university and this figure fell to 3,405 in 1976 (68).

There are fifty-four higher educational institutions in the G.D.R., including the seven universities of Berlin, Dresden, Greifswald, Halle, Jena, Leipzig and Rostock (69).

Berlin was founded in 1809, and today is known as W. von Humboldt University; Dresden in 1890 (founded as a College), now Technical University; Greifswald in 1456, now E. Moritz Arndt University; Halle in 1694, now Martin Luther University; Jena was founded in 1558; Leipzig in 1409 now the Karl Marx University and Rostock in 1410 (70).

The universities were structured from their very beginning up until the University Education Reform of 1968 into faculties. Under the 1968 Reform these were dissolved and their control assumed by the Minister of Higher Education who is advised by a council of 14 members.

The head of university is the rector who is appointed by the Minister of Higher Education. The faculties were replaced by sections each with a director. Instead of the Senate there is an Advisory Council on which the students' representation is very strong, together with the representation of scientific assistants and workers from associated plants. The faculty boards were replaced by a scientific council composed only by university teachers and students and concerned only with research work (71).

Higher education starts with a basic course to impart both general and special subject-related knowledge during the course, usually in the third year, the student decides upon the specialist field on which he will write his graduate dissertation.

Studies are based upon the principles of unity of learning and research, and of theory and practice. Research starts at as early a stage as possible.

In 1976, a pre-study course in practice for students of

medicine, technology, agriculture and economics was established at the universities. Courses in all disciplines at universities and technical colleges are combined with practical work related to the main study, which takes the students into the enterprises and other institutions and provides valuable experience and practical knowledge for their work later on.

Students are also detailed to research projects which means that at each stage of their studies they have to apply their knowledge in a concrete form in the solution of specific tasks, which is very useful for them later when they go on to work or if they take on a post-graduate course of three years leading to a doctorate (72).

The majority of subjects, for instance, engineering, economics, and languages, require four years of study; medicine six years, one of which is, as already stated, a practical year. In addition all students must study Marxism-Leninism, Russian, a second foreign language and participate in sports events. Also, men must undergo military training and women first aid or civil defence. The academic year lasts ten months with few breaks (73).

Education at university level as well as at technical colleges is provided in three forms: full-time, extramural and correspondence, and in evening classes. About two-thirds of the 300,000 students currently studying at the universities and technical colleges are taking full-time courses.

Many of the courses offered are linked to local industry.

"Eighty per cent research at the University of Jena, for example, is done for the optical firm, Carl Zeiss"(74).

Since 1953 there have been laws by which higher education level qualifications have been awardable after extramural/correspondence and evening school courses. Tens of thousands of people

have taken these opportunities. Most importantly they offer every person already in employment the chance to take a course comparable with full-time study, without interrupting their normal work. As a rule students on these courses are delegated by their place of work which then gives them paid free time for study and paid leave for the final completion of their course work (75). Paragraph 57 of the "Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System in the G.D.R" reads,

"(3) Enterprises and institutions whose workers undertake part-time study must enter into the students' contract and support the student in his study. Support for women.... is a special duty" (76).

The state makes generous provision for the material security of the student, thereby ensuring them a study time free of small everyday worries.

Full-time study at university is free of charge. University facilities such as libraries, laboratories, sports halls and student clubs can be used by all students without payment.

As of September 1981, all students of universities and technical colleges receive a grant of 200 marks a month. Extra allowances are made on the basis of out-standing performances in study and of a high degree of involvement in community activities.

About three-quarters of the full-time student population live in halls for which they each pay some 10 marks a month. Canteen meals cost 0.60 to 1 mark.

Students are given free insurance cover against illness or accident. In case of illness, the grant continues to be paid in full for the first six weeks and thereafter a proportion (77).

One year before the end of their studies, students can enter into agreements with their future employers. The law ensures that students will be given at least three years work in the enterprise with which he has signed his agreement (78).

(g) Adult Education

The rapid expansion of knowledge in all spheres and the new demands arising from the changes in techniques as well as technological and scientific progress create further requirements for training on this or that field. The educational system of the G.D.R. encourages this sort of development and provides various facilities thereto.

The Education Act stresses the aim of the further training of the work force to be the adoption of,

"the knowledge and skill of trained workers of various grades of qualification to the latest technical and scientific development"

and further

"Opportunities for further professional training must be made available to those leaving general school or vocational school (Berufsschule) when they begin work-speciality training in specialist areas leading to higher qualifications" (79).

Further training for adults is offered in many forms:

"There are training opportunities at the educational facilities of the enterprise, or agricultural cooperatives (Betriebsakademien) or adult education centres and evening classes. Colleges, universities, academies and other institutions of higher education offer a range of further training courses. Moreover there are educational measures undertaken by the academic societies, parties, trade unions and other social organisations" (80).

The Betriebsakademien belonging to industry and agriculture are public facilities, and concern themselves with the training and further training of skilled workers, masters of their craft, and semi-skilled workers, as well as their specialisation, the preparation of the best workers for study at a technical college or equivalent.

Another job of the Betriebsakademien is to offer skilled workers the chance to learn a second or further skill, should an enterprise change its structure, or rationalise itself thus making changes in its requirements of workers. All costs connected with

such training programmes (planned well in advance) are borne by the enterprise concerned.

According to E. Schneider,

"State and social adult educational institutions in the G.D.R. include the enterprise college, village college, scientific societies like Urania and the Chamber of Technology, the industrial branch college, the Institute for Socialist Economic Leadership, the people's high school, the further education college, the television college, the parents' college, the women's college and the forms of further training through the parties and social organisations" (81).

Of great importance in the context of adult education is educational programme by T.V. which is sometimes coordinated with upgrading courses run by the enterprises, or parenthood courses, or other events organised by the houses of culture in the enterprises or residential neighbourhood.

Special support is given to working women. Technical schools run day-release classes which are attended twice a week by women in order to qualify as engineers. During the time spent in this kind of school they receive a full wage, and if they decide to take on a full-time course they are entitled to a grant equivalent to 80 per cent of their net pay in their last job (82).

Graduates from technical colleges and institutions of higher education can take up post-graduate study which may also be done in the form of correspondence courses lasting two years.

The level of skill in the G.D.R. workforce is rising steadily by means of compulsory vocational training and the many facilities for further education and training available to adults. Today over 80 per cent of the working population holds qualifications from a technical college, specialist training college or university.

Each year more than 1.5 million people have taken part in some form of further training in the last five years; 310,400 gained qualifications as skilled workers; 75,000 skilled workers

completed training as masters of their craft (83).

Teachers for adult education are highly qualified.

According to G. Schneider,

"All educational facilities, be it enterprise academy, evening school or village academy, are staffed with full-time teachers thoroughly trained in social sciences, in their own field and in pedagogy. Most of them have a university degree. Scientists, engineers and managers are invited to give lectures on special subjects on a part-time basis: their high qualifications and their ample experience are another guarantee of the scientific character of adult education" (84).

(h) Special Schools

The G.D.R. takes it as a humanist duty to give mentally and physically handicapped children and young people the key to participation in the life of society and, if possible, find appropriate work for them to do: in pursuance of this aim, care and training are given in medical educational and social fields, with a view to rehabilitation and training.

Today there are some 525 special schools for about 62,000 children, who, despite favourable conditions at the general school cannot be educated there (85).

Special schools are designed to help the partially hearing, the deaf, blind and partially sighted, those with speech defects, the educationally sub-normal, maladjusted, the physically handicapped and those with longterm illnesses or who have to be kept in hospital or other health care establishments.

Teaching in the special schools follows as far as possible the curricula of the general schools, but of course, in line with students faculties (86).

Sometimes subjects are especially adapted to the kind of impairment, or special subjects as for example typing, housework, modelling, are incorporated into the workplan.

In the schools for backward children and the deaf, specially adapted curricula have now been developed, which by their contents, extent and systematic approach, are more suitable to these groups of children and take into consideration their peculiarities and capabilities (87).

A job and appropriate training are guaranteed to every child on leaving such a school. Advice on choosing a job is given to the children and their parents by educationalists, doctors and workers at the state institutions and career counselling centres.

Every year the talented pupils from schools for the blind, partially - sighted, hard of hearing and physically handicapped sit their Abitur and enter on a course of higher study, because in the G.D.R. all special schools children,

"are encouraged to make full use of their unimpaired faculties. The state early insisted that every child, however handicapped, is part of socialist society and must be treated as such and educated to the fullest extent permitted by his disability" (88).

Many specially developed teaching aids and school books, toys, tools and materials are made available free of charge to the children in special schools some of them outside school hours.

Residential hostels are attached to the schools for the deaf and hard of hearing, the blind and partially sighted. For board and lodging the parents pay 48 marks per month. Every such school has its own kindergarten for the pre-school training of the 3 to 6 year olds (89).

Regarding the slightly handicapped, despite the fact that a child in this condition may continue in an ordinary school he will get appropriate help in out of school hours. For example in the case of children with slight speech problems, they attend ordinary schools and receive therapy in out-school time. The worst cases are taken by a peripatetic speech trainer who works under a doctor's direction and helps the school advising about the help to be given

to less severe cases (90).

(i) Teacher Training and Improvement of Pedagogical Personnel

The G.D.R. has had to face many difficulties in order to secure a supply of teachers for its schools and educational establishments.

From the early days there was a shortage of qualified teachers because many of them were excluded because of their activities under the Nazis. According to D. Childs,

"78 per cent of the teachers in the area of the present Democratic Republic were removed. Attempts were made to replace them by emergency-trained teachers chosen from among those persecuted by the Nazis..."

Further,

"In the school year 1945-46 a total of 15,000 'new teachers' - as those emergency trained were called - were put into the schools. They were joined the following year by another 25,000. By 1949 when the East German state was set up, there were 65,207 teachers, 45,244 of them 'new teachers'. In 1966 the G.D.R. had 128,877 fully-qualified school teachers, 93 per cent of them trained since the end of the war" (91).

Today the legal basis for education of teachers are given in the Act on the Integrated Socialist Educational System.

According to this Act,

"(1) The implementation of the integrated socialist educational system necessitates the training of patriotic and scientifically qualified teachers and educators in sufficient numbers. This training takes place at universities, colleges, institutes of education, teacher training institutes, and pedagogical schools for kindergarten teachers.

(2) The Minister of Education determines the principles for the training of teachers and educators, and confirms the curricula. The State Secretariate for Higher and Technical Education and the other central government and economic authorities, in whose fields of competence teachers are trained, are responsible for the practical application of these principles and for the content of the training on the basis of the curricula in the institutions sub-ordinate to them..."

(3) The science of Marxism-Leninism shall be imparted to the students in connection with practical life.

(4) The training in pedagogics, psychology, and methodology shall be distinguished by a high theoretical level. The sections of the practical training carried through in the schools are of special importance. Close interrelations shall be established between practical work at school and the course of studies. In the process of training the findings of science shall be connected with the experiences of the innovators in education" (92).

The teacher training policy is adapted at various levels in the different types of training establishments, so,

Crêche attendants undergo three years of training at a medical school. Besides general subjects they study not only educational theory and psychology but also anatomy, physiology, hygiene, health care, dietetics, general nursing training and pediatrics.

The training programme includes practical work in crèches and kindergartens, children's health centres and in mother's advice centres (93).

Kindergarten teachers are trained for three years in a teacher training centre. To go here they need to have successfully completed the ten-year school, but they do not need the Abitur (94).

Every year about 1,600 graduates from this course take up work. The course includes the basic studies of educational theory, psychology, philosophy, health care, anatomy and physiology, and such general subjects as German language and literature, music, art, physical training and methodology. Practical work in crèches, kindergartens and in the primary classes at the general school is included as well (95).

Trainees for teachers at the primary level and helpers in the after-school care facilities and orphanages come straight from the tenth class of the general school. They receive a four-year training at a teacher training institute.

"The training emphasis is on educational theory as it relates to the developmental progress of early childhood and on the German language and mathematics. Graduates of the teacher training institutes are qualified to teach three subjects: German, mathematics and one of the following: music, physical education, art education, manual training or gardening" (96).

The passing of the diploma examinations marks the end of the training. During the first two years of practising his profession, the young teacher is taken care of by a tutor (97).

Teachers for the intermediate and secondary levels in the general schools train, on gaining their Abitur, in a teacher training college, university, technical college or art school for five years.

The training of this level of aspirants concentrates on two interrelated subjects, e.g. mathematics/physics, Russian/history, or biology/chemistry. Physical education and music teachers go to special institutions without the requirement of a two subject speciality-teaching combination (98).

In addition, an essential part of the course consists of Marxist-Leninist philosophy, educational theory, psychology teaching methods, and practical work. The practical work involves at the end of the first year an obligatory period helping at a summer holiday camp for school children; during the course of the second year a practical is undertaken for educational and psychological study; and in the last year an eleven week long practical is arranged, where the students take full responsibility for their classes. During the third semester observation of lessons taught by experienced teachers are compulsory.

All students have to take an elective course and the work done here generally leads to the theme of a thesis which is compulsory for qualifying as a specialist teacher.

The final evaluation for the courses consist in a major

examination taken by all students at the end of the penultimate semester and during the last semester and include Marxist-Leninist theory, pedagogy and psychology, methodology of teaching of the subject area (99).

Teachers for special schools can attain, after a number of years active service and two years supplementary training, a certificate to teach in a special school (100).

Teachers for the extended secondary schools need to train at university or at a multidisciplinary institute at special institutes of very high standards after gaining their Abitur and completion of a period of social service (101).

Regarding in-service teacher training and according to N.J. Moore-Rivolucci,

"Long before UNESCO was developing the theme of permanent education the teacher in the G.D.R. was being expected to add to his qualifications to keep himself in a state of constant renewal, to be a life-long learner, stretched to the limit of his possibilities" (102).

Today in the G.D.R. teachers' efforts to deepen or extend their knowledge are answered in the many in-service training schemes for teachers. Besides individual study, these include exchanges of experience in particular areas, special meetings of teachers of any one subject, and theoretical councils. Basic and special courses on individual school subjects, educational theory and methodics are given at county and district level in the universities and technical colleges, in scientific and cultural facilities.

In the course of five years (the duration of one series of lectures) every teacher takes part in about 100 hours of lectures, on subjects of his own choice (103).

More than 40,000 teachers take part every year in such in-service training schemes.

A special feature of the G.D.R.'s educational system is

the training of administrators, including headmasters and future occupiers of such posts. This training is given in a course at a Pedagogical Institute which comprises one year full-time study and six months part-time study including the preparation of a thesis. At the end of the course the successful student gets a diploma in educational administration. The subjects on the course are Marxism-Leninism, education, psychology, educational planning, and current problems and policies in the running of a school. Together with theory there is a short practice in an analogous situation to this for which they are training (104).

(j) Extracurricula Education

The State helps school children to make the fullest possible use of their leisure time by providing amongst other things, children's libraries; children's theatres, a children's publishing house, pioneer houses, centres for nature researchers and young scientists, and holiday camps. Profitable use of leisure is also encouraged in good children's films, well-produced magazines for children of various age groups and special programmes for children and young people in the mass media.

"Two-thirds of all permanent users of libraries and 36 per cent of all visitors to museums in the G.D.R. are children and young people.

In 1980, the concerts organised for young people and school students had a total attendance of 585,000" (105).

There are many hobby groups and interest circles in schools and facilities of the children's and youth organisation devoted to the healthy development, and intellectual and moral education of children. The idea behind these extra-curricula activities is not only to satisfy the needs of the children with respect to useful spare time activity but also to implant and awaken more exacting needs.

These groups and circles in the schools are led by teachers, workers in industry and agriculture, mothers, fathers, scientists, former anti-fascist fighters, artists and athletes.

Every pupil can participate in one or more such groups according to his wish; attendance like use of facilities and materials, is free of cost.

"In the general schools of the G.D.R. today, there are about 90,000 such groups dealing with science and technology as well as culture and arts. About one million children attend their meetings...

Over 70 per cent of school children regularly practise sport in the school sports club and the sports associations of the German Gymnastics and Sports Federation of the G.D.R.

The extra-school hobby groups, clubs and ensembles existing with the establishment of the children's and youth organisation or in theatres, museums or libraries, have about 100,000 regular members.

Many contests and competitions, for instance in mathematics, physics, chemistry and Russian, festivals of young talents, singing contests, galleries of friendship, young innovators' exhibitions, and sporting competitions, all take place in the schools." (106)

The Children's and Youth Organisation

Young people start their political and social life young, owing to the Young Pioneers Groups from six to ten year olds (they were 736,000 in 1975); the Thalmann Pioneers from eleven to fourteen year olds (1.13 million in 1975); and the Free German Youth for young people over fourteen (2.16 millions in 1975) (107). Practically all school children are involved in the pioneer organisation where they learn how to accept responsibility to enjoy themselves, and experience the meaning of relations of mutual respect and tolerance. They learn how to safeguard social rights as well as social duties and how to recognise and handle basic forms of democracy. According to J. Steele the organisation "now embraces 80 per cent of the age group from eight to fourteen".

Further,

... the Pioneers look and sound like a co-educational version of Boy Scouts or Girl Guides. But they have a more political role" (108).

There is an annual Pioneer camp where thousands of children spend three weeks every year in summer at one of the organisation's several holiday camps.

The Pioneers prepare children for entry into the F.D.J. (Free German Youth). They keep here until they are twenty-five years old. According to N.J. Moore-Rivolucchi,

"this group is for the older pupils at school, students at all levels, young soldiers and youth out of work... Membership of the organisation presupposes a high sense of social awareness, a high standard of ethics and morality, and good standards of discipline and responsibility. It is seen as a patriotic duty to belong to the F.D.J. and as a personal and social duty to work through and for it" (109).

The Pioneer and the F.D.J. groups are organised in the classes at school. They elect their leaderships, discuss and plan their activities, and hold meetings (110).

According to the report presented on the 11th Congress of the Free German Youth held in Berlin from 2-5 June 1981, in the G.D.R.,

"The children's and youth organisation has at its disposal 16 newspapers and journals with an annual circulation of 750 million copies.

The three publishing houses for young people - Junge Welt, Neues Leben and Kinderbuchverlag - published 691 books with a total edition of 21.5 million copies in 1980.

The youth organisation has a newspaper of its own, the Yunge Welt which, with a daily circulation of 1.1 million, is the G.D.R.'s second largest daily.

Numerous facilities are at the disposal of pioneers and school pupils where they can play and engage in various activities. These facilities include the Palace of Children in the capital Berlin, 142 Pioneer houses, 192 centres of young naturalists and technicians, 57 tourist stations, and 46 holiday Pioneer camps" (111).

Permanent Education and the German Democratic Republic
Experience: some reflections

If education in the German Democratic Republic is now seen in the light of the objectives of permanent education (see page 16), it is possible to see that they are present throughout the entire educational systems. Manifestations of the German Democratic Republic to permanent education principles can be seen in the fact that this country has attempted to develop schools into institutions where students could become productive members of a new society which also could permit the improvement of the quality of life. Another manifestation supporting the idea of permanent education is the right to equal educational opportunities which is one of the main principles of education in this country, and which started in 1945-46 with the antifascist-democratic school reform, which received wide support, both from educational theorists and the general public (112), and paved the way towards an equal and unified school system. According to Hearnden, A., at this time,

"The educational system was seen as an instrument for redressing of the grievances of generations of under-privilege by ensuring that the mass of the people would no longer be educated merely to the minimum level required to enable capitalist industry to operate profitably, but rather to a point where they would themselves be capable of becoming the **controlling** force in society" (113)

Another sign of the German Democratic Republic support for the principle of permanent education is the variety of types of education (formal, non-formal and informal), and also the variety in attendance modes (full-time, part-time, correspondence courses especially for working people who are already employed).

The lifelong access to education can be seen through the pre-school facilities for children, which are the best in Europe (114) to the opportunities for the old.

Responding to the requirement of permanent education

regarding adaptability to change, the German Democratic Republic has made strong efforts. The educational system itself has been permanently evaluated and reformed according to economic, social and political requirements (three Education Acts from 1946 to 1965, and three Higher Education Reforms). The nature of the educational provision has been worked out as a result of an analysis of the needs of the planned economy of the German Democratic Republic. Potential students to university are informed well in advance which subjects are being given priority because of the economic needs of the country. They are expected to choose accordingly.

In order to improve the quality of life education has been democratised in the German Democratic Republic from the very beginning, being most evident in the preferential treatment for children of workers and peasants in the allocation of study places; in the fact that the character and function of schools were determined by the interest of the whole people offering comprehensive educational opportunities to all children; in the establishment in 1949 of the workers' and peasants' faculties, which were put on an equal level with universities and colleges (these faculties were abolished in 1964, they were not necessary at this time because of the existence of the polytechnical school, the easier ways of obtaining a place in a college and various forms of in-service training and adult education); in the transformation of colleges and universities into democratic and humanist centres of education and research, etc.

The integration of school, community and the world of work can be seen through the multiplicity of connections between the schools and nationally-owned enterprises which serve to widen the experience of the students, extending it beyond the home school and the youth organisations which permit them a close contact with real life. The integration of school and home can be seen in the exten-

sive rights that parents have with respect to the schools and kindergartens, participating in decision making and care, and working as elected representatives in class-parent, and parent-teacher associations.

The system itself is a fully integrated educational system, where all component parts, from kindergarten to university are systematically based upon each other; the system is flexible and offers everybody whatever his age a choice of formats for learning and further education.

The more representative efforts regarding permanent education in the German Democratic Republic are the provision of pre-school education which fulfil two tasks: taking care of children from the early age, and allowing mothers to have a job; the Ten-Year General Polytechnical School; this polytechnical education is, in the words of M. Siebert Klein,

"an attitude that permeates all subject areas by relating theoretical learning to practical activity in daily life and a course complex that seeks to provide young people with opportunities for observing and participating in the technological application of scientific theories in industry" (115);

and Adult Education which permits the access to culture to workers and people out of school age and also contributes towards preparing a skilled labour force.

It is true that this educational system has not already achieved 100 per cent success, and it is also true that it is under constant review; there is a considerable amount of scholarly preoccupation with educational theory, philosophy, history and sociology and intellectual activity and sustained application are everywhere.

In contrast in the next chapter education provision under a mixed economy is described and analysed from the viewpoint of permanent education.

ABBREVIATIONS

C.D.U.	=	Christian Democratic Union
D.B.D.	=	Democratic Farmers Party of Germany
D.W.K.	=	German Economic Commission
F.D.G.B.	=	Confederation of Free German Trade Unions
F.D.J.	=	Free German Youth
K.P.D.	=	Communist Party of Germany
L.D.P.D.	=	Liberal Democratic Party of Germany
N.D.P.D.	=	National Democratic Party of Germany
S.E.D.	=	Socialist Unity Party of Germany
S.M.A.D.	=	Soviet Military Administration in Germany

References: Chapter Four

- (1) Heinz Heitzer, G.D.R. An Historical Outline, Verlag Zeit im Bild, Dresden, 1981, p. 22.
- (2) Ibid., page 68.
- (3) Siebert Klein, Margrete The Challenge of Communist Education, Columbia University Press, New York, 1980, p. 8.
- (4) Ibid., p. 10.
- (5) Childs, David, The G.D.R.: Moscow's German Ally, Allen and Unwin, London, 1983, p. 169.
- (6) Ibid., p. 169.
- (7) Page, John, "Education under the Honecker" in David Childs (editor) Honecker's Germany, Allen and Unwin, London 1985, p. 50.
- (8) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 17.
- (9) Heinz Heitzer, op.cit., p. 159.
- (10) Page-John, op.cit., p. 57.
- (11) Heinz Heitzer, op.cit., p. 159.
- (12) Ibid., p. 160.
- (13) The Constitution of the German Democratic Republic . Constitution of the German Democratic Republic of 6 April 1968 as modified by the Law amending the Constitution of the German Democratic Republic of 7 October 1974. Joint publishers: Staatsverlag der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik und Verlag Zeit im Bild, third edition, Dresden, 1974, pp. 17-18.
- (14) Ibid., p. 23.
- (15) Ibid., p. 24.
- (16) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 39.
- (17) World Survey of Education, Vol. 14 Educational Policy, Legislation and Administration, Unesco, Paris, 1971, p. 518.
- (18) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 Auslandspresse-agentur Gmb.H. Berlin, p. 3.
- (19) Moore-Rivoluceri, Nina J., Education in East Germany, David and Charles, Newton Abbot, 1973, p. 113.
- (20) Siebert Klein, Margrete op.cit., p. 134.
- (21) Introducing the G.D.R., Panorama DDR, Fifth revised edition, translated by Intertex, Dresden, GDR, 1976 p. 196

- (22) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J. op.cit., p. 34.
- (23) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 3.
- (24) Ibid., p. 6.
- (25) Introducing the G.D.R., op.cit., p. 195.
- (26) Steele, Jonathan, Socialism with a German Face. The State that came in from the Cold, The Anchor Press Ltd., London, 1977, p. 170.
- (27) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 6.
- (28) Introducing the GDR, op.cit., p. 195.
- (29) Moore-Rivoluceri Mina J., op.cit., p. 35.
- (30) Siebert Klein, Margrete op.cit., p. 42.
- (31) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J., op.cit., p. 36.
- (32) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 39.
- (33) Ibid., p. 47.
- (34) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 7.
- (35) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 49.
- (36) Moore-Rivoluceri Mina J., op.cit., p. 44.
- (37) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 8.
- (38) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 49.
- (39) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 9.
- (40) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit. p. 49.
- (41) Ibid., p. 44.
- (42) Schneider E. Bernard, The G.D.R. The History, Politics, Economy and Society of East Germany, translated by H. Adomeit and R. Clarke, C. Hurst and Company, London, 1978, p. 67.
- (43) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 11.
- (44) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J., op.cit., p. 39.
- (45) Introducing the GDR, op.cit., pp. 197-198.
- (46) Ibid. p. 198.
- (47) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 11.
- (48) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., pp. 45-46.
- (49) Page, John, op.cit., p. 61.

- (50) The Constitution of the German Democratic Republic,
Act 25, No.4. p. 23.
- (51) Panorama DDR, 1-X-11/6.5, Auslandspressagentur GmbH
Berlin, p. 3.
- (52) Panorama DDR, 1-1X-42/6.4 p. 12.
- (53) Page, John, op.cit., p. 61.
- (54) Panorama DDR, 1-1X-42/6.4 p. 12.
- (55) Introducing the GDR, op.cit., p. 200.
- (56) Panorama DDR, 1-1X-42/6.4 p. 13.
- (57) Ibid., p. 14.
- (58) Panorama DDR, 1-X-11/6.5 p.10
- (59) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J., op.cit., p. 53.
- (60) Childs, David, op.cit., p. 173.
- (61) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 14.
- (62) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J. op.cit., p. 55.
- (63) Introducing the G.D.R. p. 201.
- (64) Panorama DDR, 1-1X-42/6.4 p. 15.
- (65) Page, John, op.cit., p. 62.
- (66) Schneider E. Bernard, op.cit., p. 72.
- (67) Page, John, op.cit., p. 62.
- (68) Hartmut Zimmermann, "The G.D.R. in the 1970's" in
Paul A Smith Jr. (editor) Problems of Communism,
March-April, 1978, Vol. XXVII, Washington D.C. U.S.A.
- (69) Schneider E. Bernard, op.cit., p. 74.
- (70) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J., op.cit., p. 96.
- (71) Ibid., p. 99.
- (72) Introducing the GDR, p. 202.
- (73) Childs, David, op.cit., p. 172.
- (74) Steele, Jonathan, op.cit., p. 178.
- (75) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 16.
- (76) Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System of
the German Democratic Republic, Paragraph 57, Berlin
Staatsverlag der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik, 1972.

- (77) Introducing the G.D.R. p. 203.
- (78) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 17.
- (79) Ibid.
- (80) Ibid.
- (81) Schneider E. Bernard, op.cit., p. 75.
- (82) Introducing the GDR, p. 204.
- (83) Panorama DDR 1-IX-42/64 p. 18.
- (84) Schneider Gottfried, "Adult Education in the German Democratic Republic, in Prospects, Vol. VII, No.2. 1977, pp. 268-69.
- (85) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/64. p.19.
- (86) Introducing the GDR, p. 198.
- (87) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/64. p. 19.
- (88) Moore-Rivolucci Mina J., op.cit., p. 66.
- (89) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/64
- (90) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J., op.cit., p. 68.
- (91) Childs, David, op.cit., p. 169.
- (92) Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System of the German Democratic Republic, p. 39.
- (93) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 7.
- (94) Childs, David, op.cit., p. 181.
- (95) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 7.
- (96) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 90.
- (97) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 20.
- (98) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 91.
- (99) Ibid., p. 98.
- (100) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 20.
- (101) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J., op.cit., p. 91.
- (102) Ibid., p. 81.
- (103) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 21.
- (104) Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina J., op.cit., p. 92.

- (105) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-19/6.0 p. 3.
- (106) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 21.
- (107) Schneider E. Bernard, op.cit., p. 67.
- (108) Steele, Jonathan, op.cit., p. 174.
- (109) Moore-Rivolucci, Mina J., op.cit., p. 75.
- (110) Panorama DDR, 1-IX-42/6.4 p. 23.
- (111) Panorama DDR, 1-VI-19/6.0 pp. 3-4
- (112) Page, John, op.cit., p. 51.
- (113) Hearnden, A., Education in the Two Germanies, Boulder, Co., Westview 1976, p. 75.
- (114) Steele, Jonathan, op.cit., p. 11.
- (115) Siebert Klein, Margrete, op.cit., p. 58.

Chapter Five

ENGLAND AND WALESEDUCATIONAL HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The first decisive advance towards a statutory system of public education in England and Wales started with the 1870 Elementary Education Act (1). This Act piloted through Parliament by W.E. Forster maintained the voluntary system but established local School Boards with power to provide and maintain Elementary schools out of public funds, the finance came from local rates, school fees and national taxes. The School Boards filled gaps in the education provided by the churches.

This Act did not make school attendance compulsory, it only gave power to the School Boards to make it compulsory in their areas, so a partial measure in this sense was introduced by the government in 1876 which made attendance compulsory in 1880 (2).

From the beginning therefore, state education was organised on a local basis and this degree of localisation has also contributed to the present diversity of the system.

Education still had to answer national needs, so in 1900, in response to growing pressure for a national coordinated system of education under the direction of a single authority, a National Board of Education for England and Wales was set up (3). Then in 1902, the School Boards were dissolved and local control of education was entrusted to local government in the form of the County Borough Councils and Urban District Councils who were to work in conjunction with the Board of Education (4). The Act of 1902 also introduced public secondary education for the first time.

Two other Acts soon followed - the 1902 Act; they were the Education Act of 1906 under which Local Education Authorities were authorised to spend public money on meals for children in

elementary schools; and the Education Act of 1907 which gave to Local Education Authorities the task of providing for the medical inspection of children in elementary schools (5).

During the years preceding the First World War, secondary education was developed vigorously and together with this came the first large-scale creation of universities in England (6).

In 1918 a new Education Act was passed. The purpose of the Act given in its opening clause,

"was to establish a national system of education available for all persons capable of profiting thereby" (7).

This Act also extended to adolescents measures of educational care and guidance (8). In addition the power of central government in regard to the local education authorities was strengthened, and the school leaving age was raised to 14. Some nursery education and part-time schooling after the age of 14 was also provided (9).

To prepare Britain for the Second Post-War era, a large body of social legislation was drawn up in the closing stages of the Second World War. Amongst this was the Education Act of 1944 which in many ways brought England more into line with European practice.

This Act established the legislative foundations of the system of education up to 1988 in England and Wales, and it was probably the greatest single advance in English educational history because of its considerable educational vision. Thanks to this Act an unprecedented expansion and development of the statutory system of education has occurred in the last thirty years.

According to S.J. Curtis,

"The Act regarded education as a lifelong process organised in the three progressive stages of primary, secondary and further education" (10).

This Act required the local education authorities to provide a substantial element of secondary education for all at least up to the

age of 15 or 16, aims which were achieved in 1947 and 1972 respectively.

The Act left room for a wide variety of experiments, including the provision of comprehensive secondary schools.

This Act,

"viewed education as a continuous process in which the three stages of Primary, Secondary and Further Education are demarcated. The Act stated the fundamental principle that the education given at any stage must be in accordance with 'the age, ability and aptitude of the pupil'. It is the parent's obligation to see this is carried out in reference to his own children" (11).

The 1944 Act remedied some defects of the 1918 Act, for instance, it is no longer optional but the local education authorities duty to provide nursery schools or classes in every place where they are necessary. At the same time the Act required each local education authority to establish facilities for school playing-fields, swimming-baths and other forms of recreation.

The Act replaced the Board of Education with a Ministry of Education and appointed a Minister of Education. The new Minister was given certain more positive statutory powers and was made ultimately responsible for promoting the education of the people of England and Wales and for the maintenance of minimum standards (12).

The local education authorities were made statutorily responsible for securing adequate facilities in their areas for all forms of public education and tuition fees were abolished in all its maintained secondary schools.

Religious instruction and worship was made obligatory in every primary and secondary school maintained by local education authorities. The Act prescribes a daily act of corporate religious worship attended by all the pupils as a beginning of each school day.

The local education authorities were required to secure, in addition to medical inspection, free medical treatment for all pupils between two and eighteen years of age in maintained schools

and to provide milk and meals to all pupils. On the other hand, local education authorities were required to have regard to the needs of mental and physically handicapped children and to provide for them appropriate educational treatment. The Act of 1944 paved the way for a considerable expansion of Special Education provision, the main means of providing it being boarding special school, day special schools, hospital special schools, special classes in ordinary day schools and individual tuition in hospital or at home. During the period 1947-77 the number of pupils in special schools rose from 40,000 to 135,000 (13).

The Education Act of 1944 has had, over the years, many modifications by subsequent Acts and Ministry of Education circulars. Fortunately its basic educational principles have not been undermined, but several of these modifications have made substantial alterations in organisational and financial arrangements.

Some people interpreted the 1944 Act as envisaging a tripartite system of secondary level with secondary modern schools, grammar schools and technical schools. Only a few technical schools were built, however, and consequently a binary system came into effect. Really the provision was open to interpretation by the local education authorities.

On the basis of an examination at the age of 11 it was decided whether individual children should proceed from primary school to a grammar school or a secondary modern school (the first with a more academic curriculum, the second with a practical, less theoretical curriculum).

Because dissatisfaction grew with this binary system some local education authorities abolished selection at 11. In the 1960's the policy of the Labour Government changed towards one of favouring an education system in which all the children of

secondary age in a particular neighbourhood were educated at the same school, a "comprehensive school". In 1976 an Education Act empowered the Secretary of State for Education (the Minister had been made Secretary of State in 1964) to direct local authorities to reorganise their secondary education along comprehensive lines (14).

Many authorities complied but in 1979 there was a change of government and the new government repealed the Act of 1976 (15). Thus provision in the secondary sector exhibits a considerable amount of diversity across the country with independent schools, voluntary-aided schools, grammar schools, secondary modern schools, and comprehensive schools all currently in operation.

The Education Act of 1980 removed certain limitations and restrictions on Local Education Authorities' powers, in particular in relation to school meals, as well as giving the Secretary of State certain new powers.

At this time a new Education Reform Bill has been designed to raise standards and increase parental choice. This Bill devolves budgetary powers on to heads and governors, set up new funding councils for universities and polytechnics, ends academic tenure, removes most polytechnics and colleges from local authority control, and allows boroughs to opt out of the Inner London Education Authority. The Bill set out plans for a national curriculum in state schools and for testing at ages 7, 11, 14 and 16. Religious education is reinforced (16).

The Educational System of England and Wales

The English and Welsh educational system has the following features:

(1) Objectives

English education aims to provide a comprehensive service

for all who can profit from it and to secure the best possible return from the resources which are found for it.

- To secure for children a happier childhood and a better start in life; to ensure a fuller measure of educational opportunity for young people and to provide means for all of developing the abilities with which they are endowed and to shape those abilities for the benefit of society as a whole (17).

(2) Administration

Unlike some highly centralised European systems, the English education service is distinctive in its distribution of responsibility and complementary efforts of the central government, local authorities, the teaching profession, the churches and other voluntary bodies.

The instrument of central government is the Department of Education and Science (D.E.S.) created in 1964. Its direct line of descent is the Committee of Council for Education 1839-56; the Education Department 1856-1900; the Board of Education 1900-44; the Ministry of Education 1944-64 (18).

At the head of the Department of Education and Science is the Secretary of State for Education and Science. He or she is a member of the Cabinet, and has the assistance of a Minister of State and two Parliamentary Under-Secretaries of State. According to K. Evans,

"They are responsible to the government and to Parliament for the policy and the conduct of their department, and are usually politicians with real interest, if not direct experience of, the field of education. They formulate national policy, initiate any necessary legislation and are expected to press the claims of education within the government's total programme" (19).

According to the Education Act of 1944 the duty of the Minister of Education,

"shall be to promote the education of the people of England and Wales and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose, and to secure the effective execution by local authorities under his control and direction of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area" (20).

Under the 1980 Education Act (section 12/13) the Secretary of State has powers related to the opening, closure or reorganisation of individual schools (specially when voluntary schools are involved)(21).

Responsibility for schools and non-university education in Wales rests with the Secretary of State for Wales who is also a member of the government.

The Department of Education and Science's main concern is the formulation of national policies for non-university education, and government policies for the universities in England, Wales and Scotland. It has few executive functions. It is responsible for controlling educational building and the supply, training and pensions of teachers, for determining the requirements for recognition as a qualified teacher; but it does not lay down schools curricula nor does it run the schools and colleges, it does not engage or employ teaching staff and it does not select or publish educational textbooks. It plays an important part in determining the level of the rate-support grant which is given by central government to local authorities. It is also responsible for maintaining minimum national standards of education and this is assisted by members of Her Majesty's Inspectorate, who monitor the efficiency of schools and colleges and provide the Minister with specialist advice.

The Department of Education and Science have a staff of about 3,000 civil servants at the head of which is a Permanent Secretary and his three Deputy Secretaries. The responsibilities

of this team range from the direct provision of advice to the political heads to the maintenance of contact with the local education authorities, who carry out the executive functions of the Department, communicating national policy and exercising control.

The professional branch of the Department of Education and Science, is represented by Her Majesty's Inspectorate body which is composed of about 500 officers. They constitute a professional link with the local education authorities and their schools and other educational institutions and bodies (22).

Local government administers education through the local education authorities (L.E.A.'s) of which there are 105 in England and Wales (23).

It can be said that L.E.A.'s direct line of descent is the School Boards 1870-1902; the Technical Instruction Committees 1889-1902; Part II County/County Borough and Part III Municipal Borough/Urban District L.E.A.s 1902-44; County and County Borough L.E.A.s 1944-74 (24).

Under the 1944 Education Act, L.E.A.s have as a statutory duty,

"to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education... shall be available to meet the needs of the population of their area" (25).

Local education authorities are responsible for over 85 per cent of national spending on education. Some 60 per cent of their educational expenditure they receive directly from central government, but the remainder of this is raised from the rates (local property taxes) and some additional income (charges as fees for evening classes, for example) (26).

The local education authorities administers the routine working of the education service, it being their duty to provide

and run the schools and colleges in their areas and to employ teaching and auxiliary staff. A Chief Education Officer is in charge of each L.E.A.'s administration and he or she is assisted by professional and administrative staff. Control of the secular curriculum rests with the local authority, or in the case of voluntary and independent schools with the school managers or governors, but the choice of textbooks and timetables is usually left to the headmaster of the school with the content and method of day-to-day teaching being decided by the individual teacher. A considerable degree of autonomy is enjoyed, therefore, by local authorities, headmasters and teachers.

According to the 1944 Education Act the Secretary of State can intervene if a statutory duty has not been carried out locally or if in his opinion there has been an unreasonable exercise of power. If an authority wishes to establish a new school or to cease to maintain an existing one, or if it wishes to alter the character or significantly enlarge the premises of a school, it is required under the Act to present its proposals to the Secretary of State, who has the power to approve or reject them (27).

In addition there is a wide range of consultative bodies upon which the Department of Education and Science and the Local Education Authorities draw for advice. These include: the Secondary Examinations Council, and the School Curriculum Development Committee (both set up in 1983 in place of the School Council); the National Foundation for Educational Research; the Technician Education Council, the Business Education Council; the Standing Committee of University Vice-Chancellors; the Council for National Academic Awards and many others (28).

When the government feels there is an area of particular concern a Committee of Inquiry is set up to collect evidence and make

proposals upon the area. Each Committee compiles a Report which is generally known by the name of the Chairman of the Committee. The most important of these have been the Newsom Report (on independent schools), the Plowden Report (on primary schools), the Robbins Report (on full-time higher education); and the Warnock Report (on education for the handicapped).

In sum, and according to K.Evans (29), the basic structure of contemporary educational administration in England and Wales is as follows:

<u>Layers of Operation</u>	<u>Central Structure</u>	<u>Local Structure</u>
<u>Political</u>	<u>DES</u>	<u>Local Education Committee</u>
Concerned with policy and decision-making, carries final public responsibility for educational matters.	Secretary of State (general policy, science and research, allocation of resources and other sensitive areas).	Consists of Chairman & Vice-Chairman, majority of Council members and a minority of co-opted members.
Personnel involved subject to political change both central and local.	Junior Ministers (with various responsibilities related to higher and further education, schools and other matters) All political figures.	Undertakes the duties and exercises the powers of the multi-purpose local authority in the field of education. It operates a sub-committee structure and delegates some powers to the governing bodies of schools and other educational institutions.
<u>Administrative</u>		
Concerned with the provision of advice and information to the political layer and with the execution of decisions and the day to day working of the educational system.	Permanent Civil Service staff serving DES at Whitehall. Permanent Secretary Deputy Secretary (3) Branch Under Secretaries (assisted by many other staff of lower grades)	Permanent Local Government Officers, administrative and clerical staff serving the local authority in the field of education. Director of Education Deputy Other Education Officers (variable division of responsibilities)

<u>Layers of Operation</u> (cont.)	<u>Central Structure</u> (cont.)	<u>Local Structure</u> (cont.)
<u>Advisory</u>		
Links the administrative and political layers with the staff and institutions operating in the field and provides a means through which advice and information can be established and communicated.	Her Majesty's Inspectorate. Standing Committees (e.g. ACSET, SEC) Special Committees (e.g. James, Taylor and Warnock) DES consultation with other interested parties.	Local Inspectorate (includes Advisers/Organisers) ad hoc sub-committees of the Local Education Committee. Consultation with teachers, churches, and other interested parties. But Director of Education acts as both main filter and power house for passage of advice and information to Local Education Committee.

ACSET = Advisory Committee on Supply and Education of Teachers
SEC = Secondary Examination Council.

(3) Financing of Education

Current expenditure is financed by an element raised locally through the rates, and an element which comes from the government for all local services, known as the Rate Support Grant. This Rate Support Grant makes up about 60 per cent of local authority expenditure on education. In theory local authorities are free to decide how to distribute it between different services. In practice their freedom is limited by two factors: the grant which is made every two years, is decided on the basis of detailed bargaining with the local authority associations; and many of the large items of expenditure, such as teachers' salaries are determined by national agreements. (*)

(*) In accordance with the Remuneration of Teachers Act of 1965, salaries are negotiated in Committees, known as the Burnham Committee, which comprise members representing LEA's and the Secretary of State for Education and Science on one side and teachers on the other (30).

Some of the funds for education are then further redistributed by one authority to another.

Since 1980 central government has sought to exert much more control over the total expenditure of local authorities. It now sets an annual level of local authority expenditure beyond which financial penalties operate in order to discourage overspending; and since the 1984 Rates Act, even more controls are operating which reduce the capacity of LEAs in this matter (31).

Capital expenditure is determined by the Department of Education and Science. It gives loan sanction to authorities for particular projects.

Nearly all university incomes come from public funds. The Government contributes about 70 per cent of their current income and 90 per cent of their capital programmes. With the exception of the Open University which gets its share of public funds in the form of a direct grant from the Department of Education and Science, universities are financed through the University Grants Committee (U.G.C.) (32). This body distributes the grants for current expenditure, which is made every five years, to individual institutions.

(4) National System of Education: Organisation and Description of the Different Types of Education

Compulsory education begins at the age of five, and the minimum leaving age for all pupils is 16; although some provision is made for children under 5 and many pupils remain at school beyond the minimum leaving age. Post-school education is organised flexibly in order to provide opportunities for academic work, vocational training and continuing study throughout life.

Compulsory education is provided in maintained schools, voluntary schools or independent schools. Maintained schools are schools supported from public funds and they are of two main kinds:

county schools and voluntary schools.

County schools are provided and maintained wholly out of public funds.

Voluntary schools have mostly been established by religious denominations (Church of England or Roman Catholic schools). About 32 per cent of the publicly maintained primary and secondary schools in England and 15 per cent in Wales are voluntary schools (33). The secular teaching is inspected by members of H.M. Inspectorate, or by LEA advisers or inspectors on the same basis as maintained county schools. Voluntary schools receive varying amounts of public finance according to type ("aided", "controlled" and "special agreement").

Independent schools receive no grants from public funds and fees are charged at these schools for tuition and for any boarding facilities.

All of them are open to inspection and since 30.9.57 (day on which the 1944 Act Part III came into operation) must register with the Department of Education and Science or the Welsh Office (34) which have power to require them to remedy any objectionable features in their premises, accommodation or instruction and to exclude any person regarded as unsuitable to teach in or to be the proprietor of a school (35).

By default, the appropriate Secretary of State can, in effect close a school, but schools have a right of appeal to an Independent Schools Tribunal, against any of the requirements.

In January 1984 there were 2,400 registered independent schools providing primary and/or secondary education in England and Wales. They provided education for about 515,220 pupils in England (6 per cent of the total school population) and for 11,427 in Wales (2 per cent of the total school population) (36).

These schools cater for pupils of all ages and a relatively high proportion provide boarding. They include the "preparatory schools" for boys and girls mostly aged 7 to 13 plus, and the largest and most important of them, the "public" schools which accept pupils at about 12 or 13 years of age usually on the basis of a fairly demanding examination. There are about 270 public schools, most of them still single sex (about half of them for girls) and at least partly boarding, but there are some coeducational schools and certain boys' schools have recently begun to admit girls direct to their sixth forms (37).

The most famous "public" schools are Eton, Winchester and Harrow. "Public" schools are usually members of the Headmasters Conferences the Governing Bodies Association or the Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association.

Besides the preparatory and public schools and others providing a mainstream education there are a number of independent schools offering specialised provision for the artistically gifted, for religious minorities, for children of foreign nationals, etc., and a number of "experimental" schools.

(a) Pre-school Education

State nursery education was initiated in 1907 after the Report of the Consultative Committee on "School Attendance Below the Age of Five" (38). The 1918 Education Act put emphasis on the care and nurture of children stressing the importance of rest, good food and cleanliness. This concept of nursery education was reinforced in 1921 when nursery schools were placed under the medical section of the Board of Education.

During the years of the Second World War more nurseries were opened because mothers were needed in war work. After 1945 a

growing need and demand for nursery schooling was produced and with the 1944 Act requiring from LEAs the nursery provision for the under fives the situation seemed good. Unfortunately the post-war situation left nursery education in an unsatisfactory state until the late 1960s when it improved considerably following the Plowden Report which backed nursery schooling very strongly, and it continues in 1972 with the White Paper, A Framework for Expansion.

Today facilities for informal education and play for children aged 2 to 5, which is not compulsory are provided free in public sector nursery schools and nursery classes in public sector primary schools and are also available for a fee in a few independent schools and a large number of 'pre-school playgroups' organised by voluntary organisations or by groups of parents.

In 1972 the White Paper, A Framework for Expansion, set out the long term goals which, when realised will provide pre-school; education mainly on a part-time basis for all those children of 3 or 4 years whose parents wish them to benefit from it. At the moment school provision for the under fives extends to 43 per cent of 3 and 4 years old compared with 21 per cent in 1972 and 15 per cent in the 1950s and 1960s (39).

The school day at the nursery schools lasts from 9 a.m. to 3.30 or 4.00 p.m. and it includes the opportunity for rest after the mid-day meal for those in full-time attendance.

There are no formal lessons but indoor and outdoor play is guided by a teacher using a variety of materials. Training in good personal and social habits is regarded as extremely important and great attention is paid to physical development. It is through play that the nursery teacher provides the basis for the main primary phase (40).

Every nursery school has a qualified head teacher and qualified assistant teachers,

"In January 1984 in England and Wales there were 630 publicly maintained nursery schools, with some 53,900 pupils, and nursery classes in primary schools having a total of around 254,900 pupils. Of the total of some 308,850 nursery pupils, about 80 per cent attended part-time in England and 64 per cent attended part-time in Wales. In 1984 roughly 40 per cent of the population of England and Wales in the 3 and 4 year old age groups were receiving some pre-compulsory education in maintained schools. In 1984 some 70 per cent of the population of Wales in this age group received nursery education in maintained schools" (41).

(b) Primary Education

Education is compulsory between the ages of 5 and 16. During this period children usually spend six years at the primary stage and five years in a secondary school.

About half the primary schools in England and Wales take the complete age range 5-11 years and are divided into two departments: an infant department for children between 5 and 7 and a junior department for children between 7 and 11 years of age.

There are also separate infant and junior schools each with their own head teacher (42).

Education at this level is concerned with the general development of children and they aim to meet the current needs of them as well as to prepare them for the next stage of education. They seek to provide a programme which promotes individual intellectual and physical growth, and high priority is given to teaching children to read, to write and to calculate. Great importance is also attached to social development and to the establishment of sound personal relationships.

The curriculum for infants and junior includes, art, craft, physical education, music, religious education and studies which incorporate aspects of science, history and geography (43).

The differences between the infant/first school stage and the junior/middle school stage are mainly ones of teaching approach, and depth and range of the studies undertaken. With the younger pupils the early stages of reading, writing and mathematics are introduced using materials which are familiar and relevant to the children and the work includes many opportunities for experimenting with sand, water, clay, bricks and paints; for listening to stories and music and for imaginative play. For older children, although the approach continues to be characterised by inquiry, attention is increasingly given to the development of skills and concepts within subject areas.

Schools in Wales have a particular problem: language. Wales is a bilingual country and it is government policy that local education authorities should arrange for Welsh to be taught and used as a medium of teaching according to the needs of particular areas as well as the wishes of parents (44).

(c) Secondary Education

Secondary education is compulsory up to the age of 16, and pupils can stay on at school voluntarily for up to 3 years longer.

Secondary education is provided at different types of schools: comprehensive schools; grammar schools; which provide a mainly academic course for selected pupils from 11 to 18 or 19, modern schools which provide a general education with a practical bias up to the minimum school leaving age of 16, and a few technical schools which provide a general academic education, but place particular emphasis on technical subjects.

In 1984 there were 3,938 comprehensive schools with 3.3 million pupils; 175 grammar schools with 117,187 pupils, 285

secondary modern schools with approximately 171,470 pupils. Comprehensive schools cater for all children in the age group and admit children without reference to ability or aptitude. They take either the full range from 11 to 18, or they cater for the age range 11 to 16. Where 16 is the compulsory leaving age pupils wishing to continue their education beyond that age transfer to the sixth-form of an 11 to 18 school, or to a sixth-form college.

There are also forms of schooling which are not fully comprehensive. A few other secondary schools comprise bilateral or multilateral schools, providing two or three types of secondary education although in separately organised streams.

With regard to the curriculum, legally it is the responsibility of the local education authorities and school governors; in practice, decisions about curriculum content and teaching methods are usually left to head teachers and staff (45).

In general a wide range of subjects is taught including English, Mathematics, Science, Humanities, Environmental Studies and Modern Languages. In addition many comprehensive schools offer courses in Engineering, Architecture, Economic and Commercial subjects.

For most pupils, the period of compulsory education culminates in assessment through public examinations. Secondary school pupils and other may take the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.) 'O' level and 'A' level, or the Certificate of Secondary Education (C.S.E.).

The General Certificate of Education examinations were introduced in 1951 to replace the former School Certificate and Higher School Certificate examinations.

The General Certificate of Education provides a convenient level of minimum qualifications for entrance to higher education.

The examination results are used by universities to assess candidates.

These examinations are set at two levels, Ordinary ('O') and Advanced ('A').

The Ordinary level papers (single subject) are usually taken at the end of the five year course in the secondary school and are taken by the top 20 per cent of the ability range. Advanced level papers are usually taken after a further two years study in the sixth form, i.e. the highest class in secondary education.

There are no compulsory subjects at either level and candidates may take as many or as few subjects, and as many times, as they wish. They do not need to take the same subject at both Ordinary and Advanced levels. A candidate who fails to gain a pass at Advanced level may be awarded an Ordinary level pass on his Advanced level paper. Since 1975 Ordinary level results have been recorded in five grades (A-E).

At Advanced level, passes are awarded in five grades: A-B-C-D and E. Candidates whose basic Advanced level papers are graded A,B, or C may take Special (S) papers which are normally set on the same syllabus as the basic Advanced level papers but contain questions of a more searching kind. Candidates are not normally expected to take 'S' papers in more than one subject and are not allowed to take them in more than two (46).

The examinations are open to any suitable candidates whether they are attending school or not. The normal minimum age of entry is 16 for 'O' level. There is no upper age limit. There are over fifty main subjects to choose and many more subsidiary ones.

Two Advanced levels are normally the minimum qualifications for entry to universities in England and Wales, but three Advanced levels are usually necessary since entry is competitive.

The Certificate of Secondary Education was introduced in

1965, its basis is in the Beloe Report on Secondary School Examinations Other Than G.C.E. of 1960 and is intended for those children who are around the average in terms of ability for their age group. The examination is taken by pupils completing five years of secondary modern and comprehensive schools and any number of subjects can be taken. There is no pass or fail verdict: pupils are awarded one of five grades, or are ungraded in each subject they take. Grade 1 represents a standard equivalent to a pass at Ordinary level in the General Certificate of Education (Grades A-C) (47).

The information given on the certificate is of help to employers in placing young people in jobs and as an entry qualification for young people who seek further education in technical and other colleges. The examination is administered by 12 regional boards. Papers are based on the normal work of secondary schools. They vary from area to area and may vary from school to school, but the standard of certificates is comparable on a national basis. Work done by candidates during their final school year may be taken into account.

As has been said before this examination was launched in 1965 being very well received and obtaining an enthusiastic response from the schools. During the period 1965-77 the annual number of candidates grew from 65,000 to 625,000 (48).

But this dual system of examinations has defects and in order to remedy it, the government announced in June 1984 its decision to establish a new single system of examinations, the General Certificate of Secondary Education (G.C.S.E.) with a seven point scale of grades, A-G, which will replace 'O' levels, G.S.E. and the Joint 16+ examinations. The new system will be administered by five examining groups 4 for England and 1 for Wales. The first G.C.S.E. examination will be held in 1988 (49).

The Government has also proposed that candidates obtaining very good grades in a broad range of subjects should be entitled to 'distinction' and 'merit' certificates.

The Secondary Examinations Council will be responsible for monitoring G.C.S.E. standards and for all aspects of syllabuses and examinations.

In March 1985 the Government announced its decision to introduce a new set of examination courses AS (Advanced Supplementary) levels designed to broaden the curriculum for 'A' level students without diluting academic standards. These single subject examinations will provide an opportunity for sixth form pupils to study a wider range of subjects than at present. The first course will begin in 1987, with the first examinations in 1989 (50).

(d) Special Education

Before the Second World War all legislation regarding handicapped children had treated them as a class apart. Fortunately the 1944 Act accepted and backed three separate reports which advised the Board of Education to draw special schools into the general framework. So, under the 1944 Act Special Education passed to be an LEA's duty not only for the old five categories but for all children suffering from any disability of mind or body.

Today in England and Wales Special Education is provided for children who require it because of any physical or mental disability either in ordinary schools or special schools (including hospital schools).

According to the 1970 Act, since 1971 the right of all handicapped children to education however severe their disability, has been recognised. This Act is the result of the,

"conviction that many of the children concerned could benefit from special education treatment and that the complete isolation of them and their teachers was no longer acceptable" (51).

Under the 1981 Act every LEA has a duty to ascertain which children in its area require special educational treatment and to provide it.

Since the Warnock Report of 1978 on which the 1981 Act is based, it has been government policy to send as few handicapped children as possible to special schools, and provisions within the Education Act 1976 established the principle that such children should never be placed in special schools if their needs can be met in ordinary schools.

The Education Act of 1981, which came into force on 1st April 1983, substantially altered previous legislation which was concerned mainly with provision of special educational treatment and which categorised children into one of ten statutory handicaps. The 1981 Act is based on the recommendations of the Warnock Committee and promotes the concept of the special educational needs of the individual child.

Special Educational needs may arise from a variety of causes. The concept embraces a wider group of pupils than those previously 'ascertained' formally as handicapped. As an indication of scale, the Warnock Committee estimated that about 20 per cent of pupils might have special educational needs at some time during their schooling (52).

About 7.5 per cent of the special schools are under voluntary management (Church of England and Roman Catholic Church). They receive some grant aid from the Department of Education and the Welsh Office, but are maintained primarily from the local authorities and the parents are not charged.

The main societies providing children's homes are the following: the Roman Catholic Church; the Church of England; Dr. Barnardo's; the National Children's Home; the Shaftesbury Society; Royal National Institute for the Deaf; the Spastic Society; National Society for Autistic Children; Invalid Children's Aid Association (53).

Handicapped children do not normally begin school before the age of five, but there is an increasing awareness that early special educational treatment is important. Because of this, the Education Act 1981 gives LEAs the power to assess the needs of children under the age of two with their parents' consent. They do not normally leave special schools before the age of 16, but in some special schools pupils may stay until they are 18 or 19 and take examinations courses. There are three establishments for the further education and training of the blind and nine for the physically handicapped.

The special schools all have small classes with a generous ratio of both teaching and childcare staff, many of whom have taken specialist courses for work with handicapped children.

(e) Technical and Further Education

These kinds of education are provided by establishments of further education after the completion of compulsory education, which caters for students aged 16 years and over. Courses in further education establishments cover a wide variety of predominantly but not solely, vocational subjects and are provided at all academic levels. They may be attended by full-time, by part-time (many of them apprentices) and by sandwich students (whose periods of study at colleges alternate with periods of practical training in industry).

The courses are provided in some 620 major establishments

of various types and levels, which, with some exceptions, are maintained by local education authorities.

A number of further education courses are run by private colleges. These independent colleges are not, like independent schools, required to register with the Department of Education and Science or the Welsh Office, but they may apply for "recognition as efficient". Until 1st April 1982 the D.E.S. operated a voluntary scheme to this end. Standards and efficiency in independent further and higher education are now monitored by a body called the British Accreditation Council for Independent Further and Higher Education (BACIFHE) established in November 1984. The work is carried out by a team of inspectors including retired H.M.I.'s, local authority advisors, heads and other senior staff of polytechnics and members of professional bodies.

There are a few independent professional bodies which provide a system of recognition or accreditation, such as the National Council for Drama Training and the Council for Dance Education Training; and the British Council has operated since 1982 a scheme for the reorganisation of institutions providing courses in English as a Foreign Language (54).

The establishments of further education include the polytechnics and institutions with a variety of titles such as "Technical College", "College of Further Education" and "College of Art". In addition there are over 6,300 Adult Education Centres providing courses of a mainly non-vocational character.

A particular feature of the further education service is that it has, or should have, strong links with industry and commerce and the interest shown by employers in what it provides. To some extent the courses available in an area depend on the nature of local industry and commerce.

The Government hopes the Further Education Act which received the Royal Assent in July 1985, will enable existing links between further education and industry to be strengthened, facilitating the transfer of technological innovations from the laboratory bench to the market place, fostering entrepreneurial attitudes among further education staff and opening up opportunities for financial benefit to them and their institutions (55).

Financial assistance is available to further education students on the same basis as for university students if they are taking full-time courses leading to degrees and comparable qualifications.

Polytechnics

In 1966 H.M.'s Government decided to concentrate public sector higher education within the further education system by forming from some 60 leading colleges of technology, commerce and art, 30 major institutions of a national character, to be known as "polytechnics". The planned total was completed in 1973. The polytechnics are primarily teaching institutions and they have close links with business and industry; one of their distinctive characteristics is the wide range, both in the composition of the teaching body and the type and level of course offered.

Their students include many people in employment attending on a part-time or block release basis, as well as full-time and sandwich students. There is a wide variety of courses and qualifications in higher education. There are the two-year Higher National Certificates and the two and three year Higher National Diplomas, administered in the same way as Ordinary National Certificates and Ordinary National Diplomas, in a wide range of technical subjects and business studies. Other courses include the Diploma in Higher Education, gained after a two years' full-time study, introduced in

1972. It is a qualification in its own right but it may provide an alternative route to a degree (students can often transfer to a degree course), teacher training or other professional training. While equivalent in standard to the first two years of a degree course, Diplomas in Higher Education are less specialised and many are organised on a modular basis. They are validated by the Council of National Academic Awards or by Universities.

Apart from courses leading to first and higher degrees and to other important sub-degree qualifications, the polytechnics also provide courses leading to the examinations of major professional bodies.

An increasing number of polytechnics are offering "modular" degrees. These enable students to choose a number of courses (or 'modules') that relate either to a single subject and thus to specialisation in a well-defined area of study, or to a combination of courses which, when taken together, constitute a broader, more generalised education.

In addition to technician courses, polytechnics also provide courses in business and management studies. These courses lead to CNAAs degrees, Higher National Diplomas and Certificates in Business Studies and to Diplomas in Management Studies.

Colleges of Art

The non-advanced art and design courses which often lead to regional or college diplomas are largely vocational. Courses known as foundation studies are designed to develop the students' interest and skill in art and design and serve as a preparation for entry to higher and more extended courses. Following a Report, published in 1974, on Vocational Courses in Art and Design, a committee for art and design has been established under the auspices

of the Technicians Education Council (T.E.C.) to provide a national validating system for vocational courses in art and design. At Advanced level 46 colleges/polytechnics are approved by the Council for National Academic Awards to offer three-and four-year full-time courses leading to the award of the C.N.A.A. degree of B.A. (Hons.) Art and Design.

Many students will have completed a foundation course but also require an appropriate combination of General Certificate of Education Advanced and Ordinary level passes. Several post-graduate courses are available leading to C.N.A.A. M.A. Degrees.

The largest provider of post-graduate level work in art and design is the Royal College of Art which has, since it received its Royal Charter in 1967, the power to grant its own degrees (56).

(f) Teacher Training

According to Section 62 of the 1944 Act it is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Education and Science to,

"make such arrangements as he considers expedient for securing that there shall be available sufficient facilities for the training of teachers for service in schools, colleges and other establishments maintained by local education authorities, and for that purpose the Minister may give to any local education authority such directions as he thinks necessary requiring them to establish maintain or assist any training college or other institutions or to provide or assist the provision of any other facilities specified in the direction" (57).

Universities undertake the responsibility for ensuring that the courses and examinations leading to the Teacher's Certificate and other professional qualifications are up to standard.

Under the leadership of each university an Area Training Organisation (ATO) was formed, this being representative of all the bodies concerned with education and training of teachers, and to perform the academic and administrative duties each university

established an Institute of Education which appointed and paid its staff and passed to be an integral part of the university. In 1975 there were 22 ATO's in England and 1 in Wales; and 5 types of teacher training establishment:

- (1) University Departments of Education (U.D.E.'s);
- (2) Colleges of Education (until 1964 called Training Colleges);
- (3) Colleges of Education (Technical);
- (4) Polytechnic Departments of Education; and
- (5) Art Training Centres (A.T.C.'s) (58).

The most numerous were the Colleges of Education (over 160) and their main task was the education and training of non-graduates to whom they previously gave a 2-years course, later a 3-year course, and from 1965 a 4-year course which lead to a new degree, the Bachelor of Education.

Some colleges had given courses of 1 year, only for graduates. Most of these Colleges of Education were for non-specialist teachers for work in primary schools.

Colleges of Education (Technical), University Departments of Education and Art Training Centres provided courses of professional training only for one academic year. The first ones trained teachers for working in Further Education; the University Department of Education accepted graduates only studying to become specialists to teach in secondary schools and the Art Training Centres accepted only students with professional qualifications in art or handicrafts who would become specialist teachers (59).

But in 1972 the white Paper Education: A Framework for Expansion changed all this. The Report recommendations on in-service training, the reform of the probationary year, the initiation of the Diploma in Higher Education as a general sub-degree qualifi-

cation and the replacement of the ATO's by a new administrative structure were all accepted. From this date on, Colleges of Education provided courses that could lead to other careers, and its links with universities were cut since they were integrated into the public sector of Higher and Further Education.

The teacher training system has been cut down and re-structured to provide for a reduced school population resulting from the decline in births between 1965 and 1977. Some Colleges of Education have merged with one another or with another establishment, while others have been closed.

Now, teacher education and training is based in fifty-odd polytechnics and Colleges of Higher Education where it takes place alongside a range of other degree options, and about 30 UDE's which provide one-year professional training for post-graduate students (60).

There are two main ways in which students can obtain qualified teacher status:

(1) By direct entry to colleges or institutions of higher education on to a three or four-year course leading to a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) ordinary or honours degree, for which entrants are normally required to hold the same qualifications as for entry to any degree, i.e. five passes in the G.C.E. of which two are at Advanced level.

Since 1984 candidates are required to have passed English Language and Mathematics at GCE/SCE 'O' level or at CSE Grade 1; (for applicants ages 25 or over, who do not possess the prescribed qualifications in English and Mathematics, alternative arrangements may be made) (61).

In relation with the course work, it may include notes, reports, seminars, essays and projects; examinations may sometimes be of the short answer or open book kind, or involve practical work,

as well as the more traditional questions.

Some courses are concurrent - that is, subject studies and professional and educational studies continue throughout the course. A number of courses are however consecutive in structure, i.e. academic studies are taken in the earlier part of the course, professional studies being concentrated on at a later stage.

Regarding curriculum - three and four-year courses usually include in addition subject studies which may vary in number and depth according to the age range which the student intends to teach. For those wishing to teach in the primary and middle years, attention is given to a fairly broad coverage. The courses are also demanding intensified professional studies and emphasis on the development and assessment of skills. Those students who are preparing for work in secondary schools, usually take methodology studies in two subjects and major academic studies are pursued to a substantial level.

The structure of the courses varies. There is some tendency towards thematic and integrated approaches with an attempt to achieve a cohesive programme with close inter-relationship between theory and practice.

(2) By taking a degree other than the Bachelor of Education, and then completing a post-graduate Certificate of Education lasting one year. These courses are available in universities, polytechnics or other higher education institutions.

Because graduates have already completed at least 3 years of subject studies in their degree, the post-graduate courses include education and professional studies, curriculum methodology and supervised teaching practice, the last taking up about one-third of the course. The content generally is orientated towards the

age ranges the graduates intend to teach.

Training of Teachers for Pupils with Special Educational Needs

Teachers in special schools, with certain exceptions, are required to have qualified teacher status. Teachers of blind, deaf or partially hearing children must also possess one or more other qualification required by the Secretary of State and must obtain one of these qualifications within three years of taking up a post in a special school, and before taking up a post in a partially hearing unit.

Most of the courses leading to those additional qualifications require one year's full-time in-service study, albeit the Diploma of the College of Teacher of the Blind and the National College of Teacher of the Deaf are gained through part-time study while teaching in a special school.

Manchester University's Department of Audiology also offers a four-year B.A. course combining a study of deafness, teacher training and the special qualifications.

The pattern of training for teachers of mentally handicapped children differs from that prevailing in other special education fields, in that one-year post-graduate and three- or four-year undergraduate initial training courses are available at colleges or departments of education, which in addition to general preparation for teaching include a substantial element of special educational work and relevant practical experience in special schools (62).

Taking into account the advice from the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers (ACSET), the Government intends that,

"an introduction to the subject of special needs should form part of the initial teacher training of all new teachers... Although all teachers should be aware of the implications of special education needs only a minority will need to become specialists. Specialist qualifications should be acquired after initial training and a period of experience; the Government will pursue the substitution of in-service courses for the existing specialist initial training courses. For those teachers who intend to teach in special schools or classes, or to undertake comparable responsibilities, the appropriate form of training should be a one-year full-time course or the part-time equivalent..." (63).

Induction Training

Regarding new teachers, it has long been recognised that they need to continue their training after taking up their first appointment, not because their initial training is in any way inadequate, but because certain aspects of teaching can be imparted only after a teacher has assumed full responsibility in a post.

The induction period or probationary year of all new teachers was, from 1978, subjected to a statutory requirement that 25 per cent of the time should be devoted to study and wider experience of classroom teaching.

In-Service Training

In relation to in-service training, the great majority of courses in England and Wales are short courses organised locally by education authorities, as the employers of most teachers (64).

In 1983 the Government introduced a scheme of grants to encourage teachers for in-service training in certain priority areas. For 1985-86 the priority areas are: management training; mathematics and science teaching; special needs in ordinary schools; pre-vocational education; craft, design and technology teaching; in Wales training in Welsh language teaching; and a special training programme to support the introduction of the G.C.S.E. (65).

There is also a national programme of short courses organised by H.M. Inspectorate which bring together for periods of from two to ten days groups of teachers with relevant experience for discussion of teaching techniques and fresh approaches to the curriculum.

Longer full-time or part-time courses leading to advanced qualifications are provided mainly in university departments or in other higher education institutions.

There are also about 550 teachers' centres which are financed and organised by local education authorities which main function is to bring groups of teachers together to study curriculum development (66).

A wide variety of in-service courses exist for teachers who are working, or intend to take up work, with handicapped children. These vary from the very short course to the one year full-time course, and from the general course aimed at preparing teachers to work with a wide range of disabilities to the specialist course related to a particular handicap.

(g) University Education

The universities are in principle autonomous institutions. The Government exercises its responsibilities in relation to the universities through the University Grants Committee which is an all-United Kingdom body.

There are now 36 universities in England and Wales (including the University of Buckingha, but excluding the Open University to which separate reference will be made) and eight in Scotland compared with 17 in England and Wales and five in Scotland in 1939. The University of Buckingham which receives no assistance from public funds, the main sources of income being from students' fees and donations, began course in 1976. The Royal Charter was granted in

1983, giving it power to award its own degrees. Most of the degree courses last two years which is particularly valuable for mature students (67). The English universities are: Aston (1)(Birmingham), Bath (1), Birmingham, Bradford (1), Bristol, Brunel (1)(London), Buckingham (1), Cambridge, City (1)(London), Durham, East Anglia (1), Essex (1), Exeter, Hull, Keele, Kent at Canterbury, Lancaster (1), Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, London, Loughborough (1) Manchester, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Nottingham, Oxford, Reading, Salford (1), Sheffield, Southampton, Surrey (1), Sussex (1), Warwick and York,(1). The Federal University of Wales includes five university colleges, the Welsh National School of Medicine, and the University of Wales Institute of Science and Technology. The Scottish universities are: Aberdeen, Dundee (1), Edinburgh, Glasgow, Heriot Watt (1) (Edinburgh), St. Andrews, Stirling (1) and Strathclyde (1) (Glasgow). In Northern Ireland there is the Queen's University of Belfast, and the new University of Ulster in Coleraine.

The universities of Oxford and Cambridge date from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and the Scottish universities of St. Andrews, Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. All the other universities were founded in the nineteenth or twentieth centuries.

Admission to universities is by examination and selection; there is no religious test and no colour, nationality or sex bar, though in practice there are about twice as many men as women.

The general entrance requirements of English universities are at least five passes in the General Certificate of Education, including two at Advanced level (68).

(1) A university since 1960.

At Oxford most candidates take the colleges entrance examinations, but a few are admitted on the basis of 'A' levels. At Cambridge the colleges entrance examination is only one of a number of methods of entry.

Prospective candidates for nearly all the universities in England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland apply for places through the Universities Central Council on Admissions (U.C.C.A.). The only students to apply directly are applicants to the Open University, University of Buckingham, and to the Cranfield Institute of Technology.

At Oxford and Cambridge admission is to one of the colleges and not the university, and in addition, candidates for Oxford must complete the Oxford Colleges' application form and those for Cambridge must submit a preliminary application form to the college of their first choice (69).

Applicants for post-graduate studies apply directly to the university of their choice.

Most students at university are undergraduates (81.5%). Over 90 per cent of home full-time undergraduate students in university receive grants (from LEA in England, in Scotland by the Scottish Education Department, some are made by the Ministry of Defence, Industry, etc.). Post-graduate students can receive awards from the Department of Education and Science, Scottish Education Department, one of the five Research councils, or, for some courses, LEA.

There were over 30,000 full-time university teachers paid wholly from university funds. The ratio of staff to students was about one to eight, one of the most favourable in the world.

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine, dentistry and veterinary science

five or six years are required.

The titles of degrees may vary from one university to another. In most universities, the first degree in Arts is the B.A. (Bachelor of Arts), and in the sciences B.Sc. (Bachelor of Science). At Oxford and Cambridge the first degree is called a B.A. whether the course is leading to it is in arts or science subjects. In the five older Scottish universities the M.A. (Master of Arts) is the first degree in the arts faculty; and B.Sc. in science. Other degree titles include B.Arch. (Bachelor of Architecture), B.Eng. (Bachelor of Engineering), and B.V.Sc. (Bachelor of Veterinary Science).

At most universities there are two kinds of degree: an "honours" degree which is taken by most students and which is traditionally more specialised, and an "ordinary" or "general" degree which usually covers a wider range of subjects. Another type of degree which is being introduced into some universities is the "modular" degree which allows students to choose whichever courses he would like to study, provided that they are generally relevant to each other.

A post-graduate student may undertake one or more years' guided study or research leading to post graduate qualifications. Masterships (such as M.A., M.Phil., LL.M.) are usually awarded after at least one or two years' study, except at the five Scottish universities where the M.A. is, as noted above, the first arts degree, and at Oxford and Cambridge, where the M.A. is available to all holders of the B.A. without further examination, provided a certain period - seven years at Oxford, five or six at Cambridge - has elapsed since the students' first entry into the university (70).

Several universities also award a B.Phil (Bachelor of Philosophy) as a post graduate research degree.

Doctorates are of two main kinds, the Ph.D. (Doctor of Philosophy) which is awarded after at least two or three years' study on the basis of a thesis embodying original research, and higher doctorate, such as D.Sc. (Doctor of Science) L.L.D. (Doctor of Laws) and D.Litt (Doctor of Literature) which are usually awarded in recognition of an outstanding contribution to a particular field.

In relation to uniformity of standards between universities it is promoted by the practice of employing outside examiners for all university examination (the form of examination taken at the end of the degree course, of the year or of the module, is traditionally a written test, supplemented, where appropriate, by oral examination), and the general pattern of teaching (a combination of lectures, small group seminars or tutorials with practical classes where necessary) is fairly similar throughout Britain.

The universities make use of the teaching and learning aids provided by radio and television and of the other visual aids. Teaching machines and language laboratories are also used, as are computer-assisted and computer-managed learning techniques. All universities have access to computers for educational and research purposes, and most of them have closed circuit television.

The Open University

The idea of a University of the Air in the United Kingdom originated a long time before the Open University was established; it goes back to 1926 when a wireless university was mooted within the B.B.C. by Mr. J.C. Sobart; in 1946 the same idea occurred to Sir G. Catlin; in 1961 the ITA published a pamphlet by Professor G. Wedell on it; and in 1962 Dr. M. Young, Head of Labour Party Research wrote an article on an Open University. Plans between

the B.B.C. and the Ministry of Education for a College of the Air were also considered (71).

However, today's Open University was conceived in 1963 by Harold Wilson, at this time Leader of the Labour Opposition; and later in 1963 the idea was put in a campaign speech in Glasgow where H. Wilson described his idea of a University of the Air (as it was called at this time), a home study university which could employ radio and television as an integrated part of its teaching system and whose principal purpose would be to increase the number of graduate teachers and qualified scientists, and technologists (72).

In 1964 the University of the Air appeared in the Labour Manifesto for the general election; and when Labour came into power Miss Janice Lee as a Junior Minister in the Department of Education and Science was asked to take special responsibility for the University of the Air project. Miss Lee played a notable part in the birth of the Open University as a university.

An Advisory Committee of twelve members was established under the Chairmanship of Miss Lee. The first report of this Committee in 1966, on describing the university said,

"In the educational world, as elsewhere, technological discoveries are making a profound impact. Television and radio, programmed learning and a wide range of audio-visual aids have already brought about considerable changes. The most important, undoubtedly, is that the best of our teachers can now be made available to vastly wider audiences. A distinguished lecturer that at one time might have been heard only by a handful of students, or a few hundred at most, can now be broadcast to millions of listeners. It has, therefore, become possible for the first time to think in terms of a University of the Air.

A substantial network of educational institutions provide higher and further education for both full-time and part-time students. But opportunities can be still further enlarged to meet the needs of many not attracted by traditional institutions or unable for a variety of reasons to take advantage of them.

The Government believes that by imaginative use of new teaching techniques and teacher/student relationships, an open university providing degree courses as rigorous and demanding as those in existing universities can be established.

Its purpose will be three-fold. It will contribute to the improvement of educational, cultural and professional standards generally by making available to all who care to look and listen, scholarship of a higher order.

Secondly, a minority of those showing general interest will want to accept the full disciplines of study and make use of all the facilities offered. These students will be enabled to acquire degrees and other qualifications as described in the Report of the Advisory Committee that follows.

Thirdly, it will have much to contribute to students in many other parts of the world as well as those studying in the United Kingdom. In the developing countries in particular, there is an urgent need not only for elementary education but for a highly trained corps of men and women, equipped to provide leadership in national life.

From the outset it must be made clear that there can be no question of offering to students a make-shift project inferior in quality to other universities. That would defeat its whole purpose, as its status will be determined by the quality of its teaching.

Its aim will be to provide, in addition to television and radio lectures, correspondence courses of a quality unsurpassed anywhere in the world. This will be reinforced by residential courses and tutorials.

At a time when scarce capital resources must, in the national interest, be allocated with the greatest prudence, an open university could provide higher and further education for those unable to take advantage of courses in existing colleges and universities. And it could do so without requiring vast capital sums to be spent on bricks and mortar.

Nor would its courses conflict in any way with teaching now provided in W.E.A. and other adult education centres, colleges of further education or on B.B.C. and I.T.A. educational programmes. On the contrary, those who left school at an early stage would have an added incentive to equip themselves by such means for higher study" (73).

This Report also considered the degree the university should offer, services and agencies that the university might use, and an organisational framework. Also here was suggested that the

university should be not under the University Grants Committee but under the Department of Education and Science.

The next move was the establishment of a Planning Committee in 1967 which took two very important decisions: the adoption of a January–December academic year, and the adoption of a system of course credits.

The Committee decided to contract the B.B.C. to provide the production and transmission services for the university. The agreement established 30 hours a week for T.V. add 30 for radio. The T.V. programmes between 5.30 and 7.30 on weekday evenings and during the day in weekends (74).

The Committee also gave the university its governmental structure and before presenting its report on 31.12.68 made two very important appointments, Professor W. Perry as the first Vice-Chancellor and A.Christodoulou as a University Secretary.

In the early months of 1969 the university received its Royal Charter as an independent institution authorised to confer its own degrees. The Charter was ceremonially presented in the rooms of the Royal Society on 23.7.69 and there Lord G. Crowther was inducted as the first Chancellor. In his address at the Royal Society he described what the Open University is about in the following terms:

"We are open, first, as to people, not for us the carefully regulated escalation from one educational level to the next by which the traditional universities establish their criteria for admission.

The first and most urgent task before us is to cater for the many thousands of people, fully capable of a higher education, who, for one reason or another, do not get it, or do not get as much of it as they can turn to advantage, or as they discover, sometimes too late, that they need. Only in recent years have we come to realise how many such people there are, and how large are the gaps in educational provision through which they can fall. The existing system for all its expansion, misses and leaves aside a great unused reservoir of human talent and potential. Men and women drop out through failures in the

system, through disadvantages of their environment, through mistakes of their own judgement, through sheer bad luck.

These are our primary material. To them we offer a further opportunity.

But if this were all, we could hardly call ourselves a university. This is not simply an educational rescue mission - though that is our first task, and we do not decry it. But we also aim wide and higher. Wherever there is an unprovided need for higher education, supplementing the existing provision, there is our constituency....

The Open University is not the rival of the existing universities. It is designed to take over where they are compelled to leave off...

We are open as to places. This university has no cloisters - a word meaning closed. Hardly ever shall we have a campus. By a very happy chance, our only local habitation will be in the new city that is to bear two of the widest-ranging names in the history of English thought, Milton Keynes. But this is only where the tip of our toe touches ground. The rest of the university will be disembodied and airborne. From the start, it will flow all over the United Kingdom....

We are open as to method. We start in dependence on, and in grateful partnership with, the B.B.C. But already the development of technology is marching on, and I predict that before long actual broadcasting will form only a small part of the university's output. The world is caught in a Communication Revolution...

Every new form of human communication will be examined to see how it can be used to rise and broaden the level of human understanding....

We are open, finally, to ideas. It has been said that there are two aspects of education, both necessary. One regards the individual human mind as a vessel of varying capacity, into which is to be poured as much as it will hold of the knowledge and experience by which human society lives and moves. This is the Martha of education and we shall have plenty of these tasks to perform. But the many regards the human mind more as a fire that has to be set alight and blown with the divine efflatus. That also we take as our ambition.." (75).

In relation to the siting of the university, in March 1969, the choice had been Walton Hall - one mile from the centre of Milton Keynes. The grounds extend over 70 acres where the university buildings were constructed and officially opened on 18.5.70.

But development was not only confined to the Milton Keynes campus but to the regional offices too. The country was divided initially into 12 regions and later a thirteenth region was formed: London; South (with headquarters in Oxford); South West (Bristol); West Midlands (Birmingham); East Midlands (Nottingham); East Anglia (Cambridge); Yorkshire (Leeds); North West (Manchester); North (Newcastle-upon-Tyne); Wales (Cardiff); Scotland (Edinburgh); Northern Ireland (Belfast); South East (East Grinstead) (76).

Each of these regions have its own Regional Director and its own administrative and secretarial staff and they provide local services for enquirers, applicants and students. Here there are too, Senior Counsellors and Staff Tutors. The first gives the student general advice, and the second is responsible for the academic teaching within a given course. They have played an essential role in interpreting the courses to tutors and students and establishing a link from tutors and students to the central academics.

The direct contact with students is maintained by a big group of part-time counsellors and tutors.

The recruitment of academic staff was at the rate of four per 'discipline' and the first group appointed were in post in the second half of 1969 because the decision of admitting the first students in January 1971 had been taken.

The university decided to admit 25,000 students at this time, and this assumption was close to the mark, 24,220 students were provisionally registered.

The university has an open admission, but for obvious reasons, the university has established into the selection procedure certain parameters for instance, equality in the number of students accepted in each faculty, the selection by region of the country, age and sex, etc.

The Open University has taken as a challenge the admission of handicapped students. In 1973, there was about 400 handicapped students attending summer schools and it is the first university to provide special facilities for deaf students; blind students have also received enormous help (77).

In spite of the Open University having been designed for mature students in full employment (over 21 year olds), during its first year of operation the university was confronted with the problem that the country needed university places for the eighteen-year olds. The opinions were divided, but the university agreed to admit five hundred eighteen-year olds in 1974 and 1975 as a pilot experiment. (But the relatively small number of applicants and their relatively poor results show that this is not a priority area for university level education at a distance.) (78).

The first graduation ceremony was held in 1973. Honorary degrees were given to a number of those who had made notable contributions to the university and to any one who had contributed so much to the education of underprivileged, the Latin American educationist, Paolo Freire.

In spite that in the first times the Open University was regarded as an institution that would teach primarily using T. V. and radio broadcasts, the written word remains paramount. It takes different forms, for instance:

- (1) Course - materials composed of booklets very well designed, illustrated and well printed.
- (2) Supplementary material which may include supporting notes for the broadcast programme; stop press items, errata, corrigenda slips, explanations of difficult material earlier sent, etc. But the bulk of this is broadcasting notes and assignments.

- (3) Books that students are required to buy, and that the Open University have negotiated with the book-trade in relation to availability, price, etc.
- (4) Background reading or lists of recommended reading, which give to students lists of cheap books readily available; sometimes books out of print but which students can consult in libraries (these books are not compulsory but only a valuable enrichment), etc.

- Broadcasting is the second medium used by the Open University; unfortunately it is a very expensive medium. In spite of T.V. accounting for around 5 per cent of the time taken when studying Open University courses, it takes 20 per cent of the total expenditure of the university (79).

- Another medium is the study centres. There are about 300 of them (80) and they offer a varied set of facilities, for instance:

- (a) Here students have the opportunity to meet and learn from one another;
- (b) these centres provide facilities for seeing and hearing programmes together;
- (c) in these centres students have the opportunity for regular consultation with a counsellor and occasional encounters with a tutor.

- The Open University also runs the summer schools which give to students the major opportunity to meet with one another and with expert tutors. All students taking a foundation course have to attend a week's summer school.

The summer school has two main objectives: to give students a chance for a real university experience, and to serve as remedial source.

In the words of W. Parry (first Vice-Chancellor of the Open University),

"the summer schools still remain one of the most exhilarating of all Open University experiences, both for the staff who are concerned with them and for the students themselves.... At the end of each summer there is nothing but enthusiasm for the continuance of summer schools... There are many students who enjoy them not only for their academic content but for the social occasion that presents itself. They are away from the constraints of their homes and are free to indulge in both work and play to the fullest possible extent..."(a1).

But the basic help to students is given by the correspondence tutor and this represents a major part of the system. Tutors are supervised by staff tutors.

In relation to assessment the Open University courses have continuous assessment based on written work submitted during the academic year and in order to avoid the fact that students have the possibility of receiving outside help, every course is completed by a three hours examination. These final examinations are held in examination centres throughout the country in October and November. Some undergraduate courses require students to undertake project work (82). The Open University uses two kinds of assignments, computer marked assignments and tutor-marked assignments.

The results of all this evaluation are sent to an examining board, which contains external examiners.

In order to distribute its courses the Open University makes use of a network of existing systems of communication.

Firstly, the Open University used the B.B.C. which reaches over 95 per cent of the population.

Secondly, the Open University uses the Post Office which, in spite of the high cost of its services, delivers letters on time.

Thirdly, the Open University (its students) use the very highly developed system of public libraries and the system of inter-library loans.

Fourthly, the Open University uses telephone for teaching purposes when tutor and student are far apart.

Regarding the government structure of the Open University it is not essentially different from that of other universities. Power is shared between two bodies: Council and Senate. The governing body is the Council, responsible for the conduct of all university affairs, especially and particularly for financial matters.

The Council consists of the university officers and is formed by the Chancellor, Pro-Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and Treasurer, the Chairman of the Academic Advisory Committee, four members appointed by the Privy Council, three members appointed by the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, three members representative of Local Education Authorities and one of Education authorities in Scotland, one members appointed by the Royal Society, one member appointed by the B.B.C., the Pro-Vice-Chancellors, six members appointed by the Senate, two representatives of the part-time teaching staff and two of the students, and a few coopted members. The University Secretary is naturally Secretary to the Council.

Academic matters are under the responsibility of the Senate, which is well represented on the Council.

The internal working of the university is under the responsibility of two boards: the Academic Board (a Committee of Senate) and the Planning Board (a Committee of Council and Senate).

To service the several parts of the university, Council and Senate, boards and committees there is a regular regiment of assistant secretaries and administrative assistants.

There are also a number of professional associations, for instance, the Association of University Teachers. Students have the Students Association, which has no part in the government structure. There are also Regional Consultative Committees, and a Central

Consultative Committee, where it is possible to discuss and make suggestions to the University body in matters of interest to students, full-time academic staff and part-time tutorial and counselling staff. There is also the General Assembly, which meets once a year and where full-time and part-time staff and students are represented (83).

In sum it can be said that today the Open University is widely regarded as one of Britain's major success stories in recent years; it has gained acceptance in this country, international reputation and has been used as a model by many other countries (the university has a consultancy service to make its advice and facilities available on a fee-paying but non-profit-making basis to bodies throughout the world interested in "teaching at a distance" projects).

The Open University teaches "at a distance"; the students are "independent learners" working at home. They receive teaching materials, and return their work by post. The specially written and designed texts, with television, video, radio, audio, teleconferencing, practical experimental work, are delivered to students where they live.

Today the B.B.C. produces about 250 25 minute T.V. and 300 20 minute sound programmes (radio and audio-cassettes) per year in partnership with the Open University which are transmitted nationally on B.B.C. 1, B.B.C. 2 and V.H.F. Radio 3 and 4.

According to K. Harry,

"during 1981 teaching period the BBC transmitted 35 hours and 25 minutes weekly on TV and 19 hours 40 minutes on radio" (84).

The radio transmission has recently decreased because of the increased use of audio cassettes for which the Open University operates a borrowing service.

The Open University has an entirely new entrance policy, operating on a "first come, first served" basis, and no formal entrance qualifications are required. Any adult resident in the United Kingdom may apply. With a small number of exceptions students are aged 21 or over and there is no maximum age limit; the median is around 30. More than half are in the 25-35 age groups. The large majority are in full-time employment. All Open University students are part-time.

The Open University has an unusual timetable; the academic year is from January to December with final examinations in November. There are no terms or semesters, there are no lectures and no conventional timetable classes.

The Open University offers three teaching programmes: for undergraduates, postgraduates and associate students.

The first one leads to a general degree designated a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree.

For admission to this programme no formal educational qualifications are required; one only has to be 21 years of age and resident in the United Kingdom.

The degree is obtained through gaining credits, six for a B.A. degree and eight for a B.A. Honours degree. A credit is obtained on completion of a one-year course and a maximum of two credits per year is permitted.

Open University courses have four levels: foundation, second, third and fourth. All students must complete a foundation course (the exception is Educational Studies whose courses begin at second level) and after it students can make up their own programme of study.

Second level courses have a wide choice of subject matter and third and fourth level courses are more specialised.

In 1982 the undergraduate programme offered 134 courses drawn from nearly thirty disciplines to which a total of 45,882 applications were received (the places numbered only 24,600). Since the Open University began over 500,000 applications have been received and 160,428 students have finally registered. In 1981, 59,968 students were enrolled on undergraduate courses (85).

The second programme, the post-graduate programme leads to the degrees of B.Phil., M.Phil., and Ph.D. which are obtained on completion of a programme of research or advanced study and submission of a dissertation or thesis. In 1981 there was a total of 694 registered post-graduate students at the Open University.

The third programme is the Associate Programme which has been designed primarily for adults who wish to extend their knowledge of their own career or to acquire knowledge of a new field without embarking on a full degree programme. Students can work towards a Course Certificate obtained after approval by the continuous assessment and examination, or a Letter of Course Completion obtained after approval by the continuous assessment.

The programme offers courses in the following areas: Community Education course; In-Service Teacher Training course; Health and Social Welfare courses; Technological Updating Materials; Management Education; courses drawn from the undergraduate programme and courses in historical, cultural and political subjects.

In 1981 this programme received 7,478 registrations (49 per cent resulted in the award of a Course Certificate and 13 per cent in a Letter Course Completion). The drop-out rate was 38 per cent, but it has been noted before that many of the students had enrolled on these courses with no intention of completing the assessment (86).

The Open University has no student campus. Students never

come together on a permanent campus. Local tuition groups, and in some cases weekend or one-week residential schools are backed by a national and regional organisation designed to support students' learning, wherever they may be.

Because the Open University presents administrative problems of a scale and complexity rarely previously faced in British Higher education it is computer-based. The computer is responsible for students' records in all their forms, for admissions procedure, for the marking of computer-marked assignments, for the evaluation of a student's results, for financial calculations, and much else (87).

Currently the Open University has more than 100,000 students. In the past ten years some 60,000 people have earned degrees and another 250,000 have benefitted from taking one or more single courses.

In relation to costs, the Open University is financed from public funds. Approximately 82 per cent of its funding comes from the Department of Education and Science, 16 per cent from students' fees and 2 per cent from sales of course materials and other sources. (An exception to it is The Centre for Continuing Education which is required to be self-financing.)

The economics of the Open University have been extensively studied and it has shown the following figures: average cost per student per year was about one third that of the cost in conventional British universities, and the cost per graduate was about one half that of conventional universities (88).

Open University courses are assessed with the rigour common to all universities, and because of this Open University courses and degrees are accepted on equal terms by all other higher educational institutions in Britain.

(h) Adult Education

Adult education is generally taken to mean courses of post-school education outside the main areas of higher, professional and technical education. It is provided by local education authorities, certain residential colleges, the adult education (extramural) departments of universities and various voluntary and statutory bodies.

A major part of adult education is financed by local education authorities and provided mainly in their establishments including schools (used for adult evening classes). Most of the courses are part-time. In addition, local education authorities maintain or aid most of the short-term residential colleges or centres, of which there are 45 in England and Wales, and which provide courses varying in length between a weekend and a fortnight. Many of the courses are practical, but there are wide spread opportunities for academic study.

Long term residential colleges (six in England and Wales) which are grant-aided by the central government departments, provide courses of one or two years, some of which lead to a diploma. The colleges aim to provide a liberal education and do not apply academic entry tests.

Some thirty universities have departments of adult education or "extra-mural" studies. Some courses are organised by the universities in close association with district councils of the Workers' Education Association (W.E.A.), a voluntary association which also employs some full-time organising tutors and a large number of part-time tutors (89). No formal academic qualifications are prescribed for admission to these classes, nor do they lead to degrees, diplomas or certificates. Most courses are in art subjects or are concerned with contemporary social problems, but increasing

attention is given to science subjects.

There are four types of courses: three year "tutorial" classes (with individual supervision by specially appointed teachers); one year "sessional" classes, long "terminal" classes (10 to 12 meetings) and short "terminal" classes (6 meetings) of a less intensive character. The Universities Council for Adult Education (U.C.A.E.) provides the channel through which the universities are represented on the Council of the National Institute of Adult Education (England and Wales). This Council provides a focus for formulation of common policy on extra-mural education (90).

The Department of Defence, includes adult education in the educational services provided for members of the Navy, Army and Air Force. It works in cooperation with other bodies all of which admit members of the Forces to courses open to the general public, or arranges special courses for them. To look after members of the Forces who are unable to attend organised courses in person, the Defence Department also maintains a scheme of correspondence courses (91).

There are a large number of other organisations (national and local) which provide many kinds of education and training. Several non-political bodies, such as the National Federation of Women's Institutes and the National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, receive government grants; other are commercially or privately financed. Some make their facilities available to the public as a whole, others to a particular group, such as the disabled or the unemployed, or the employees or members of an organisation.

In recent years there has been a development of community schools and colleges and community centres. The two first are secondary schools designed to serve also as cultural community centres, providing educational, social and cultural opportunities

for the whole community. Community centres have a more social character and, though aided financially by the local education authorities, are usually managed by voluntary community associations.

The National Institute of Adult Education provides a national centre of information, research and publication for adult education, as well as a channel of co-operation and consultation for the many interested organisations in England and Wales. It is mainly financed by contributions from local education authorities and assisted by a grant from the Department of Education and Science.

The National Institute of Adult Education has created an Adult Literacy Resource Agency to administer the funds which the Government is making available to assist local education authorities and other organisations working to combat adult illiteracy.

The Youth Service

In the second half of the nineteenth century there began the provision of organised educational, social and recreative facilities for young people. It was made possible very largely by voluntary organisations which received little or no aid from public funds, until November 1939 where the British Government decided that responsibility for youth welfare was to be undertaken by the Board of Education. The Board set up a National Youth Committee and urged all the local education authorities for Higher Education to set up local Youth Committees. This joint responsibility has been maintained.

By the Education Act 1944 it became a part of Further Education.

Years later the Government set up a Youth Service Development Council and established a National College for the Training of Youth Leaders.

The central direction of the Youth Service remains with the Department of Education and Science, and the local administration with the local education authority. The main bodies providing the

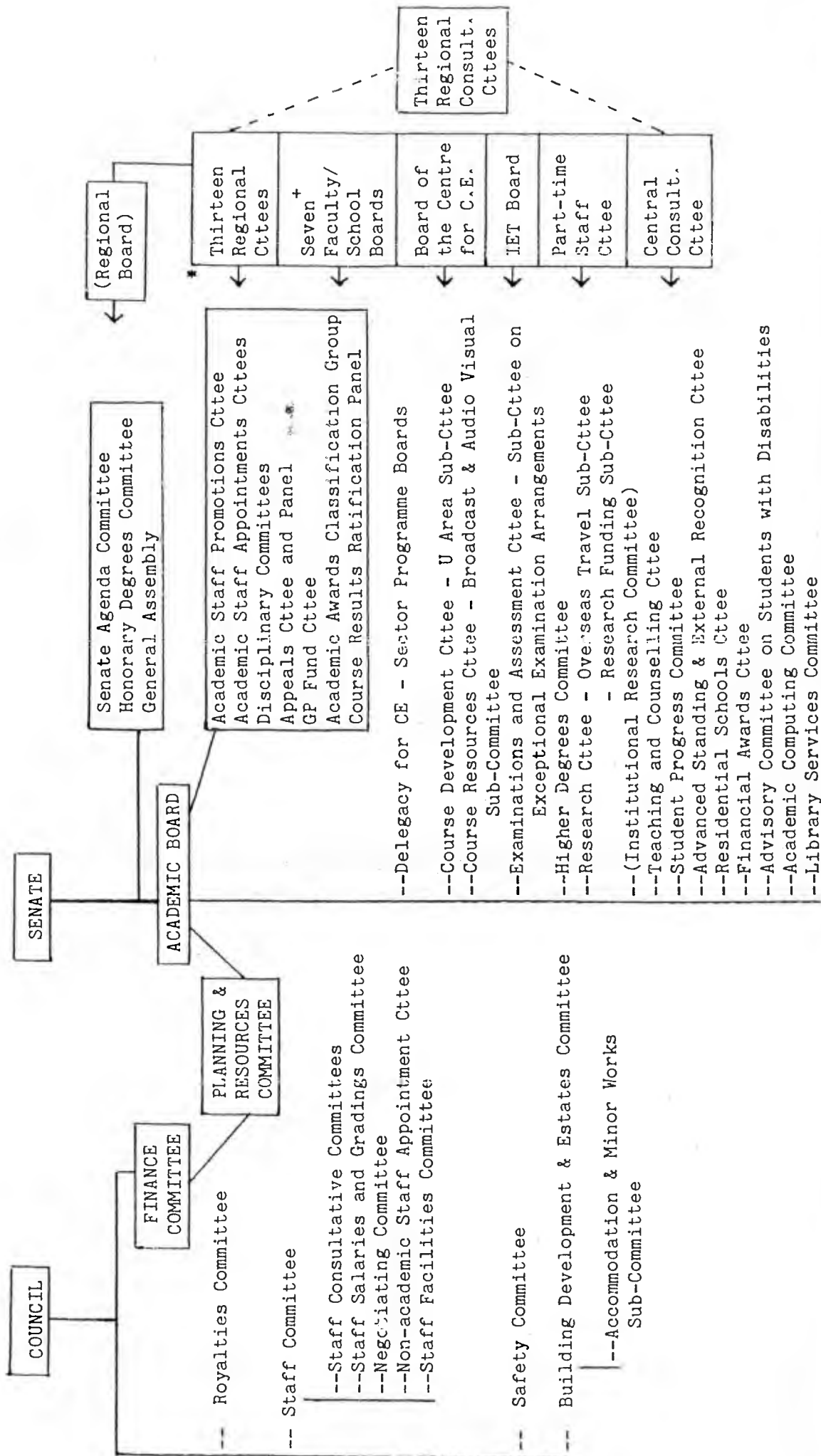
services can be grouped as follows:

- Local Education Authorities;
- Uniformed Voluntary Institutions, for instance, the Scouts Association, the Girl Guides Association, the Boys' Brigade; Army Cadet Force Association, the Church Lads' Brigade; the Girls' Brigade, St. John Ambulance Brigade, etc.
- Nonuniformed "club" organisations providing a general range of facilities, for example, the National Association of Youth Clubs, the National Association of Boys' Clubs, Y.M.C.A. Boys' Work-Section, Y.M.C.A., Welsh Association of Youth Clubs, etc.
- Non-uniformed organisations pursuing particular purposes or activities, for instance, Community Service Volunteers, Duke of Edinburgh's Award, International Voluntary Service, National Youth Theatre, National Federation of Youth Farmers' Clubs, Welsh League of Youth, Youth Hostels Association, etc. (92).

All these and other associations are represented in England on the National Council for Voluntary Youth Services, a body which exists to promote and sustain the interest of all, and in particular to present their views to the Department of Education and Science; and the Council for Wales of Voluntary Youth Services which undertakes a similar function for Wales.

In October 1982 the Review Groups on the Youth Service in England presented a Report to the Government in which the need for better management and more efficient use of resources in the Youth Service was stressed. In July 1984 the Government's response was announced. In it the Government proposed the establishment of

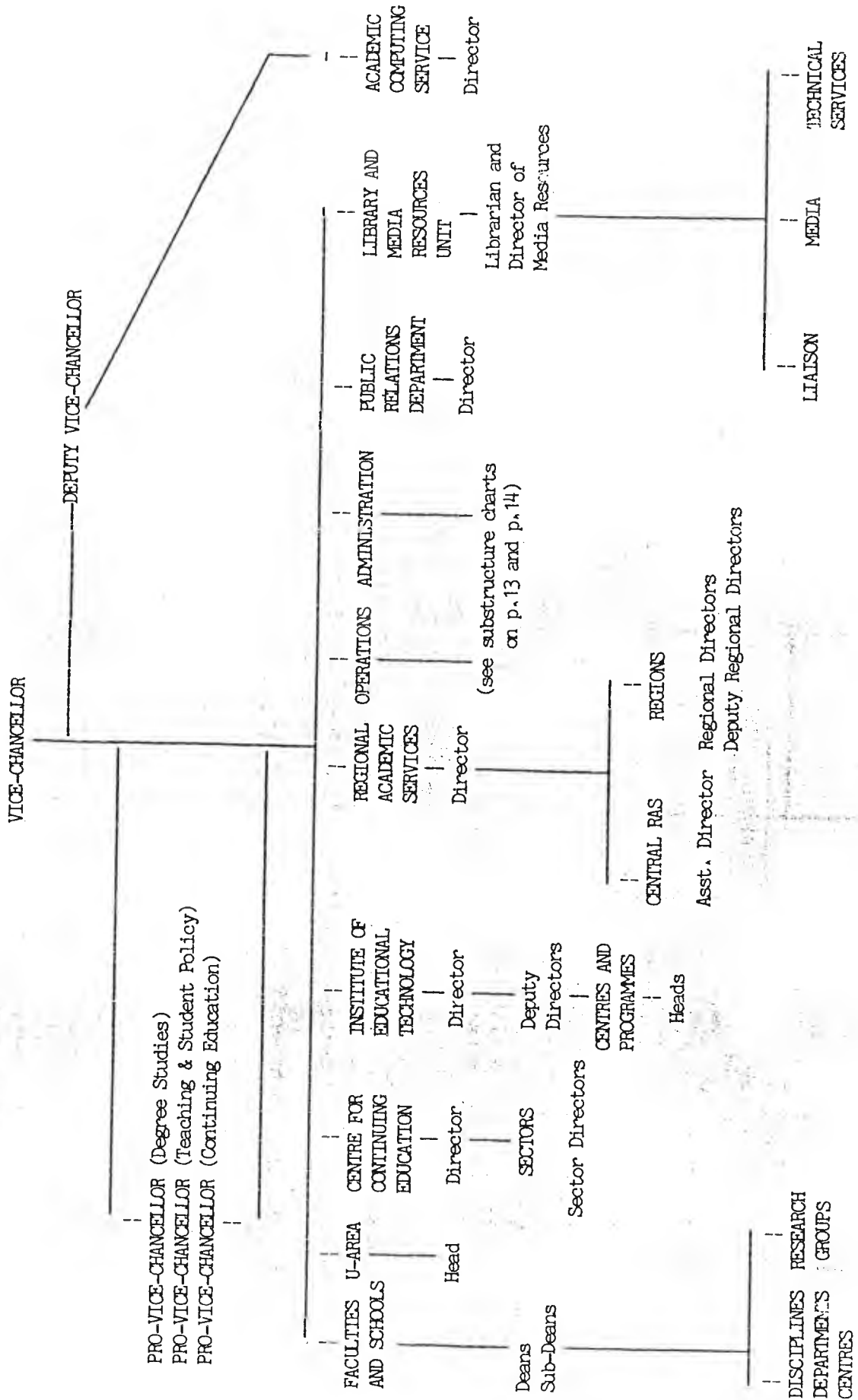
UNIVERSITY GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE



*The bodies listed in this box (and the Regional Board) have direct access, as required, to any of the committees in the Senate substructure (and to the Senate and the Academic Board when necessary).

†From 1.10.87. when School of Management is established.

UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE



Sub-Librarian Sub-Librarian Sub-Librarian

OPERATIONS SUB-STRUCTURE

VICE-CHANCELLOR

DIRECTOR OF OPERATIONS

DEPUTY DIRECTOR OF OPERATIONS

DIRECTORATE

DIRECTOR OF PUBLISHING SERVICES

PUBLISHING SERVICES

HEAD OF DESIGN

GRAPHIC DESIGN

DIRECTOR OF PRODUCTION

LEARNING MATERIALS PRODUCTION
Audio Visual
Print & Repographic Services
Print Procurement

MANAGER WELLINGBOURGH WAREHOUSE

WELLINGBOURGH WAREHOUSE

MANAGER CORRESPONDENCE SERVICES

CORRESPONDENCE SERVICES

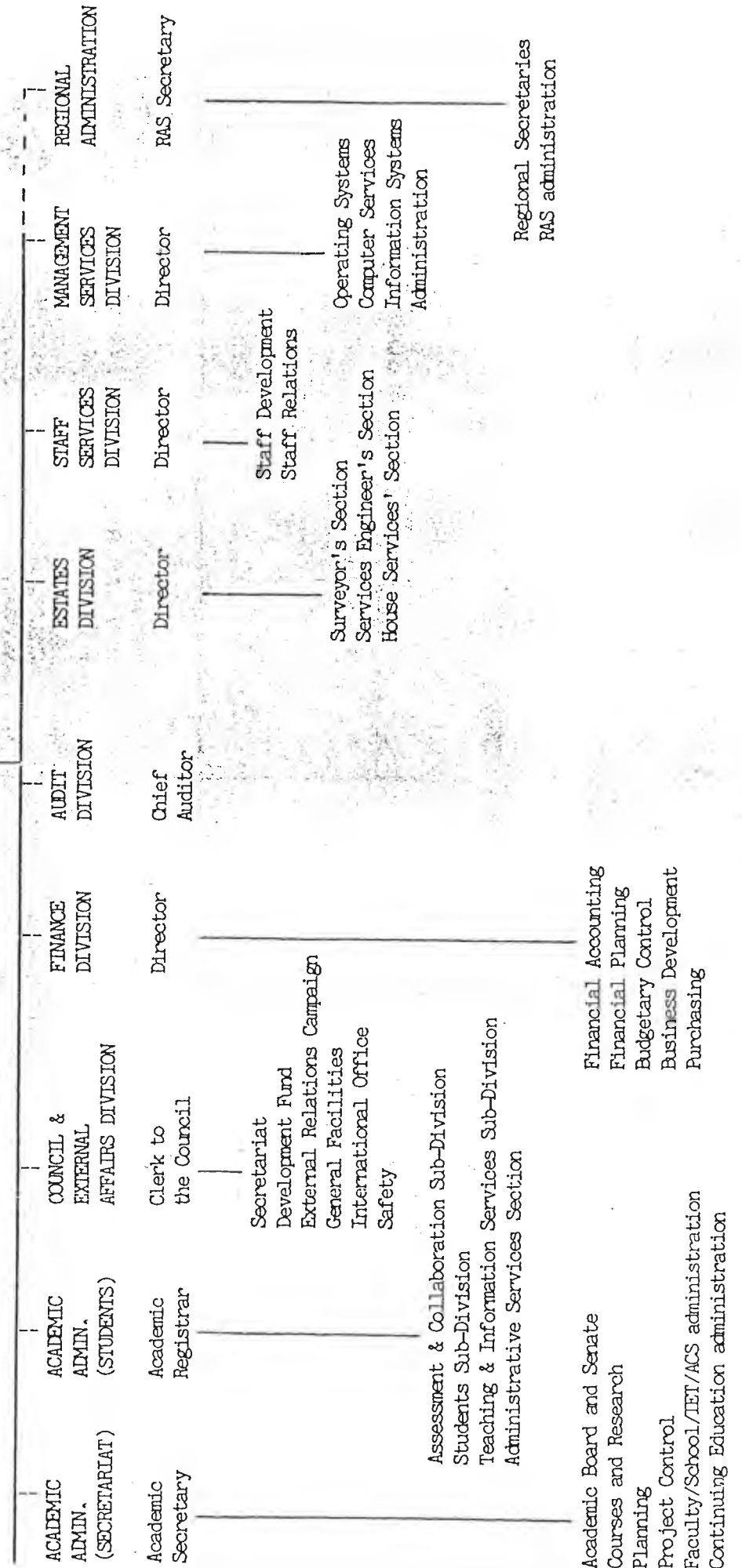
SUMMER SCHOOLS EQUIPMENT OFFICER

SUMMER SCHOOLS WAREHOUSE

ADMINISTRATIVE SUB-STRUCTURE

VICE-CHANCELLOR

SECRETARY



a national advisory body on Youth Service matters and additional grant aid.

In Wales, H.M. Inspectorate carried out a survey of the Welsh Youth Service and published it in February 1984. In May 1985 the Minister of State (at the Welsh Office) announced the setting up of the Wales Youth Partnership with the aim of providing an infrastructure for the coordination and development of youth work practice with emphasis on training and the dissemination of information (93).

Permanent Education and the England and Wales
Experience: Some Reflections

If the English and Welsh educational system is analysed, it is not possible to say that it is based on the principles of permanent education. However if one looks into the system's historical background it can be seen that as early as 1919 the term permanent education appeared in an Adult Education Report (as stated in Chapter Two). On the other hand the Education Act of 1944 established that education, "is a lifelong process organised..." (see page 144).

Looking at education in England and Wales today one can observe that considerable educational change has taken place in the last twenty years or so.

These changes included, among others, the raising of the school leaving age to 16, the reorganisation of secondary schools into comprehensives which means that now over 90 per cent of students are in these kind of schools, and changes in the teacher training system. There has been a sustained attempt to bring more efficiency to the state system of schooling, reforming school curricula and examinations, teacher performance, and educational standards.

The educational system has been largely democratised and has been an important agency in sponsoring social mobility. This system shows a capacity for gradual change, a capacity for the assimilation of new ideas and concepts in spite of preserving many of its inherited characteristics.

The climate of opinion is favourable to change in education and many of the changes envisaged, like many of the features of the existing educational scene, are along lines traced by exponents of permanent education, but undoubtedly the most relevant form of permanent education in this system is the Open University now recognised in Britain and worldwide as one of the most important educational and social developments of the century. This university adopted a pioneering role in offering a second chance to those who missed or were denied the opportunity to have a traditional university education, and for this reason the Open University has become in the major innovatory force with higher education today. Also important is the Further Education sub-system, which is so flexibly organised that a student may enter it at any level and progress within it so far as his capacity will carry him.

Having already described the provision in three other countries, the next chapter describes that in Chile.

References: Chapter Five

- (1) Elvin, Lionel, (editor), The Educational System in the European Community: A Guide, 1981, p. 225.
- (2) Dent, H.C., Education in England and Wales, Second edition, Hodder and Stoughton, London, 1982, p. 9.
- (3) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 225.
- (4) Peterson, A.D.C., A Hundred Years of Education, Third edition, Gerald Duckworth and Co. Ltd., London, 1971, p. 60.
- (5) Curtis, S.J., History of Education in Great Britain, Seventh edition, University Tutorial Press, London, 1967, pp. 325-326.
- (6) Dent, H.C. op.cit., pp. 12-13
- (7) Curtis, S.J., op.cit., p. 342.
- (8) Ibid., p. 14.
- (9) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 225.
- (10) Curtis, S.J., op.cit., p. 383.
- (11) Ibid., p. 387.
- (12) Peterson, A.D.C., op.cit., p. 61.
- (13) Evans, Keith, The Development and Structure of the English School System, Hodder and Stoughton, London, 1985, p. 129.
- (14) Dent, H.C., op.cit., p. 19.
- (15) D.E.S., The Educational System of England and Wales, September 1985, p. 5.
- (16) The Guardian, London, 21 November 1987.
- (17) Aggarwal, J.C., An Introduction to World Education, New Delhi, 1965, p. 323.
- (18) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 224.
- (19) Ibid., p. 228.
- (20) Education Act, 1944, Part I, No. 1. published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London.
- (21) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 225.
- (22) Ibid., pp. 228-229.
- (23) D.E.S., The Educational System of England and Wales, September 1985, pp. 9-10.

- (24) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 230.
- (25) Education Act, 1944, Part II, No.7.
- (26) Elvin,Lionel, op.cit., p. 22.
- (27) Education Act, 1944, Part II, Sections 13 and 68.
- (28) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 42.
- (29) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 222.
- (30) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 52.
- (31) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 235.
- (32) D.E.S., op.cit., p. 76.
- (33) Ibid., p. 24.
- (34) Dent, H.C., op.cit., p. 35.
- (35) Education Act, 1944, Part III (a).
- (36) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 28.
- (37) Ibid., p. 29.
- (38) Parry, M. and Archer, H., Pre-School Education, Macmillan, 1974, p. ix.
- (39) H.M.S.O. Better Schools, London 1985 (reprinted) p. 2.
- (40) Dent, H.C., op.cit., p. 38.
- (41) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 19.
- (42) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 125.
- (43) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 227.
- (44) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 38.
- (45) Ibid., pages 21-22 and 35.
- (46) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 232.
- (47) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 31.
- (48) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 158.
- (49) H.M.S.O., Better Schools, p. 30.
- (50) D.E.S. op.cit., pp. 33-34.
- (51) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 130.
- (52) Ibid., p. 130.
- (53) Elvin, Lionel, p. 229.

- (54) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 85.
- (55) H.M.S.O., The Further Education Act, 1985.
- (56) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., pp. 235-236.
- (57) Education Act 1944, Part II, No. 62.
- (58) Dent, H.C., op.cit., p. 168.
- (59) Ibid., p. 169.
- (60) Evans, K., op.cit., p. 245.
- (61) NATFHE, The Handbook of Degree and Advanced Courses, 1986.
- (62) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 239.
- (63) H.M.S.O., Better Schools, p. 45.
- (64) Tom Hollins, in The Education of Teachers in Britain, edited by D.E. Lomax, John Wiley and Sons, London, 1973, p. 305.
- (65) H.M.S.O., Better Schools, p. 54.
- (66) Tom Hollins, op.cit., p. 305.
- (67) D.E.S. op.cit., pp. 74 and 79.
- (68) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 240.
- (69) D.E.S. op.cit., p. 75.
- (70) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 241.
- (71) Brian MacArthur, "An Interim History of the O.U." in Tunstall, Jeremy (editor), The Open University Opens, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1974, p. 4.
- (72) Harry, Keith, "The O.U. United Kingdom" in The Distance Teaching Universities, edited by Grenville Rumble and Keith Harry, Croom Helm, London, 1982, p. 170.
- (73) Brian MacArthur, op.cit., pp. 7,8,9.
- (74) Ferguson, John, The Open University from Within, University of London Press, Ltd., 1975, p. 17.
- (75) Ibid., pp. 18-20.
- (76) The Open University: Guide for Applicants for 1986, B.A. Degree Courses. The Open University, Milton Keynes, 1986.
- (77) Ferguson, John, op.cit., pp. 109-110.
- (78) Keith Harry, op.cit., p. 171.

- (79) Perry, Walter, Open University, The Open University Press, 1976, p. 268.
- (80) Ferguson, John, op.cit., p. 91.
- (81) Perry, Walter, op.cit., pp. 118-119.
- (82) Keith Harry, op.cit., pp. 181-182.
- (83) Ferguson, John, op.cit., pp. 126-130.
- (84) Keith Harry, op.cit., p. 179.
- (85) Ibid., pp. 173-174.
- (86) Woodley, A., Wagner, L., Slowey, M., Hamilton, M., Fulton, O., Choosing to Learn, Open University Press, 1987, pp.149-150.
- (87) Ferguson, John, op.cit., p. 42.
- (88) Keith Harry, op.cit., p. 185.
- (89) D.E.S. The Educational System of England and Wales, 1980, p. 48.
- (90) Elvin, Lionel, op.cit., p. 242.
- (91) Dent, H.C., op.cit., p. 140.
- (92) Ibid., pp. 143,144,145.
- (93) D.E.S. 1985, op.cit., p. 89.

Chapter Six

CHILE
CHILEAN EDUCATION IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Latin American countries have had a common initial history but the evolution of each of them has been somewhat different in many aspects. Educationally, the differences are greater than in other aspects. Chile has throughout its history been at the forefront of 'liberal' social thought in Latin America and the translation of that thought into policy and has been considered to have one of the most advanced educational systems in Latin America. As J.P. Farrell has pointed out,

"while many Chileans have concerned themselves with trying to explain why they have not done better educationally, foreign observers more typically have tried to understand how they have managed to do so well" (1).

It is important to have some perception of the fact that as early as 1813 the provisional government enacted a statute calling for the establishment of locally supported schools for boys and girls in all towns, with more than 50 inhabitants (2). The same year the Institute National was created, making the first major educational effort of the newly independent republic.

"The institute was designed to provide general instruction for those entering civil, ecclesiastic, military and commercial professions" (3).

Chile was the first Latin American nation to establish a system of public instruction (in 1842). By 1850 the University of Chile was established (4). Elementary education was declared to be free of cost in 1860, and the same law (Organic Law of Primary Education of 1860) decreed that at least one primary school for each sex has to be established in all departments with more than 2,000 inhabitants (5). The social demand for schooling was growing and the growth in the educational system was impressive. According to E.Hamuy (6) the percentage of school-age children enrolled in

school between 1865 and 1952 was :

1865, 10.9%	1875, 17.1%	1885, 20.4%
1895, 27.7%	1907, 35.5%	1920, 46.2%
1930, 60.6%	1940, 57.5%	1952, 61.6%.

In 1877 a Presidential decree granted women equal rights to secondary and higher education and access to the professions and Chile became the first Latin American country to admit women to the university and to allow them to practice the liberal professions (7).

Chile established the first Normal School in Latin America only two years after the first such institution appeared in the United States, and in 1920 enacted the first law for compulsory elementary education for all children under fifteen years of age (8). The 1920 law went into effect in March 1921 providing all children with four years of schooling. Children under the age of 16 were prohibited from employment unless their schooling has been fulfilled (9).

In 1925 a new political constitution was drawn up. Article No. 10 of the new constitution guarantees freedom of teaching, stipulates that public education (state education) is one of the main concerns of the State, and makes elementary education compulsory (10).

The State, by means of a Ministry of Public Education and the national universities, made itself the chief promoter of cultural development. To the national university with numerous campuses were added Catholic and private secular institutions.

The first attempt at global reform occurred in 1928 with changes in administration, curriculum and teaching methods. But, because, as I. Nunez points out,

"it went beyond what the existing social system would permit" (11),

the reform was cancelled having lasted less than a year. However, some of its elements came into the system. As I. Nunez notes,

"The principles of the new pedagogy were incorporated into the official doctrine for the Chilean primary school. Some elements of a modern and realistic secondary education came to be recognised by Decree. In-service teacher training and the possibility of experimentation within the classroom and in the internal organisation of the school were accepted" (12).

After 1930 the humanities enjoyed an important revival in the social disciplines a noticeable development. In 1939 the Chilean Union of Teachers elaborated a plan of educative policy as a contribution to the Popular Front (centre-left government) (13), which tried to develop the education quantitatively; increase the technical education, develop cultural broadcasting; and improve the teachers' economic situation.

In 1945 a gradual plan of renovation of Secondary Education began. The main aims of this plan were: flexibility of curriculum, students' participation and emphasis in the professional orientation. To test the feasibility of these plans experimental schools were established in Santiago and other parts of the country. Unfortunately this modernisation effort had only limited success (14) in spite of wide political support as well as a North American technical and financial aid that this plan got (15). Also in 1945, a group of educators started another experiment in San Carlos, a rural area in the centre-south of Chile,

"The San Carlos Plan attempted to develop a local educational system which integrated all levels of schooling under a single administration... and attempted to establish much closer links between the schools and the local community - in essence using the school as a centre for community mobilisation" (16).

In spite of this experiment's ending in 1948, it was the base for a number of 'consolidated schools' which were established over the next 20 years (thirteen consolidated schools by 1962 and thirty-one by 1974) (17).

But the implementation of a major national reform pro-

gramme came together with the Christian Democratic regime. In 1964 the Christian Democratic Party came into power bringing with it an ostensibly new ideology. This ideology combined the humanist philosophy of Maritain and a developmentalist economic programme. From both sources came a strong imperative for educational reform. So, the government started a programme of political, socio-economic and educational reforms, placed high priority upon educational reform.

One of Frei's pre-election speeches demonstrates the critical role of education in the Christian Democratic programme:

"The goal of our administration will be not only to have the economy grow faster, but also to have the fruits of that growth distributed more equally among the people. There are two ways in which this can be done. One is to invest in the education of the people; if every Chilean were to have at least a primary education - and a secondary education would be better - this would increase productivity, and we could produce more. But it would also decrease the gaps between incomes caused by different levels of education. The other road is to increase the use of technology. Technology also increases productivity, and so has effects similar to those of improved education" (18)

The legislative basis for this reform was Executive Decree No. 27952 of December 7, 1965, which sought,

"to modify the educational system with the objective of achieving a better and more harmonious development of all aspects of the individuals' personality to prepare him for a productive life and to enable him to participate intelligently in the cultural, social and economic development process of the country" (19).

By means of this decree the process of educational reform started, giving a new structure to the formal system. The new structure, beginning in 1966 was composed of four levels:

- Pre-school education;
- Basic education;
- Secondary or Intermediate Education, and

Higher education (Art.1).

Pre-school education served children under the age of 7 years and its fundamental objective was the integral development of the child's personality and his intelligent adaptation to his social and natural milieu (Art.2).

Basic education provided schooling for children from 7 to 15 years of age (and was thus extended from 6 to 8 years). This level was divided into two sub-cycles of four years each; the second four years making deeper vocational exploration. The purpose of this level was the integral development of the child's personality, his preparation for participation in society and guidance in his decision to continue studies, or enter to the labour force (Art.3).

Secondary or Intermediate education was divided into two branches: humanistic - scientific and vocational - technical both with four years in duration. At the end of this level each student received a certificate of completion (Art.4). This level was reduced from 6 to 4 years. Although it was still divided into the academic and the vocational branches a same legal status to both branches was given, so for the first time students from the technical-professional branch were able to apply to university. The reform also decreed that for the first time girls could attend the agricultural and industrial courses in the vocational branch.

Higher education included Normal school training for elementary school teachers and advanced technical studies. Regular university education was offered under different auspices, independent of the Ministry of Education's Superintendencia. These higher education programmes were coordinated through the national university system, although directly by the Ministry of Education (Art.5) (20)

The Christian Democratic regime's reform was predicated

upon four principles:

"First was the socio-cultural responsibility of education. That is education must promote the integral development, spiritual and material, of the individual, incorporate the individual into the life of the nation, instil democratic values, and serve the nation's economic development. Secondly, came preparation for productive life, meaning that education should impart skills necessary for entry into the labour force. Thirdly, there was the principle of access to education as a human right - education should be available to all citizens as far as their abilities could carry them. Fourthly, the reform embodied the concept of education as a lifelong process, and thus not concerned solely with formal schooling during childhood and adolescence" (21).

For these goals to be achieved, education provision had to be expanded, teaching methods and curriculum modernised and administrative structure reformed.

In the first year of government 1,500 new schools were set up, and resources were provided to build new buildings and to increase the production of trained teachers. By 1970 new curriculum had been designed and implemented for all eight grades. Evaluation also changed, permanent assessment was used to replace examinations.

To provide support for all of these changes a Centre for In-service Training and Educational Experimentation was established. By 1970,

"three quarters of all teachers had received at least one in-service training experience averaging three weeks in duration; 3.65 million primary school texts had been designed, printed and distributed (just over two books per enrolled student)" (22).

In 1966 the Instituto Nacional de Capacitacion Profesional (INACAP) was established to provide professional and technical training for industrial workers and in that year 12,942 workers registered (23).

In 1967 in order to help young people who were neither in school nor employed, the National Apprenticeship System was created (Decree 9163). This programme was intended for youth from 14 to 18

years of age in a work-study plan which lasts 3 years and provides them with a basic education certificate and a technical speciality (24).

In 1966 the Ministry of Education in order to respond to the educational needs of adults, established an Adult Education Agency which had three programmes:

- a basic education programme with evening classes, which after a thirty-month period provided students with a basic education certificate;
- a humanistic-scientific intermediate education programme which after 4 years of evening classes provided students with a secondary school certificate; and a
- community development programme which provided training and educational activities in such areas as mechanics, electricity, fishing and cooking, through community organisations (25).

There were programmes of adult literacy in which the Paulo Freire's method of literacy training were used. Coordinators were trained and then integrated into literacy programmes. Between 1965-1970 there were over 3000 literacy centres throughout the country and the rate of illiteracy was reduced from 16.4 per cent in 1960 to 11.7 per cent in 1970 (26).

Looking into the results of this reform there can be no doubt that a significant quantitative expansion of the educational system was achieved. As E. Schiefelbein and J.P. Farrell have pointed out,

"Between 1965 and 1970, primary enrolment doubled and enrolment at the secondary and university levels tripled. While in 1964, 87 per cent of the population age 7 to 12 were in school, by 1970 the figure was raised to 95 per cent and by 1972 had come close to 100 per cent. By 1970 85 per cent of those entering grade 1 were doing so on time (at 7 years of age) and primary repetition rates were drastically reduced. Roughly 0.2 million children who had previously been denied access to a meaningful basic education were accommodated in the schools, to the

point that by March 1970 all children who requested entrance to primary schools were enrolled. Whereas before the reform only about a third of those who started grade 1 completed their 6 year primary cycle, by 1970 half of the entrants completed the full 8 years of basic education. Whereas before the reform about a third of those who completed primary school did not continue on into grade 7, by 1970 almost all students who completed grade 8 enrolled in secondary school, and about 40 per cent of secondary starters completed the cycle" (27).

Another positive point is the increase in expenditure on education which "rose from 2.7 per cent of G.N.P. in 1965 to 4.9 per cent in 1968 and 4.5 per cent in 1969" (28).

But, in spite of its achievements this reform has been strongly criticised. The main objections were:

- the reform failed to address the roots of Chile's educational ills;
- the reform served only to reinforce the existing capitalist structure;
- the reform tended to aggravate rather than alleviate Chile's educational crisis (29).

According to I. Nunez the Frei government had attempted reform through expansion of the educational system, when the more serious problem was one of retention, or keeping students in school. High drop-out or wastage rates were not due to insufficient educational facilities, but to more basic social ills, such as poverty, malnutrition, and unemployment (30).

The critics added that the changes were too strongly influenced by North American thinking (the Christian Democratic full programme exactly reflected the Alliance for Progress goals), and they insisted that the reform was conceptualised and financed by North Americans; there were North American educational advisors during planning and implementation of the reform (31). Measures of educational policy had been studied and decided without taking into account the point of view of teachers and the rest of the

educational community (32). On the other hand immense sums were received as aid by Chile from the World Bank, U.S. Aid and other sources (33).

It seems that the Christian Democrat Party itself understood the degree of criticism against this educational reform, because the candidate in the 1970 Presidential Election, incorporated in his platform some proposals in order to improve and redirect the original educational reform.

In 1970 the Popular Unity Government was elected. There was no educational policy as such in 1970. Education was not a priority area, nor was it the key to social change and social justice, it was going to be one among many elements in the struggle for socialism. But that does not mean that this government did not have a position on education, or that it was not critical of the educational system that had been inherited.

The new government saw the educational system as elitist, antidemocratic, and denationalising". It was elitist because it allowed access to higher education only to students from upper, and upper-middle class while students from working class backgrounds have an average of no more than 3-4 years of schooling, and vast segments of the population were left out of education. It was anti-democratic because of the high levels of dropout and because of the structure of the system which contained different levels of status, and the centralised and bureaucratic character of its direction. It was denationalising because it had imported in the past, educational models from Germany, France and the United States, which had not taken into account the actual Chilean situation, problems and needs (34).

Yet, in spite of the Popular Unity Government not making the area of education its first policy priority, in October 1970,

the Superintendencia de Educacion published a report according to which the general objectives for the Chilean educational system were to be,

- "(1) guaranteeing access to school for all children of school age and opening the schools to adults to form a system of permanent education;
- (2) assuring that students would not drop out of the system;
- (3) achieving real participation by educational workers, students, parents, workers' organisations, and the people in general in the transformation of the educational system within the framework of national planning;
- (4) orienting the educational system to the interests of the working class rather than the interests of the bourgeoisie;
- (5) redefining the role of the educator in terms of the requirements of the proposed socio-economic transformation, and
- (6) producing graduates who would be critical and creative, who would feel solidarity and who would contribute to the construction of a socialist society" (35).

This same report gave specific recommendations for immediate measures such as:

- To increase the capacity of the system.
- To simplify the administrative process for enrolment.
- To increase the funds for school assistance, and to ensure that the aid was delivered to the students in need of it.
- To improve the control and supervision to private schools in order to ensure that private school teachers received the same salaries as public school teachers, that all private school teachers would be licensed to teach in Chile, that foreign texts would be used in private schools only with the Ministry of Education's approval.
- To train university students as literacy instructors for a literacy campaign.
- To increase by 100 per cent the spaces for pre-school education.

For the Popular Unity Government the entire system of education had to be changed and democratised,

"with the notion of democratisation going far beyond a formal commitment to providing equal educational opportunities" (36).

Together with democratisation came the idea of unification and the unity of theory and practice.

"Education would be a continuous and lifelong process, free from narrow and restrictive compartmentalisation" (37).

According to the Programa Basico (Basic Programme) of the Popular Unity election platform "the transformation of the education system must not be the work only of experts" (38). So, under Popular Unity the question of educational change and direction was opened to discussion at all levels of the system.

At the end of 1971 the Ministry of Education initiated a national debate on education, calling The First National Congress, which involved teachers, trade unions, students, universities, community organisations and parents. This Congress concentrated on the following issues:

- Equality of educational opportunity;
- Worker education;
- Reforms of teaching and the curriculum;
- The promotion of new values of human solidarity;
- The need for a unified system (this new comprehensive system was to be called Escuela Nacional Unificada (ENU) - the National Unified School);
- Restructuring and decentralisation of the administration;
- The new role of the teacher;
- Private schools (39).

Following the National Congress, in 1972 the government prepared the Democratisation Decree. It stated that,

"The central objective of educational democratisation is the full participation of all workers in the educational sector, of parents, students, community organisations, rural and urban workers, in the direction, administration and government of educational and cultural services, and sure access to everyone to the benefits" (40).

This first version of the law was rejected by the Contraloria General de la Republica, so in March of 1973 a second very similar version was submitted and approved.

In February 1973, the government publicised the most controversial Chilean educational issue, the Unified National School. More than a year before, the National Congress of Education in its final report had recognised the need to establish one. This report contained some proposals made earlier by UNESCO and other international organisations. Formally speaking what was proposed was,

"a two-tiered system which would allow for the merger of formal and extra-mural schooling. The first tier was pre-school education, up to six years, which would eventually include family education projects. The second tier was general and polytechnic education for those between 6 and 18. This would be divided into three stages, the first four years would be a common general curriculum; years 5 to 8 would begin the process of specialisation; and the final 4 years would consist of a core curriculum with a concentration on a 'speciality'. ENU units were to be based on existing local school units. Private schools were to conform to the ENU structure and curriculum" (41).

(The Report showing the entire project of the Unified National School will be presented in this thesis as an appendix.)

The plans met with bitter opposition. The idea of a Unified National School was never applied in the Chilean educational system and as a result of the increasing political and economic crisis in the country, it was abandoned in March of 1973.

In summary during this period educational provision continued to expand. Working class and peasant children were encouraged to gain access to secondary and higher education. Great

importance was given to technical training schemes. Enrolments increased,

"the effective enrolment in the schools system in 1970 was 2,420,000 and this figure rose to 2,847,955 in 1973... at the pre-primary level 74,800 children were enrolled in 1971, a 20 per cent increase over 1970; in basic education a 3.4 per cent increase was achieved, in secondary education 360,800 pupils were enrolled, an increase of 23.2 per cent over 1970" (42).

A great number of community educational and cultural projects were developed in the shanty towns and in the countryside, including literacy classes. A National Board of Pre-schools was set up in 1970 to provide nutritional, medical and educational services to children under 5 years of age.

The government was concerned with promoting popular Chilean culture, so cultural centres were set up throughout the country. From mid-1971 a state sponsored publishing house Quimantu, was founded which produced a wide range of less expensive school materials, cultural materials, cheap books, etc.

As it has been said earlier the key project on education, the Unified National School was never implemented and in formal terms there was little change in the educational system; but looking into the ENU project the major educational goals of the government were to integrate the school into society, to break the division between theory and practice to finish with internal differentiation and hierarchy within schools.

With the overthrow of President S. Allende on September 11 of 1973, Chile lost its long tradition of peaceful and democratic rule. The 1973 military coup, where President Allende was killed, was unique for Chile's history,

"not only did it represent an instance of infrequent military intervention, but in the Chilean context its level of brutality and violence was shocking" (43).

The military junta quashed all Popular Unity policies and

programmes, and the entire constitutional system; and took upon itself all executive and legislative powers. Censorship came to the mass media and military control of universities and schools came into force.

"a network of military authorities and representatives was established parallel to, or replacing the civil-administrative staff. At the same time a rigid hierarchy of functions was set up and a system was imposed, whereby posts were filled by a closed secret system of appointment rather than by the former method of open public competition. All the participatory practices and such organisations as student centres and teachers' unions were abolished, as was the Consejo Nacional de Educacion (National Education Council). In this way, an authoritarian educational regime was created which persists to this day" (44).

As a result of a diagnosis of the educational situation of the country, a process of transformation was initiated,

"policies of decentralisation were formulated, and were implemented through the regionalisation and reorganisation of the country's internal governmental structure. Regional Ministerial Secretariats were created (through Decree Law No. 575, 1974) which were linked to the structure of regional government..." (45).

The educational policy of the military junta have three basic major objectives,

"the inculcation of moral and patriotic values; the depoliticisation of the educational system; the promotion of a competitive, meritocratic system that rewards those who best embody the virtues promoted by the state. In addition the junta has affirmed its belief in the extension of basic educational opportunities to all people, the need for organised and national planning and control of the educational system, and the increased professionalisation of teachers" (46).

During those years of military government new curricula for primary and secondary education were implemented and a series of documents regarding the restructuring of education have appeared. For instance, Directivas Presidenciales sobre Educacion Nacional (Presidential Directives on National Education); the educational policy has been expressed in the Declaracion de Principios de la Junta de Gobierno (Declaration of Principles of the

Government Junta). This Declaracion de Principios contained the following statement on education,

"It is imperative that we change the Chilean's mentality.. the Government of the Armed Forces intends to open a new phase in our national destiny, giving way to new generations of Chileans who have been shaped in a school of healthy civic habits".

It later states more specifically that education is the basis of the solution to the deep,

"moral and economic crises of the developed western world... where we see that even when material well-being is for everyone, this is not sufficient to have a balanced society..."

education must therefore,

"promote those moral and spiritual values which belong to our Chilean Christian tradition which locates everything in its proper place according to man's ultimate end. Our education should in this context respect freedom of teaching and each person's individual conscience... strengthen the knowledge and love of all our compatriots for Chile, its geography, history and its people. Through such reunification with the roots of our nationality, values and virtues to face the difficult challenge ahead will arise" (47).

In relation to control over education the junta has used the same means in all sectors of national life, and a dual mechanism was established: the Ministry of Education to control the technical and administrative aspects of education, and the Commando de Institutos Militares, to control ideological, disciplinary and security matters.

The budget for education decreased. In 1970, 22 per cent of the total state budget went to education, in 1974 only 12.5 per cent. The education budget was redistributed, reallocating money from the university sector to the primary and pre-primary sector. Fees have been introduced for secondary schools; primary education also has to be paid for (48).

Through this document called Directivas Presidenciales

sobre Educacion Nacional (March 1979), structural changes of the educational system were announced. Together with the document, a letter from the President to the Minister of Education was published. The letter gives the ideological content to the changes and specifies that the State will only provide primary education and maintain secondary schools that already exist. Secondary education must be paid for. The President told the Minister about his intention of progressively privatisating education keeping its rule-setting and supervisory duties.

By Decree Law 4002 of 20th May 1980 the orientation, content and organisation of the educational system in accordance with the Presidential Directives were fixed. The Decree has 25 articles which give to teachers detailed instructions on the curriculum, timetable and emphasis they should provide in their teaching.

The educational changes began with the transfer of state schools to the municipalities, (Decree Law 1-3063), and the government justified these changes by appealing to many arguments such as,

- "(a) through municipalisation the process of decentralisation is deepened thereby allowing greater efficiency in the solution of problems;
- (b) municipalisation improves the rationalisation of educational administration by leaving the Ministry of Education with only the normative duties of supervision and control to fulfil;
- (c) more social participation will be made possible;
- (d) municipalisation will allow an improvement in the quality of education to be achieved; and
- (e) teacher's salaries will improve by virtue of the greater availability of resources at the disposal of the municipalities;
- (f) furthermore, the occupational opportunities of teachers will be broadened for they will be able to select the municipalities they will work for in accordance with their interest and aspirations" (49).

This change was introduced extremely fast and in a large

scale during 1980-82, and because of the recession Chile entered and acute economic crisis and the process of municipalisation was stopped. According to L. Egana and A. Magendzo (50) at that time 84 per cent of Chile's schools had been transferred to the municipalities.

Other educational policy was the transference of technical vocational schools to the private sector and the creation of new private schools under the stimulus of state subventions.

In relation to universities, until 1973 they constituted an entirely autonomous system, financed by the state but independent of the Ministry of Education. There were eight universities: the University of Chile (the large one); the State Technical University, the University Austral, the Catholic University (private), the Catholic University of Valparaiso (private), the University of the North (private), the Technical University of Federico Santa Maria, the University of Concepcion.

In 1967 there was a University Reform which transformed them: all administrative structures were democratised; all the university authorities were elected by the university community as a whole (students, teachers and administrators); the curriculum was modernised; new areas and levels of study were established; the universities became involved in providing educational and cultural services to the community and courses were set up for workers and other sectors, and this process continued until September of 1973.

Within the first days of the coup most of the universities were occupied by the armed forces. By Decree Law 50 (end of September 1973) all university Rectors were removed and military sectors were appointed.

"The task of the new military Rectors was to annul the universities reform. All channels of participation and all democratic decision-making bodies were eliminated. Evening courses were cancelled and workers no longer admitted. Timetables were changed because of the curfew, thus preventing many students from working and studying at the same time. All teaching and research activity was supervised by the Council of Rectors - all military men. Research centres were closed on the grounds that they were 'unduly conflictive' " (51).

In 1980 a new University Law was decreed which established a system very different, in which tertiary education has been diversified: in addition to the universities there are new institutes, academies and technical colleges. Provision has been made for the creation of private universities which will not receive any state financial support; and the state-run universities have to aim to be self-financing since most of them receive very limited subsidies.

Students have to pay a registration fee and then monthly fees,

"at rates graded according to the market value of their particular discipline on the professional job market" (52)

and because of this there has been a 12 per cent drop in the number of students from the poorest sector, and an increase in the number of students from the rich sector.

In summary, three facts are clear in the military junta's educational policy,

- The junta has finished with the growing democratisation of the education;
- the junta has increased privatisation of education especially at secondary level, (the state "will only provide educational services where and when the private sector is unable or unwilling to do so" (53); and
- the junta has decentralised education establishing Regional Offices of the Ministry of Education, which in

practice are organs of control and supervision by the regime.

Chilean Educational System

The Chilean educational system has the following features:

(1) Principles, Goals and Objectives of Education

The Political Constitution of Chile (1980) grants the right of education, and establishes that the objective of education is the full development of the individual in the different stages of life. Parents have the preferential right and the duty of educating their children and the concern of the State is to grant special protection in the exercise of this right.

The Political Constitution also acknowledges the liberty of teaching, including the rights of opening, organising and maintenance of educational establishments, without any other limitation than those imposed by ethics, good habits, public order and national security.

In accordance with constitutional precepts, the State considers that education is one of its principal responsibilities and devotes special attention to it, preserving their normative and controlling obligations. At the same time it stimulated the participation of the private sector in educational work.

The general objectives of education are the following:

- To achieve the physical, intellectual and moral development of individuals on the basis of maintaining and broadening the cultural patrimony of the nation.
- To promote the equality of opportunities.
- To allow the constant adaptation of the educational system to the needs of the country and their citizens.

- To promote activities that facilitate the development of the process of permanent education.

The specific objectives that the government intends to obtain through its educational policy are:

- To decrease the natural illiteracy and that caused by knowledge loss.
- To incorporate into pre-school education the maximum number possible of children aged 2 to six years with few resources through programmes of assistance to crèche and play schools.
- To obtain the universality of Basic education, incorporation progressively the whole population in age for this level that for any reason have not been incorporated into the system or have left it.
- To promote the development of Middle education, so that anyone who wishes to continue studying may receive knowledge, allowing them to incorporate themselves into the work force, to continue higher studies or combining both activities.
- To train professionals of higher level required for the economic growth and the development of culture, scientific research and technological improvement of the country.
- To guarantee equal opportunities of access to education and to cultural property, the state assuming the responsibility of financing the cost of education for those who do not have the means to do it, independent of the type of establishment the student or their tutors choose to obtain (54).

(2) System of Administration

In accordance with the decentralisation policy being gradually applied, the administration system is now structured at the following levels:

(a) Central (or national) level

The Ministry of Education is the responsible authority that, according to the directing lines given by the Supreme Government, defines the educational policies and culture development, ratifies and renders official the general norms and plans for this sector, cautioning the appropriate administration and educative management.

(b) The Sub-secretariat of Education

This organ is in charge of interpreting the educational policies into precise instructions, elaborating technical dispositions and functioning of educational sector in the scope of their competence, and finally of controlling the fulfilment of these norms and instructions.

(c) The General Directorship of Education

This organ is in charge of studying, elaborating and proposing the technico-pedagogical norms for the application of educational policies, plans and programmes. Also it must supervise, orient and evaluate not only public but also private education.

(d) The Bureau of Culture

This organ is entrusted with studying, elaborating and proposing the norms intended to perform the cultural development policy of the country and to supervise its execution.

(e) The "Superintendencia" of Education

(In the future to be re-named Planning and Budget Office.)

This technical organ advises the Minister and orients the process of designing the educational and cultural sector, up to the level of the sectorial office of planning.

(f) Regional Level -

Regional Secretariats of the Ministry of Education

This organ is settled at local level in charge of ensuring the appropriate execution of sectorial policies in the region and adequate plans and programmes of study and any other technico-pedagogical norms to the requirements of the region and also to administrate human material and financing resources under their jurisdiction.

With respect to the curriculum administration, faculties have been delegated on the basis of certain general norms, with respect to the school calendar, the perfectioning of the teaching personnel and the educational supervision of public and private schools. Parallel to this, a system of decentralised planning is being implemented in accordance with which the Regional Secretariats coordinate their activities with the Superintendency of Education on one hand, and on the other, with the Regional Planning and Coordination Secretariats which act as advisors to the highest respective authority, the Intendente. This coordination facilitates the formulation of integrated projects of regional development, which are analysed in the first place, in the region itself, and later submitted for the consideration of the Government at central level for the assigning of financing resources in accordance with the national and regional priorities, and with the availability of public funds.

(g) Provincial Level

The organisation, resources and functions of the organs of this level - provincial, departmental, and local educational headquarters - are subject to revision and will be determined exactly in the Reorganisation Law of the Ministry of Education.

(h) Community Level

In the education sector, the administrative decentralisation is intended to give greater agility and efficiency to educational management. In order to achieve this, during the last years legislative measures have been dictated to regulate this process and to determine the procedure of gradual transfer of educational establishments of basic and middle level to municipalities. The transfer process was initiated at the end of 1980, to be extensively applied to the whole country in the shortest possible time.

The responsibility of the administration of schools transferred lies with the municipal authority. Schools are transferred with the whole staff and with all their material resources. The staff ceases to belong to the Ministry of Education and instead comes under the disposition of the Labour code.

(i) School Level

Responsibility regarding administration of personnel and, in urban schools, a greater financing autonomy has been delegated to the headmasters.

At the same time, at the pedagogic-technical level the flexibility of the plans and programmes of study allow the headmasters and teachers to adapt themselves to the characteristics and needs of the students selecting the contents and most appropriate methods to achieve the objectives planned (55).

(3) Financing of Education

The financial sources for the educational sector in Chile come from the central government (Budget of the Nation), from regional and community organs, from the contribution of the private sector, from private income of the schools, and from donations.

During recent years an increase in the contributions of municipalities and private corporations is being observed as the administration of basic and middle schools is transferred to these bodies.

In 1980, 17.1 per cent of the National Budget was destined for education. This amounted to about 3.2 per cent of G.N.P. The distribution between the educational levels was:

Pre-school	5.08%
Primary or Basic (grades 1-8)	47.77%
Secondary or Middle (grades 9-12)	18.91%
Primary Teaching Training	0.77%
Higher (universities)	27.42% (56).

(4) National System of Education -
Organisation and Description of the Different Types
of Education

The fundamental components of this educational system are:

- Pre-school education;
- Primary or Basic education;
- Secondary or Middle education;
- Vocational education;
- Higher education;
- Training and improvement of teaching personnel;
- Adult education;
- Extracurricula education.

(a) Pre-school Education

The main objective of this education is to cooperate with the family group in the integral development of the child's personality and its intelligent adaptation to its social and natural environment. A priority assistance has been given to this level through specific programmes designed for rural and marginal sectors.

The levels of pre-school education are:

Crèche: 0 to 2 years;

Nursery or pre-school: 2 to 4 years;

Kindergarten: 4 to 5 years and 11 months.

They are assisted by public and private organisms through crèches, play schools or nurseries and annexe courses to primary or basic schools.

In 1980, 127,219 children were enrolled in pre-school education (57).

For admission to this level it is necessary to certify that the child has the required age for the corresponding level.

(b) Primary or Basic Education

This level comprises eight years of teaching (from 6 to 13 or 14 years old). The general objective is to give the student the maximum possibilities of developing the skills which will permit him to grow in a balanced way from both the individual and social points of view, promoting his responsible integration into the family group.

Students with deficiencies or limitations in their psychomotor development are attended to in special schools or differential groups in order to obtain in the shortest period their recovery and integration into normal education.

In 1980, 2,286,013 pupils were enrolled - a drop of nearly 50,000 from the 1974 figures (58). This was due mainly to the economic depression but partly to a sharp decline in the birth rate during recent years.

The curriculum for this level comprises reading and writing, mathematics, simple science, history, geography, social sciences, arts and crafts, music and physical education. A foreign language (English or French) is introduced at the beginning of the seventh grade (59). In private schools the foreign language tends to be introduced earlier.

The promotion from one grade to another is based on the requirements stated in the norms and rules of evaluation and promotion; marks are awarded on a scale of 7.

Children who complete the full 8 grades of Primary or Basic education receive a primary school leaving certificate.

(c) Secondary or Middle Education

Education in the middle school lasts four years and is open to students who have finished their basic education, and are not older than 16 years. It also requires the payment of an inscription fee, and a quota to the Centre of Parents and Tutors of the school.

It is not compulsory and it is divided into two branches: humanistic-scientific and technico-professional. The first one prepares students for higher education, and the second one qualifies students for work in business. It is in turn sub-divided into four categories: industrial, agricultural, commercial and special services and techniques. The original intention was that those who completed these courses should move into industry, agriculture and commerce at the technician level, but in practice the majority aspire to go to

the university. On completing the middle school the student receives a school leaving certificate.

In 1980 the secondary or middle school population totalled 628,757 - 430,400 on the humanistic-scientific branch, and 198,357 on the technico-professional branch (60).

(d) Vocational Education

While much university and middle education is obviously vocational there is a parallel apprenticeship system for students who, having completed the eighth grade of their basic general education need to earn their living or do not wish to enter the middle school. The apprenticeship system operates under the National Institute for Professional Training which has been largely funded from government sources.

This Institute offers a wide range of practical courses in areas such as motor mechanics, machine mending, building construction, mining, different aspects of agriculture, in 28 well equipped regional centres. Fees are modest and also modest academic qualifications are required.

Courses normally last about four months but 100 per cent attendance is required.

Another programme of this type is that which is operated under the Catholic University through its Departamento Universitario Obrero Campesino with part-time courses in such subjects as electricity, computers, commerce, sewing, dressmaking, technical drawing etc.

On a much smaller scale, similar types of courses are operated by university institutions, for instance the Technological Institute of the University of Chile in Santiago, and the Poly-technical Institute of the Federico Santa Maria Technical University

in Valparaiso, with a branch in Talcalmano, (550 Km. south of Santiago).

(e) Higher Education

This level of education intends to train high level professionals in a wide range of specialities according to the interest of students and the social-economic requirements of the Nation.

Higher education is given by public and private universities. The universities are under military control. The government appoints university rectors and vice-rectors. The Ministry of Education allocates university budgets while matters of university coordination are controlled by the National Council of Rectors.

To go to this level it is necessary to have passed satisfactorily all grades of secondary or middle education, and to take a test - the Academic Aptitude Test - which is the only examination taken nationally and is valid for all universities in Chile. Each candidate is also required to take an additional Test of Specific Knowledge. The above mentioned data give to the candidate the marks that are published through the official press of universities.

Entry into different careers is done by straight order of marks. The higher the candidate's score, the better the chances of being accepted for the university and course of his choice. The selected candidates must pay inscription fees in proportion to the family income.

Besides the regular system described above each university maintains special systems of admission that are administered by the institution, aimed at applicants with specific characteristics, for instance, applicants who have finished their studies abroad;

worker applicants; serious physically limited applicants (blind, and others).

In 1980 the universities' population totalled 119,008 students (62).

(f) Training and Improvement of Teaching Personnel

The training of these professionals requested by the educational system is carried out by the universities by means of their institutions. The basic criteria for teacher training are given by the Teacher Training National Coordination Council, created with representative of universities and Ministry of Education.

To become a Pre-school teacher the course lasts 6 to 8 semesters; Primary or Basic education teacher 4,6 to 8 semesters; Secondary or Middle education teachers 8 to 10 semesters (speciality included); Special Education teachers, a post-graduate course of 6 semesters (63).

The universities train lecturers for Higher Education by means of post-graduate courses.

In general, for careers in education, the study plan considers a unit of courses, some of them compulsory, and others optional. They are intended to general formation, both pedagogical and specialised and its structure varies according to the diverse specialities and mentions. The study plan is complemented with supervised teacher practice performed by the Faculty or School of Education. To finish, teachers must present a special research work or an original work within their subject or specialism; in reference to this theme, the student must pass a degree examination.

In relation to in-service training the University, in agreement with the Ministry of Education and the teachers' association, carries out courses to help unqualified and semi-qualified

teachers obtain the full qualifications. The training and proficiency of in-service qualified teachers have been offered since 1966 and are carried out in the Centre for Educational Improvement Experiment and Pedagogical Research, through projects aimed to train supervisors at regional, district, and local level.

In addition, agreements of the Ministry of Education with universities are carried out in the different regions of the country in order to fulfil regional requirements.

In this way, the training and technico-supervisor activity multiplies in order to qualify the educational process and to assist the system in a decentralised way.

(g) Adult Education

From 1965 Adult education was expanded greatly and received a new orientation. It was organised as a three-level system: one for the illiterate adult; one for the adult who wants to complete the basic general education programme; and one for the adult who is ready to enter the middle school.

The general objectives of this level are: to promote the whole development of this student guaranteeing equal opportunities in the context of permanent education, and to incorporate him efficiently into the social-economic and cultural development of the nation.

For admission at this level the student must be older than 16 years of age and to be a worker.

(h) Extra-curricula Education

Some university branches maintain local radio stations with educational content in their programmes.

In recent years there have been attempts to provide

television courses in such subjects as forest resources, economics, English and French.

University extension departments, and cultural institutes maintained by the municipalities offer periodically courses in subjects such as philosophy, art, history, electricity in the home and handicrafts.

Courses for learning foreign languages are offered by binational cultural institutes. Centros de Madres (Mothers' Clubs) which are widely distributed throughout the country, offer courses in the areas of child care, home economics, dressmaking, and various handicrafts (64).

The School Year

According to the inner nature of the educative function, it is necessary to rationalise and plan school activities considering the specific characteristics of the different regions of the country.

The school year begins in March and ends in December, with 36 lesson weeks, distributed into two semesters, with an interval of a 15 days vacations in winter. It considers the following periods: Organisation, development and evaluation of school activities.

Permanent Education and The Chilean Experience: Some Reflections

In order to find relations between the Chilean system of education and the objectives of permanent education, it is necessary to go back to the Christian Democratic regime educational reform of 1965. In its principles one can find ideas about preparation for productive life; education seen as a human right; and the concept

of education as a life-long process. Paragraph iv of the Fundamental Principles of the Reform Policy reads as follows:

"(iv) Education as a lifelong process - based on the 'natural tendency of the human being to incorporate new knowledge and experience', a principle of education must be to serve the needs of all the population throughout its lifetime; in addition, as a corollary to the other fundamental principles of this policy, lifelong education serves changing technical needs and is the full realisation of the (continuing) right to education" (65).

When this government implemented the reform, institutes were established in order to provide professional technical training (see page 212); a programme for study-work for youth from 14-18 was also created; there were programmes of adult literacy using the Paulo Freire's methods, etc.

In addition different types of educational provision were available, for instance, the area of non-formal or out-of-school education was reformed, and educational policy sought to extend services to those who had left school prematurely.

In order to improve living standards in disadvantaged areas, community-based projects were offered.

During President Allende's government the general objectives of education were strongly based on the principles of permanent education (see page 216). The ideas of 'democratisation' and 'unification' of education, and the unity of theory and practice were the relevant features of the model of education which cannot be implemented because of the events of September 11th of 1973 (see page 217).

With today's government which has been in charge from September 1973, all these policies were changed (see page 221). The growing democratisation of education was halted; privatisation of education increased dramatically, and decentralisation of education has been used as a form of control by the regime (see page 222), and in spite of the fact that one of the general

objectives of education makes reference to the development of the principle of permanent education, it really does not work properly. Some isolated actions, which could be considered as forms of permanent education have been performed, for instance: special educational plans for minority cultural groups and populations living in isolated rural areas; a programme of distance education, and apprenticeship parallel system which offers a range of practical courses.

In spite of the fact that some improvement is being made, the present situation in Chile obliges one to look at the future with some apprehension.

After reviewing the systems of education in four countries an analysis will be made in the next chapter to show how in each of them attempts have been made to eradicate weaknesses in the systems.

References: Chapter Six

- (1) Farrell, Joseph P., The National Unified School in Allende's Chile: The Role of Education in the Destruction of a Revolution, University of British Columbia Press, CERLAC - Vancouver 1986, p.30,
- (2) Anguita Ricardo, Leyes promulgadas en Chile hasta el 1 de Junio de 1912, Santiago, Imprenta Barcelona, 1912, pp. 1-36.
- (3) Fisher, Kathleen B., Political Ideology and Educational Reform in Chile, 1964-1976, UCLA Latin American Center, University of California, Los Angeles, USA, 1979, p. 31.
- (4) Farrell, Joseph P., op.cit., p. 30.
- (5) Fisher, Kathleen B., op.cit., p. 31.
- (6) Hamuy E., "La evolucion de la educacion elemental y el problema educacional" in Schiefelbein, E. and McGinn, N., (editors), El sistema escolar y el problema del ingreso a la universidad, Santiago, C.P.U., 1975, p. 103.
- (7) Farrell, Joseph P., op.cit., p. 31.
- (8) Ibid.
- (9) Fisher, Kathleen B., op.cit., p. 34.
- (10) Ibid.
- (11) Nunez, Ivan, Tradicion, Reforma y Alternativas Educacionales en Chile, 1929 - 1973, Santiago - Centro de Estudios Economicos y Sociales, 1979, p. 18.
- (12) Ibid., p. 19.
- (13) Vivallo Jara Rudecindo, Education in Chile during Allende's Government, Unpublished Dissertation, Temple University, 1978, p. 200.
- (14) Fisher, Kathleen B., op.cit., p. 36.
- (15) Farrell, Joseph, P., op.cit., p. 32.
- (16) Ibid., p. 33.
- (17) ^{NU}
Nunez, Ivan, 1979, op.cit., p. 22.
- (18) Edholm, Felicity (editor), Education and Repression: Chile, W.U.S., December 1982, London, p. 12.
- (19) Fisher, Kathleen, B., op.cit., p. 42.
- (20) Ibid., pp. 42-43.

- (21) Aedo-Richmond, R., Brock, C. and Noquera, I., "Politics and Educational Change in Chile: 1964-80", in Broadfoot, P., Brock, C. and Tulasiewicz, W., Politics and Educational Change, Croom Helm - London, 1981, p. 210.
- (22) Farrell, Joseph P., op.cit., p. 33.
- (23) Edholm, Felicity (editor) op.cit., pp. 13-14.
- (24) Fisher, Kathleen, B., op.cit., p. 49.
- (25) Ibid., p. 50.
- (26) Schiefelbein, E., "Reforma de la Educacion Chilena en 1964-1970", in Educacion Hoy: Perspectivas Latino-americanas, No. 6., pp. 33-34.
- (27) Schiefelbein, E. and Farrell, J.P., Eight Years of Their Lives: Through Schooling to the Labour Market in Chile, Ottawa, Canada, International Development Research Centre, 1982, p. 31.
- (28) Aedo-Richmond, R., Brock, C. and Noquera, I., op.cit. p. 211.
- (29) Fisher, Kathleen B., op.cit., p. 66.
- (30) Nunez, Ivan, "Politica y Educacion: rol, fines y objetivos de la educacion en el gobierno popular" in Suarez, Waldo et al, Aportes Socialistas para la Construcción de la Nueva Educacion Chilena, Santiago- Editorial Universitaria 1971, p. 103.
- (31) Fisher, Kathleen, B., op.cit., p. 67.
- (32) Vivallo Jara Rudecindo, op.cit., p. 198.
- (33) Aedo, Richmond, R., Brock, C. and Noquera, I., op.cit. p. 213.
- (34) Vivallo Jara Rudecindo, op.cit., pp. 160-161.
- (35) Araya, Hugo, Politica Educacional del Gobierno de la U.P. Medidas. Inmediatas, Santiago - Superintendencia de Educacion = Octubre 1970, Mimeograph.
- (36) Aedo, Richmond, R., Brock, C. and Noquera I., op.cit. p. 215.
- (37) Ibid., p. 215.
- (38) Edholm, Felicity (editor) op.cit., p. 17.
- (39) Ibid., p. 18.
- (40) Decreto General de Democratizacion No. 224 - Santiago, 6 de Marzo, 1973, Publicado en el Diario Oficial del 12 de Abril de 1973.
- (41) Edholm, Felicity (editor) op.cit., p. 19.
- (42) Aedo-Richmond R., Brock, C., and Noquera, I., op.cit. p. 216.

- (43) Fisher, Kathleen B., op.cit., p. 121.
- (44) Aedo-Richmond, R., Noguera, I., and Richmond, M., "Changes in the Chilean Educational System during Eleven Years of Military Government: 1973-1984", in Brock, C., and Lawlor, H. (editors), Education in Latin America, Croom Helm, London, 1985, p. 166.
- (45) Ibid.
- (46) Fisher, Kathleen B., op.cit., p. 126.
- (47) Pinochet, A. et al., Declaracion de Principios del Gobierno de Chile, Santiago Editora Nacional Gabriela Mistral, 1974.
- (48) Edholm, Felicity, op.cit., p. 45.
- (49) Aedo-Richmond, R., Noquera, I. and Richmond, M., op.cit., p. 169.
- (50) Egaña, L. y Magendzo, A., El Marco Teorico - Politico del Proceso de Descentralizacion Educativa (1973-1983), Programa Interdisciplinario de investigaciones en Educación (P.I.I.E.) Santiago, p. 61.
- (51) Edholm, Felicity, op.cit., pp. 60-61.
- (52) Ibid., pp. 64-65.
- (53) Aedo-Richmond, R., Brock, C. and Noquera, I., op.cit. p. 223.
- (54) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, La Educacion en Chile, Santiago, 1981, pp. 5-6.
- (55) Ibid., pp. 12-15.
- (56) Cowen, R., and McLean, M. (editors), International Handbook of Education Systems, Vol. III. Institute of Education, University of London, 1984, p. 647.
- (57) Republica de Chile, Instituto Nacional de Estadisticas, Compendio Estadistico 1982, Santiago, Chile, 1982, p. 83.
- (58) Republica de Chile, Instituto Nacional de Estadisticas, Compendio Estadistico 1976 p. 39 and Compendio Estadistico 1982, p. 83.
- (59) Cowen, R. and McLean, M., (editors), op.cit., p. 640.
- (60) Republica de Chile, Instituto Nacional de Estadisticas, Compendio Estadistico 1982, pp. 86 and 89.
- (61) Cowen, R., and McLean, M., (editors), op.cit., p. 642.
- (62) Republica de Chile, Instituto Nacional de Estadisticas, Compendio Estadistico 1982, p. 90.

- (63) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, op.cit., p. 34.
- (64) Cowen, R. and McLean, M. (editors), op.cit., p. 644.
- (65) Fisher, Kathleen, B., op.cit., p. 39.

Chapter Seven

HOW THE FOUR SYSTEMS SHOWN HAVE ATTEMPTED TO
ERADICATE THE INADEQUACIES OF PRESENT DAY
EDUCATION. A BRIEF COMPARISON

Before going into a comparison between the four systems shown in this study in relation to how they have attempted to eradicate the inadequacies of present day education, it could be useful here to briefly compare the four countries themselves.

It should be clear that this study takes four countries of different cultural, ideological and developmental backgrounds and attempt is made here to discover similarities and differences between them.

In the external context one can find, for instance:

- Cuba and Chile have cultural similarities, both of them share the Iberian heritage (language, religion, values). However, ideologically there is an enormous difference, one being a Marxist country, the other capitalist; from the point of view of development both are developing countries.
- Cuba and the German Democratic Republic have similar ideologies, both of them are Marxist countries, however, from the point of view of development, one is a developing country, the other a developed country.
- Cuba and England and Wales have no point of comparison either cultural, ideological or developmental. One has the Iberian heritage and the other the Anglo-Saxon heritage; one is a Marxist country the other a capitalist country; one is a developing country, the other is a developed country.
- The German Democratic Republic and England and Wales have cultural and developmental similarities: both have a

West European culture, and both are developed countries. There are no points of comparison between the German Democratic Republic and Chile. One has a West European culture, the other the Iberian heritage; one is a Marxist country, the other capitalist; one is a developed country, the other a developing country. However, in the past century, there was in Chile a German influence, especially in the educational field, (German models of education were implemented in Chile and German professors and teachers were appointed in Chile). Today all this is covered by major ideological differences.

England and Wales and Chile have ideological similarities, both are capitalist countries (differing on types of government, one being a democratic regime, the other a dictatorship); from the point of view of development, one is a developed country, the other is a developing country. Regarding cultural similarities, there were some in the past century, when British financial influence was very strong in Chile, and English private schools were established.

Looking into the educational systems themselves one can

find:

- A centralised system of education in Cuba and the German Democratic Republic; a decentralised system of education in England and Wales and Chile.

- State public education in Cuba and the German Democratic Republic with a total absence of private education; and State public education and private education in England and Wales and Chile.

— Comprehensive education in Cuba and the German Democratic Republic; selective and comprehensive education in England and Wales and Chile.

Regarding educational provision there exists between the four countries a huge diversity in relation to the amount and type of education offered. All of them have, in some degree, formal, non-formal and informal education. All of them have attempted to implement some forms of permanent education. However, according to the facts shown in this study, the two socialist countries are ahead in this field.

If a comparison is now made between the four countries in relation to how they have attempted to eradicate inadequacies, it is possible to observe that all of them through forms of permanent education have addressed their problems. For instance:

Education in the German Democratic Republic is oriented towards the future demands of the scientific and technological revolution, the growing demand for specialist knowledge, and over expanding cultural and intellectual needs.

In Cuba it is possible to observe that the objective behind improving education has been to bring education into line with the society they are building there. This has meant deep-rooted changes in education so as to offer new generations the grounding they need in all aspects - ideological, political, intellectual, scientific-technological, physical, moral, aesthetic - while at the same time providing them with sound professional training. In this way the country will have the skilled workers, technicians and professionals it needs for economic and social development.

In Chile, education is orientated to facilitate the development of the individual's personality according to his capacity and interests, and contribute to accelerating the process of cultural,

social, and economic development within the country (1).

Pre-school education in the German Democratic Republic has been extensively developed, placing this country in the forefront of European countries in the supply of pre-school facilities for children (2) working mothers are, in this sense, better off than any of their Eastern or Western neighbours. Three-quarters of all pre-school children have places in crèches or kindergartens (3) which offer the best guarantees for the children's development in the pre-school years.

In England and Wales the growth of pre-school education started in the 1960s. The Pre-school Play Groups Association (P.P.A.) has developed play-groups up and down the country and has also stressed the importance of parental involvement in the education of their children, and in 1972 the long-term goals were set out, which will provide pre-school education mainly on a part-time basis, for all children of 3 or 4 years of age (4).

In Chile pre-school education is given by public and private organs through crèches, nurseries and annexe courses to primary or basic schools, and the government has put into practice an orienting instrument of pedagogical action for pre-school teachers (5).

Cuba's pre-school education was created in 1961 to meet two essential needs: to take care of children from a very early age, and to facilitate the access of women to work (6).

According to Berube, M.R., on one of his visits to a care centre he observed that,

"The facilities were relatively new, bright and well kept and the children happy and relaxed.... The center's main goal was play. However, educational activities were interwoven in the fabric of life there, and social development was emphasised. Music, art and mathematics were also part of the programme.... The day care center was substantially integrated. Many black children played with the white children amiably and cooperatively... The

day care center had some of the characteristics of the regular school. One room contained a patriotic corner where children brought cutouts of revolutionary heroes. The older children maintained a garden. The center also had a Parents' Council with regular assemblies... this center was free of charge and all materials and food were also without cost to the families" (7).

This level of education is in a state of constant development according to the possibilities of the resources available. In these institutions there is also a programme of education for parents.

In the German Democratic Republic and Cuba, primary and secondary education are included in the General Polytechnical school. The German Democratic Republic has ensured by legal provisions that the principle of integration runs through education at all levels, and this means that there are uniform curricula, certificates, teaching programmes and text books. Learning conditions are uniform throughout the country.

An essential characteristic of the general school in both countries is its polytechnical nature which is reflected in the relation between school and community; in the contact between pupils and workers in the enterprises and in the learning programmes which provide the essential groundwork for an understanding of modern technology and production.

"Polytechnical instruction has its roots both in the ideas of Marx and Engels and... in the discussions of educationalists, on how to equip the young for life in the new industrial age" (8).

Both countries emphasise the educational value of work. Steele, J., referring to German Democratic Republic' education and quoting one East German Publication, points out that,

"In the G.D.R. work is brought into the educational process as part of the contemporary technical, economic, and social complex... Through direct participation in productive work the pupil becomes conscious of reality and of the value of what he has learned and what he has

still to learn. He then finds that school and work as an occupation are no longer separate categories or areas of life that simply follow one another in time but that the relationship between them makes learning an authentic task in life from the very beginning. He does not suddenly 'end' school and enter something beyond and outside school called 'life'. If the pupil has taken concrete responsibility^x in the work process - no matter how simple at the outset - and has had the opportunity to perfect himself in it, he grows into the future more gradually and without a break, and with full sense of responsibility as a co-owner of his plant and co-ruler of his state" (9).

In England and Wales new methods of teaching, and learning have increasingly been used particularly in modern languages, mathematics and science. Informal techniques designed to awaken children's curiosity and interest have been introduced, specially in primary schools.

Over-sized classrooms have dis-appeared, pupil-teacher ratio has seen a big improvement; in 1964 the number of pupils per teacher was 28.7 and during the period 1970-82 the ratio was 22.3 (10).

Secondary education has been extensively re-organised into comprehensive schools which dispense with selection procedures for entry at 11-plus and provide a wide range of studies for children of all abilities.

In the German Democratic Republic the right and the duty for all young people to qualify in a trade or profession is established in the Constitution. For this reason about 85 per cent of pupils go on to vocational training centres in this country after finishing school, which means that no one enters his or her working life without having received training (11). Generally this training lasts two years, but some training lasts three years, standards are high. Both kinds of training produce students who go on to become skilled workers. The first entitles students to enrol at a

technical school, and the second at a university or college.

Curricula for these courses are drawn up by a team of people with large experience in their subjects, which includes workers, farmers, supervisors, engineers, scientists, educationists, trade unionists, and leading members of the Free German Youth (12).

In Cuba students who finished the ninth grade can go on to technical and vocational education. They can go on to two types of courses for skilled workers or for mid-level technicians (13).

In England and Wales, from the age of 16 onwards, children can go to technical and further education. The establishments are of various types and levels, and the majority are maintained by Local Education Authorities.

Further education has strong links with industry and commerce, and the government hopes to strengthen these links which could facilitate the transfer of technological innovations from the laboratory to the market place (14).

In Chile there is a parallel apprenticeship system for students who have completed the eighth grade of basic education. The system offers a wide range of practical courses in different areas (15).

Studies of Higher Education in the German Democratic Republic are based on the principle of unity of learning and research, and of theory and practice. The University promotes comprehensive learning and prevents early specialisation (16). Education at this level can be full-time, extramural, by correspondence and evening classes. In 1976 about 20 per cent of the university students were external students (17).

Every person already in employment has the chance to take a course, without interrupting his normal work. Full time study at university is free of charge (18). Every graduate of a higher

educational institution has to take a refresher course within a period of five-years (19).

In Cuba students go on to higher education after completing 12 grades of polytechnical education or via the parallel system of adult education, or teacher training or vocational education. They have day courses on a full-time basis, or workers' courses with two modalities: day or evening courses. Fifty per cent of students in universities are workers (20).

Admission to universities in England and Wales is by examination and selection. Facilities have been expanded. An important role has been played by the Open University which has initiated a real break-through by opening up higher education in the very full sense of offering degree-granting programmes to a new section of the population even though many of its students have had a more advanced educational background or higher socio-professional status than originally intended.

In terms of access by adults to higher education the Open University is a unique institution. It was designed especially to cater for the adult population and incorporates many of the features which research has shown are of particular benefit to mature students (open admission, no formal entry requirements, part-time study by correspondence with tutorial support, credit-based system, etc.) (21).

Teacher training in the German Democratic Republic and Cuba is offered in teacher training colleges or teacher training schools for primary teachers and in higher education institutions for secondary teachers. In both countries there are many in-service training schemes for teachers. In Cuba this is carried out through the Institute of Educational Improvement and its many branches. In the German Democratic Republic through universities and technical colleges; in-service training is seen from the point of view of

permanent education, so, teachers attempt to improve their qualifications according to their capabilities, which become them in life-long learners. In this country training is also given to the administrators and headmasters, and future occupiers of such posts (22).

In England and Wales a new scheme of teacher education and training started in 1972 after the 'James' Report was published; and in 1983-84 an in-service teacher training grants scheme was introduced (23).

In Chile the training of teachers is carried out by the universities and in-service training is offered in the Centre for Educational Improvement, Experiment and Pedagogical Research (24).

In the German Democratic Republic Adult Education is based on the central position of man in socialist society, the further development of the characteristic traits, talents, abilities and moral qualities of mankind. In this country further training for adults is offered in many shapes and forms, from those offered in adult education centres, industries, cooperatives, colleges, universities, to the educational programmes broadcast on T.V. According to Gottfried Schneider, in 1977,

"every fourth worker participates in a planned and systematic qualification course in compliance with the present and future needs of his profession and of society as a whole" (25).

So, today over 80 per cent of the working population holds qualifications (26). Equality of women for access to education is a reality, over 84 per cent of all women and girls of working age carry out a trade (27). In this way adult education contributes to overcoming the historically conditioned, and in some sectors still visible backwardness of women in the field of qualifications.

In Cuba adult education has the special features required for the different types of student, and its main aim is to make it

possible for all workers to have access to culture and make of them the qualified labour force that the country needs. A symbol of this commitment was the designation of a Vice-Minister of Adult Education as one of the key leaders in educational administration, with a major investment budget and resources (28).

In England and Wales adult education is provided by L.E.A.'s, Adult Education Departments, in universities and voluntary bodies. British institutes of higher education have a long tradition of adult education programmes. While these may not be fully integrated with regular higher education, they do offer a great many adults the opportunity to pursue post secondary studies, most of which are organised in extra mural departments.

For instance, the University of Liverpool, Department of Continuing Education, with the Workers Educational Association jointly sponsors a programme called Second Chance to Learn.

The course focuses on the part played by 'ordinary' people in shaping events past and present and the social, political and economic forces which have influenced Merseyside's growth and decline. The course aims to encourage and equip its students to play a more active part in their communities and workplaces.

In recent years there has also been a development of community centres.

In Chile adult education was expanded and reorganised in 1965, as a three-level system, according to the needs of adults (29)

To reinforce the role played by the school and to facilitate the proper use of the student's leisure time as well as to contribute to his development there exists in Cuba and the German Democratic Republic the extracurricula education, which has played an unprecedented role in the shift towards technology and science. Its activities are developed in educational centres and local institutions.

In Cuba it includes scientific-technical interest circles, school contests and the monitor's movement, sport and recreation activities, camping and summer camps, amateur art movement, etc. Also very important have been the interest circles in primary and secondary schools, intended to discover and elicit technical vocation. These are very popular. Fidel Castro, while visiting a national exhibition of interest circle projects said of them,

"I've seldom seen anything more impressive (because) it shows what can be done in education, what can be achieved with the development of children's and youth's capacities, because it shows the need for a type of teaching different from the teaching we all knew" (30).

In the German Democratic Republic it includes children's libraries, children's theatres, centres for nature research and young scientists, hobby groups and interest circles, sports, contests and competitions, children and youth organisations, etc.

In Chile extracurricula education is offered by some university branches which maintain local radio stations with education programmes, and some extension departments which offer courses in different subjects. Also contributing to this is the work of some bi-national institutes.

In sum basic changes have taken place in the education system of the German Democratic Republic, Cuba and England and Wales, since 1973, not in that of Chile (see p.239). In different degrees in these three countries the context of education and training has been altered consistently, and the education of children, young and old people has been fashioned in a new spirit. The character and function of schools have been determined by the interests of the whole of the people and therefore all children, irrespective of their financial or social background, have been offered comprehensive educational opportunities by an integrated and organic school system.

The structure of education systems makes it possible for all, both the young and older ones, to choose from a variety of

opportunities leading to qualifications.

The improvement of the national education system represents a whole driving force of new ideas that have, of necessity, come up against traditional ideas. There have been difficulties of an objective nature as well as difficulties of a subjective nature. But this is all to be expected in a process of change.

The quality of education is historically conditioned depending on the possibilities of the moment. A great deal still remains to be done, but education has taken new directions and these countries are making a big effort to educate their people towards becoming integrated members of a technical society.

CONCLUSIONS

It has been said that scientific and technical knowledge increases and renews itself so fast that the foundations provided by school prove insufficient and inadequate. Many individuals, if not all, will have to change professions frequently during their working life. Over the years to come the world will experience more deep changes in all senses, especially as a result of the rapid spread of existing and new technologies. The idea that a period of compulsory schooling is sufficient 'preparation for life' is no longer in use, and if the needs of society in the 1990's and next century are to be adequately met, education must be regarded as a lifelong process. Within the present educational systems there is a complex of inertia, custom, values that prevents change, and the impulse to change may only come from outside, little by little until it is able to supersede the old systems and progressively give rise to new ones in the spirit and according to the principles of permanent education.

But the changes needed to put into practice a model of permanent education cannot be brought about independently of other far-reaching social changes. It is not possible to change education without making radical changes in the entire social structure.

The foregoing discussion and analysis of permanent education has conformed to the kinds of definitions and connotations of the thesis. Thus, it has been shown that although no country has a fully developed system of permanent education many of the features of such a system appear in the countries under consideration. The main features of permanent education would seem to be: totality, integration, flexibility, democratisation and self-fulfilment.

Totality because permanent education covers the entire lifespan of the individual, includes all levels of education and encompasses all forms of education. Integration because all educative agencies: home, community, work place, schools, etc. are seen as inter-related and inter-connected. Flexibility because permanent education would allow adaptation of learning materials to changing needs, alternative patterns of education, diversity in content, in learning tools, in techniques of learning etc. Democratisation because permanent education takes people of differing patterns of intellectual development, interests and motivation; permanent education would permit education to have a connective function, permanent education is seen as something for everybody, with relevance to the lives of all people in a society. Self-fulfilment because permanent education would improve each individual's quality of life (31).

Certain critical issues have surrounded the debate over permanent education. These include the capacity of educational systems to respond to the challenge presented by the concept of permanent education. In addition, there is the question of the

political will to commit resources to such an educational enterprise. There are many powers and influences both within and outside the educational system which continue to remain uncommitted to permanent education largely out of fear that their own particular interests will somehow be threatened. Such resistance will come from the spheres of the economics and politics. From the economic system, because of the integration of education and work; from the political sphere because of the idea of democratic community participation in the control of education.

Within an education system itself there may be many areas of resistance. The concept of professionalism can be a barrier to co-operation between the organised education systems and other agencies of the community. Teachers may not recognise the educative roles of people whom they do not regard as professionally competent as teachers.

On the other hand, administrators may be reluctant to allow the individual educational establishments enough freedom to adapt their programmes to the needs of their communities, and may not welcome the participation of the community in the control of education.

Other sectors of society too could offer resistance, trade unions, for instance, may be apprehensive about the effect on wages and working conditions of an expansion of the labour force by student workers entering the enterprises on a part-time basis; privately supported organisations may fear a lessening of their independence if they co-operate closely with public institutions.

In summary, for many reasons, it is inevitable that there will be some forces opposing the educational changes that are called for by the social changes of our times.

Nevertheless, there are many pressures within modern

societies which are favourable to permanent education, which means that the struggle between those resisting change and those promoting the idea of permanent education will perhaps intensify in many countries.

Many of these factors became evident in the examination of the country case studies. In the case of Cuba it was shown how the massive expansion of education after 1959 coincided with not only the popularisation of the idea of permanent education, but also the requirements of the new regime's mobilisational approach. Considerable innovation and experimentation have been evident in Cuba, generally with the large-scale support of the population.

In the case of the German Democratic Republic, a more developed socialist regime, one can see the elaboration of a well-structured educational system which expresses many of the features of permanent education within an industrialised society. The most outstanding feature of the German Democratic Republic system is the considerable provision of pre-school education, which is widely accepted as being the most developed provision in Europe (32). In addition the provision of General and Polytechnical schooling guarantees a solid foundation upon which later studies and training can be built. Adult education is another of the main features of education in this country. Under the system of adult education everybody who already pursues his profession, every working person is given the opportunity to improve his knowledge and reach a higher degree of qualification, be it on the job or in his spare time. The system, of course, does not set any age limit: anyone can benefit according to his own interest and in a way which benefits him/her and society most (33).

In the case of England and Wales the sheer diversity of

provision is an outstanding feature of this educational system, although the imminent reforms may well modify this pattern. The system of England and Wales is highly developed and diverse, with sound coverage of the different levels and types of provision. Some forms of education however, have attracted world-wide attention, not least the innovative Open University which has been imitated in several other countries. As might be expected a country of the level of economic development of England and Wales can afford to build and sustain a rich assortment of educational services. However, problems certainly exist in the provision of schooling, for example, in the inner cities, and considerable expansion of availability of post-compulsory education is possible. Also, adult education called by some people 'the cinderella' of the education service, due to reasons such as the minimal proportion of the educational budget that this level of education receives ("while 73 per cent of the national education budget is spent on schools, adult education gets only 0.66 per cent") (34). In addition the fact that most workers receive absolutely no paid release for education being women, black people and unskilled people the least likely ever to have had any opportunity for paid release, etc.

Finally, in the case of Chile, one can perceive that permanent education has limited prospects in a country whose direction is being shaped by political and economic forces which see no particular validity in the permanent education concept. In many ways the military government has sought to reduce educational expectations and demands while the liberalisation of the economy has brought about the growth of unskilled labour opportunities which make no great demand on the educational system. The tendency for much popular and adult education in Latin America to be

heavily politicised has also meant that the military regime has clamped down on many adult/nonformal educational ventures.

Comparisons between the four countries under review have revealed a number of similarities and differences. With the exception of Chile all of the countries seem to be well on the way towards implementing the idea of permanent education, though in different styles and degrees. It has been shown that considerable similarities exist between Cuba and the German Democratic Republic despite the different levels of socio-economic development; this suggests that ideological and political factors can to some degree overshadow other areas of dissimilarity. However, when one compares Cuba with England and Wales one can see immediately that permanent education is being pursued quite differently in these countries. Indeed, in England and Wales, the concerted pursuit of permanent education is difficult to envisage, probably due to the decentralised and disparate character of educational provision. This dissimilarity also exists between England and Wales and the German Democratic Republic for similar reasons.

Despite many differences (in economic system, in political structure and style, and in ideology), it is possible to detect some similarities between Cuba and Chile owing to the shared Iberian heritage. This is reflected in the actual content of education to some extent and in teaching styles, for example, the rather old-fashioned teacher-centred classroom style, the emphasis on intellectualism, memorisation, and verbalism, despite some of the efforts in both countries to overcome these deficiencies/weaknesses.

Regarding people who are introducing changes it might be useful to suggest that it is important not to forget that they will have to consider carefully strategies of change that are appropriate to the particular circumstances of their own countries without forgetting that the success or failure of an educational change

depends very much on the national circumstances into which it is introduced.

Putting a system of permanent education into practice will mean that responsibilities will have to be shared out between government, educational institutions and the political and cultural bodies of the whole nation.

On the other hand the need is not to overturn the existing education system, but to build on it. Extensive and even radical reforms in the education systems could be brought about with minimum disruption if a sufficient number of teachers and policy-makers in all fields of education were made aware of those new contexts for their work which are implicit in the permanent education concept. These contexts include new kinds of schooling, new approaches to post-school education, and new professional activities.

Future society will be a 'learning society'. The function of education has been redefined as one of the most outstanding services to public welfare and society as a whole should work towards that end.

Permanent education is a response to a world undergoing constant modification. The idea of a once-and-for-all education during a limited period of formal schooling has limited and declining relevance to societies in which change has become a dominant feature, whether it be due to economic processes, technological development or cultural diversification.

Finally, whatever the future of permanent education may be, the fact remains that it expresses an aspiration that is widespread at the present time, and such a body of opinion may well come to exercise an influence which results in institutional changes.

References: Chapter Seven and Conclusions

- (1) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, La Educacion en Chile, Santiago, Chile, 1981, p. 6.
- (2) Steele, Jonathan, Socialism with a German Face. The State that came in from the Cold, The Anchor Press Ltd., London, 1977, p. 169.
- (3) Ibid., p. 11.
- (4) H.M.S.O., Better Schools, 1985, p. 2.
- (5) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, La Educacion en Chile, Santiago, 1979, p. 14.
- (6) Ministerio de Educacion de Cuba, Cuba. Organizacion de la Educacion, La Habana, 1981, p. 10.
- (7) Berube, R. Maurice, Education and Poverty. Effective Schooling in the United States and Cuba, Greenwood Press, Westport, Connecticut 1984, pp. 130-131.
- (8) Childs, David, The G.D.R. Moscow's German Ally, Allen and Unwin, London, 1983, p. 172.
- (9) Steele, Jonathan, op.cit., p. 173.
- (10) Evans, Keith, The Development and Structure of the English School System, Hodder and Staughton, London, 1985, p. 126.
- (11) Panorama D.D.R. Documentation, D.D.R. 1054, Berlin, 1.9.42/6.4 p. 12.
- (12) Panorama D.D.R. Introducing the G.D.R., Fifth revised edition, Translated by Intertex, Dresden, G.D.R. 1976, pp. 199-200.
- (13) Ministerio de Educacion de Cuba, Cuba. Organizacion de la Educacion, La Habana 1981, p. 13.
- (14) H.M.S.O. The Further Education Act, 1985.
- (15) Cowen, R. and McLean, M. (editors), International Handbook of Education Systems, Vol. III, University of London, Institute of Education, 1984, pp. 642-643.
- (16) Schneider, E. Bernard, The G.D.R. The History, Politics, Economy and Society of East Germany, translated by H. Adomeit and R. Clarke. C. Hurst and Company, London, 1978, p. 74.
- (17) Ibid.
- (18) Panorama D.D.R. Documentacion, D.D.R. 1054, Berlin, 1.9.42/6.4 p. 16.
- (19) Schneider E. Bernard, op.cit., p. 74.

- (20) Ministerio de Educacion de Cuba, Cuba. Organizacion de la Educacion, La Habana, 1981, p. 14.
- (21) Woodley, A., Wager, L., Slowey, M., Hamilton, M. and Fulton, O., Choosing to Learn, Open University Press, 1987, p. 44.
- (22) Panorama D.D.R., Documentacion D.D.R. 1054, Berlin, 1.9.42/6.4 p. 21.
- (23) D.E.S. The Educational System of England and Wales, H.M.S.O., 1985, p. 53.
- (24) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, La Educacion en Chile, Santiago, Chile, 1981, p. 32.
- (25) Schneider, Gottfried, "Adult Education in the German Democratic Republic", Prospects Vol. VII, No. 2, 1977, pp. 267-268.
- (26) Panorama D.D.R. Documentacion, D.D.R. Berlin, 1.9.42/6.4 p. 13.
- (27) Schneider, Gottfried, op.cit., p. 269.
- (28) Leiner, Marvin, "Cuba's Schools: 25 Years Later", in S. Halebsky and J.M. Kirk (editors), Cuba: Twenty-five Years of Revolution, 1959-1984, Praeger, New York, 1985, p. 42.
- (29) Salas, Irma, Chile y su Educacion, Santiago, Chile, 1969, p. 96.
- (30) La Educacion en los Cien Anos de Lucha, Havana-Pueblo y Educacion, 1968, p. 108.
- (31) Cropley, A.J. and Dave, R.H., Lifelong Education and the Training of Teachers, Pergamon Press, 1978, pp. 13-14.
- (32) Steele, Jonathan, op.cit., p. 11.
- (33) Schneider, Gottfried, op.cit., pp. 264-267.
- (34) Mace, Jane and Yarnit, Martin, (editors), Time off to Learn: Paid Educational Leave and Low Paid Workers, Methuen, 1988.

(A) A CHILEAN MODEL OF PERMANENT EDUCATION:
THE UNIFIED NATIONAL SCHOOL (1)

(1) A General View

The long-range perspective that enlightens the new educational policy presupposes the construction of a humanistic society, based on the development of the productive powers, the overcoming of economic, technological and cultural dependence, in the establishment of new property relations and, in an authentic democracy, social justice supported by the exercise of power for the people.

To this conception of national development corresponds an educational system quantitatively and qualitatively different, one which embraces the population as a whole and not only the new generations. In other words, a national system that makes a reality of the individual's educational attention from nativity until old age, because in all stages of an individual's development there are needs that can be and must be attended to through education. That is 'permanent education'.

Permanent education is the unique answer to the request of a society that goes very quickly towards the twenty-first century where scientific knowledge and technology, economic relations and social forms are renewed so quickly that formal education is soon obsolete.

With these objectives the national system of education will be supported in the most modern cultural, scientific and technological attainments for planning in integration with the global planning of the society according to the criteria of unity, diversification and democratisation.

The building of the National System of Education will

take as a start the legacy from traditional education. So it will be necessary to transform the present levels, such as, nursery, basic and middle education in the Regular Education Area and, build the Extra-school Education Area to look after the educational needs of that sector of the population which has been left unattended to by the formal education.

The Regular Education Area has as its aims the provision of general polytechnical and professional formation according to students psychological development.

The Extra-school Education Area would be built through the coordination of the work carried out by the Adult Education Services of Ministry of Education, the Universities, INACAP*, Councils, Trade Unions, community, cultural, political and religious organisations, mass media and productive enterprises.

The planning of this area would be very flexible. In the first place it will take into account the people not attended to by education; illiterates; the wastage of regular education; the workers that need cultural and technological improvement; the physically and socially handicapped, etc.

All this without forgetting the needs of the people that had a more or less complete regular education.

The division into two areas is intended as a transitory characteristic the intention is to build only one system as a whole.

The universities will be higher research centres, creative and teaching centres where entrance will be possible through the regular system of education and from the world of work after attaining the necessary academic level.

* I.N.A.C.A.P. = National Institute for Professional Training

The Unified National School will be inserted in the Regular Education Area of the National System and will offer integral educative attention to new generations of children and adolescents from the nursery until they enter the world of work to superior studies or towards a combination of both.

(2) Foundations

The Unified National School is built to solve in a positive way the deep structural crisis of the education, which has lasted for a long time and is expressed in:

- The contradiction between the socialisation process of the economic, social and political relations and the incapacity of the educational system to give answer to this process.
- The contradiction between the ever increasing popular pressure to participate in the national processes and an authoritative, competitive and traditional educational system.
- The contradiction between the permanent desire of the people to obtain a more just social order and an educational system which is discriminatory and unjust.
- The contradiction between the ever increasing requirements of science and technology and, the incapacity of scientific and technical evolution of the present educational system.
- The contradiction between a society that wants to base its culture upon the work ethic and the national wealth and, an education that despises work and admires consumption as a sign of social prestige and dignity.
- The contradiction between the necessity of people's occupational qualifications as a basic requirement to improve the economic system's productivity and an educa-

tional system that despises productive work and does not give the population a capacity to practice this.

- The contradiction between the needs of planning, organization and administration of a democratic society and the centralised and authoritative administration of the present educational system.
- The contradiction between the necessity of a scientific and technical accelerated development and the absorption of the University in the task of allotting to everybody a profession because the educational system does not prepare people for a working life.

(3) Characterisation

The Unified National School will be:

National because it is born from the intellectual, social and material efforts of the Chilean community and because it will contribute to support our identity and sovereignty.

Unified because it will unite the processes of psychological and social development of the human being, it will develop a culture based between theory and practice and between education and life, and will be building in and from the community.

Diversified because it will attend the different needs of national and individual development in a harmonious manner.

Democratic because its development will be based in the community's participation, and, because it will oppose any discrimination.

Pluralistic because no political or religious doctrine will be imposed.

Productive because it will give value to socially useful

work and will develop in the students a productive mentality and the idea of solidarity.

Integrated to the community because it will contribute to the development of the community giving birth to a new culture, and the educative process of its people.

Scientific and technological because it will give primary importance to the natural and social sciences, and technology in the school curriculum, as a means of improving the education.

Humanistic because it will support a united conception of culture and will try to form the new Chilean generations in an integral and harmonious way.

Planned because it will be built according to the general framework of the national development, planning, making good use of the society's resources to fulfil its objectives.

(4) Objectives

General Objectives

To set up the Unified National School the government intends to fulfil the following objectives:

- To contribute to supporting the new social system and to promote the real participation of the majority in the construction of a new society, making each Chilean aware of the social changes taking place.
- To develop the scientific and technological capacity of the people to make the participation society a reality.
- To make sure that the access and enjoyment of the culture and education is open to everybody, making the right to education a reality for every Chilean.
- To give the educational system the necessary flexibility and capacity that allows a permanent activity of planning

and evaluation of the different aspects of the educational process.

- To orientate the educational process in the principles of unity, theory and practice and the study and productive work which would allow people to overcome under-development, and create an authentic Chilean culture.
- To make possible in the Universities the development of science and technology at higher levels. The entrance to the universities will have to be supported by the objective measurement of people's capacity from the creation of real conditions of equality in the context of a democracy.

Specific Objectives

From the pedagogic point of view the Unified National School aims to establish a harmonious personality development in Chilean children and adolescents, to make of them active builders of society.

So, the Unified National School will guarantee intellectual, physical, moral, aesthetic and technological development by an adequate combination of general and polytechnical education which will prepare the students for a working activity.

- To develop in the students' abilities, concepts, habits, opinions, attitudes and values favourable to collective work, democratic living together and, social compromise.
- To aim at the creation of adequate health conditions for all the population and especially students through sporting activities, sanitary education, seminars, etc.
- To direct attention to work values as an active element in the new society creating in young people a sense of respect for physical work leaving aside the idea of physical

work as an inferior level activity.

- To create a national consciousness free and sovereign to seek with Latin American countries and all the world good relations of international life-sharing.
- To accentuate the sense of nationality through the cultivation of values, and elements of the universal culture and to allow the people's participation in art, literature, sciences, technology, and the mass media.
- To develop in young people a scientific conception of society, man and nature, that ensures an effective participation in social development.
- To contribute to harmonious personality development in the values of humanism.
- To give a general and polytechnical education according to the needs of national and regional planning, making possible an active participation of young people in working life.
- To contribute to changing the consumer's mentality, into a human solidarity's spirit.
- To attend to the needs of regional and local growth as a way of rooting young people in their own region.

(5) Structure

It will be the duty of correspondingly the Unified National School to attend to nursery and general and polytechnical education.

Nursery education

Children from birth up to the age of six will be attended to in nurseries and infant gardens. These institutions will depend on the Ministry of Education in everything regarding educational

activities; professional's efficiency and quality, and in general the scientific guidance of the process of development in children in the most important period of their lives.

The content of this educational level will have to constitute the fundamental base of an integral individual's formation. There will have to be the maximum relationship between this level and general and polytechnical education.

The action of nursery education will be extended to parents, family and the community through integrated and permanent programmes of familiar education.

General and Polytechnical Education

General and Polytechnical education will create the conditions so that students, teachers and the community are able to participate in the collective creation of cultural goods that our society needs.

This educational level will help to acquire the scientific principles of the most important branches of production of goods; the theory and practice of technology and knowledge; and the ways of solving the social problems that the country faces. To achieve this a relationship will be necessary between school and life; education and production; and theory and practice.

This educational level will serve students from six to 18 years of age. It will last for 12 years and will be a continuous process with a proper curricular organisation.

To facilitate the curriculum and to permit better planning this educational level will be structured in four age spans:

- (1) From first to fourth years, where the curricula content will be organised in an integrated manner (Unities).

- (2) From fifth to sixth years the integrated system will have the organisation of content for disciplines and subjects.
- (3) From seventh to eighth years the curriculum will be organised for subjects and disciplines. Here the guidance process will be emphasised.
- (4) From ninth to twelfth years the curriculum will be structured in three branches: common, elective and, specialised, giving great importance to technological formation.

These organisation models will be present throughout the educational process. In each span one or two of these will have special relevance according to the characteristics of students' psycho biological and social development.

The division into one year courses is not definitive, other forms of curricula organisation will be sought, for example, half year; groups of years, levels, etc.

The following are some specific curricula characteristics at this educational level:

- The curriculum, the organisation and the administration of the Unified National School will allow the students in the first eight years to choose her/his activities. That is, to develop aptitudes, abilities and special interests and to facilitate recuperations.
- The general formation and the experiences obtained from the study-work process and voluntary work in the community will enable the student to continue studies or to start the familiar democratic and productive life of the community.
- The technological formation will not come only from school laboratories and workrooms, but also from industries and

community services.

From the first year the guidance activities will be emphasised to favour the knowledge of all technological areas and so to observe and to record the experiences and priorities of each student.

The guidance process will reach its height in the ninth year when the students will know all the specialities that the Chilean occupational field offers.

The aims of the three branches from the ninth to the twelfth year are the following:

- (a) The common branch will ensure a minimum cultural base that allows students to continue studying, or incorporation into familiar and community life.
- (b) The elective branch has as its objectives to allow the students to choose curricula contents according to aptitudes, interests and abilities.
- (c) The specialised branch will take the professional subjects and the corresponding practical activities.

In the tenth year, each student will decrease his technological activity to only one area plus common and elective branches. So, as the theoretical knowledge of the area increases so will the supervised practices in the different specialities that the area embraces.

During the eleventh and twelfth year the student, besides common and elective branches, will concentrate on the technology of only one speciality.

Evaluations and later studies will allow educational authorities to decide if a speciality is to be advanced or postponed, or whether there is a need to create a thirteenth year for the more complex specialities.

From nursery education it will be necessary to have an evaluation process whose results will be kept on record.

For students that leave the regular education system before finishing it there will be special courses that will allow him/her to obtain a qualification.

The students that for any reason must abandon school will be able to re-enter at the appropriate level according to development obtained out of school.

When the process is finished the students will receive the title of sub-technician or medium level technician according to the case, and a certificate that proves her/his attainment and a general view about the different aspects of his/her personality.

(6) Unified National School's Organic Structure

The general organic form of the Unified National School will be 'Educational Complexes' whose jurisdiction, in general, will coincide with the Local Education Councils.

All state schools of an Educational Complex will have a unified directive with autonomy of development planning. In practice the present schools will be considered as different buildings of a great unified school.

The first complex will be set up in some communities according to geographic, economic and social differences of our country.

When the process starts, the 'complexes' will be integrated by basic and middle state schools and will have to include activities from extra-regular area and nursery level.

The Unified National School might also take the form of a complete 'Educational Unit' which will work in some building. These 'Units' will be set up primarily in rural or industrial

towns or areas in which the economic, social and educational structure presents adequate conditions.

The present 'Consolidated Schools' will have to be organised as a complete 'Educational Unit' and/or to be integrated into 'Educational Complexes'.

In the curricula planning of Complexes and complete 'Educational Units' the educational possibilities and opportunities offered by community and production activities will be considered.

Because of the unequal economic development and unequal occupational market for some professions Regional or National Unified Centres will be created which together with common and elective plans, will have special plans corresponding to complex specialities or whose production field is very concentrated geographically speaking.

These kinds of centres will be incorporated into an Educational Complex for administration and everybody will have entry to it.

The educational authorities, at regional level, will study the procedures to associate the Educational Complex or Complete Educational Unit to a University which will guarantee the research, and the in-service teaching training.

The performance of Educational Complexes and Complete Educational Units will be planned, organised and evaluated for technical committees composed of teachers, community organisations, productive centres and the associated University. These committees will be supervised by the Local Education Council.

The basic schools that will be integrated into the Educational Complex ought to have, in three years time at least, the six first years of general and polytechnical education.

The Unified National School will be co-educational.

The private education recognised by the State will maintain its present administrative organisation and all its duties, but will have to adopt the contents and curricula structure of Unified National School. To favour the new curricula forms' implementation the State will offer private education the same resources and facilities as the state education, as for example, in-service teacher training, technical help, free school-books, use of installations and personnel of social area or public services, etc.

It will also be possible to have agreements between the State and private schools for the common use of educational resources. The private schools will be able to be incorporated freely into the Educational Complexes without losing their status as private schools.

(7) Action and Requirement to set up the Unified National School

Universal and Progressive Educational Attendance

When the Unified National School is established the educational opportunities offered to the community will be increased. A systematic programme oriented to the universalisation of educational attention will have to be developed. Besides measures adopted in the extra-regular education area it will be necessary to adopt other measures, for example: because of the government's social policy an increase, almost an explosion of school demand is expected, especially in the lower school levels and to answer these natural increases of school demands it will be necessary for the Unified National School to be suitably prepared.

In spite of statistics showing that in the first school levels the indexes are nearly up to 100 per cent, reality shows that there are a great number of children without school attendance.

The government has taken as an objective that in Chile no children will remain without schooling.

Constitution of Unified National School Process

First stage

During the first year the following steps are considered in the Unified National School constitution process:

- Curricula innovations in four courses of system: The students that start the First Middle year will take on in April and May those studies corresponding to the scientific-humanistic branch or the general plan of the technical-professional branch.

On the 1st of June the First Middle Unified year will start. Its definitive curriculum will depend on parents', students', mass organisations' and teachers' contributions and the final evaluation corresponding to this academic year.

From the second half of the year the work at national level will be started with the amended courses of 1st, 5th and 7th levels, the first courses on each stage which the Unified National School will be structured on.

- Generalised exercises of incorporation to productive work and community life: The incorporation of productive work with the school curriculum, and school life with community life are new elements and its setting up requires an experimentation phase.

- Unified National School's new curriculum elaborations:

During the first year the plan of studies for the whole system, and the programmes for the courses being set up in this first and second years will be elaborated. The elaboration process will have to take into account teachers', parents', students', and mass organisations' contributions which will allow community interests and teachers' experience to be reflected in the curriculum.

- Local Exercises of Educational Complexes and a New Structure for Consolidated Schools - The integration of different schools into an Educational Complex presents organisational and administration problems whose solution is by no means easy. To counter these, a systematic and planned experimental period is required. The selection of the places where these exercises could be set up, should take into account the following criteria. The provision of,

- (a) At least one in each Regional Coordination,
- (b) Places where there are social area enterprises interested in actions of educational transformation, and
- (c) Areas that traditionally have been forgotten.

The Consolidated Schools, on the other hand, present conditions that favour their constitution as Complete Educational Units. Some of them can be useful as bases for exercises mentioned above.

- Evaluation of Amended Courses (1st - 5th; 7th and 9th)

These courses working in real conditions will give valuable information for the following process' steps. For this it is necessary to make an efficient evaluation of the most relevant aspects.

- Exercises of Liaison between Unified National School and Nursery Education - Some Unified National Schools will include nurseries and Infant Gardens with the object of setting up the total educational process and the possibility of its evaluation. This also would apply to complete Educational Units and Educational Complexes.

Second Stage (next academic year).

Setting up of courses 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th

and 10th which incorporates into the new system the courses from 1st to 10th.

- Constitution of Local Complexes in all of the Country's Councils.

Third Stage (next academic year)

- Setting up of the 11th year.
- Evaluation of school amended courses.

Fourth Stage (next academic year)

- Setting up of the 12th year.
- General evaluation and replanning of it.

Support Measures

- Setting up of the Democratisation Decree. The Democratisation Decree is one of the most important means to push forward the setting up of the Unified National School, because its dispositions facilitate the different councils' actions which will work in different levels of educational planning.

The two most relevant Unified National School's features will be its community contact and the incorporation of productive work into education; where the organised community is present the councils will be the natural link to establish relationships with labour and community sectors.

- Study, discussion and diffusion of Unified National School among teachers, parents, students and community. Consequent to the principle that education is not a problem concerning only technicians, the necessary means to obtain the permanent contribution of the community bases will be established.

- Teacher Training and In-service Teacher Training. It is logical to think that to obtain a real new school it is necessary that teachers, the main actors in this process, get a clear view of changes; for that they need improvement as professionals; so the teacher training and in-service teacher training will have unity and integration.

(a) Unified Training of New Teachers

If one believes that in the future the school will be only one, it is also logical to think that teacher training will be only one, without odious categories and its unevenness in pay and status.

(b) Directive Personnel and/or Administrators

The Unified National School will request a new structure of the school administrative system, which will also mean preparing a new type of professional and changing the present sense of schools direction and administration.

(c) Training of Polytechnical and Technological Education Teachers

It is very important to take care of the training of this kind of teacher, traditionally not enough, and very improvised.

(d) Administrative Personnel

It is possible that this kind of personnel will not be too different from today's personnel but it will be necessary that they, like all education workers are conscious of their responsibility to face the new school. To obtain this it will be necessary to prepare them as public servants, to prepare selection rules and in-service training courses.

(e) Personnel of Future Educational Sections on Industry and Services that Help in the Educational Task

The professionals, technicians or workers in charge of this work will have to be adequately trained to attain the best results in this important task.

(f) In-Service Training of Present School Directive Personnel

Because of its importance this task will pursue at least the following objectives:

- (1) To ensure that all teachers get enough information about the Unified National School to understand the importance of the reform process.
- (2) To involve this professional sector in the process because it is the one which moves the whole of the school process.
- (3) To make sure that each teacher feels himself to be an actor of this process, so that every teacher gives his contribution to the new school.
- (4) To ensure that the teacher is and feels himself to be an active element of the new school.

- Juridical - Administrative and Economic Personnel Status:

It will be essential to regularise the appointment system and the working day of school personnel (teachers, head masters, inspectors, etc.) to obtain the full-time appointment with a common base salary and the corresponding complementary benefits.

- Administration Measures. The Unified National School demands a new type of educational administration that guarantees the unity of the system, and helps the administrative decentralisation.

An organic Law of Education will have to establish

the new structure of the National System of Education, reorganise the services' administration, create the teacher's career and regulate the professional status according to the Unified National School's characteristics.

At the beginning, the Unified National School's implementation process will demand the adoption of the following measures:

- Constitution of a National Coordinator Commission with broad power from the Ministry of Education to set up the Unified National School's process.
- To maintain a permanent evaluation process in charge of Councils with the collaboration of technical organisations of the Ministry of Education.
- To give Regional Coordinations the necessary power to participate in the orientation and building of Unified National School's process.
- Issuing of the following decrees:
 - (1) Decree to modify the Educational System and create the Unified National School.
 - (2) Decree to approve the new plan of studies for the First Unified Middle course.
 - (3) Decree to approve the new plan of studies for the First, Fifth and Seventh course of Basic Education, to make them part of the Unified National School's courses.
 - (4) Decree to approve the new programme of studies for the courses above mentioned.
 - (5) Decree to declare "experimental areas" at the convenient jurisdiction to test the Educational Complexes' structure.

(B) SOME FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS SHOWN IN THIS STUDY WHICH COULD BE ADDED TO THE 1970 CHILEAN MODEL OF PERMANENT EDUCATION IN ORDER TO IMPROVE IT

Although every country is different, and an educational system must be built in each country in accordance with the concrete social and economic conditions of that country, it is useful to take into account that,

"comparative educationists have always realised that by studying other countries' systems of education they would gain greater insight into their own" (2).

So looking into educational systems shown in this study and into the 1970 Chilean model for permanent education, some features could be added in order to improve the Chilean model.

For instance if attention is paid to the 'structure' of the Unified National School it could be useful to take into account that at the pre-school level, Cuban teachers work at a ratio of eight children per teacher (3). Another important point is the existence of Schools of Parents which prepare the family for a more effective relationship with the school and a better participation in the integral formation of the children (4).

In the German Democratic Republic every working woman gets official time to come in to attend to the physical needs of her baby (5).

In England and Wales voluntary organisations and groups of parents have played an important role in the organisation of play groups.

At primary level Cuba's system has day boarding schools for children of working mothers or with social problems, and intermediate education boarding schools are for all students, but those who pass the 6th grade and do not have a high school near where they live are given priority (6).

In order to help children with a physical or mental disability in all provinces there exist Diagnosis and Orientation Centres in charge of carrying out the analysis and diagnosis of the children and youth that need to go to Special Schools (7).

In the German Democratic Republic part of the General Polytechnical school system is made up by special schools with extra lessons in selected subjects at a higher level. In this way specially talented pupils in any particular subject are given additional help and encouragement (8).

In this country too, the majority of students who finish school go on to vocational training centres which means in practice that no one starts his working life without having received training.

Some 100,000 authorised skilled workers are involved in the practical side of vocational training (9).

In order to match the personal wishes and talents of students, and the needs of society, career counselling and in-depth information to children is offered. It begins very low down in the schools and permits children to learn about a great variety of job opportunities. This service is extended to parents as well.

Organisation of Cuban higher education permits methods of entry from the national system of education (day courses and full-time basis), and through the parallel system of Adult Education, or teacher training schools or mid-level centres of technical and vocational education (day or evening courses which allows students to study without leaving their work) (10).

The training provided by Cuba's higher and further education system to students from other countries of the Third World, is a concrete expression of the country's international outlook. The young people's study programme in Cuba is geared to the specific conditions and needs in their countries. Special attention is paid

to development needs, and the kind of expertise these countries require (11).

In the German Democratic Republic there are laws by which university qualifications have been awardable after extramural correspondence and evening courses. It permits people already in employment the chance to take a course without interrupting their normal work and getting paid free time for study and paid leave for the completion of their coursework (12).

In England, 'Universities' Departments of Extramural Studies offer courses to the general public. They offer a wide variety of courses including one day and residential courses. They are open to everyone who wishes to take a short course of study under the guidance of a university appointed tutor and, unless indicated, no background knowledge is assumed.

Courses meet on a weekly basis for approximately two hours a meeting. They are held in village halls, schools, colleges and pubs as well as in the university and adult education centres.

At the University of Birmingham, for instance, it is now possible to take the courses and examinations of the first year of a degree course in some subjects, by evening study in Birmingham and then to pass into full-time education for the 2nd year at the University. No qualifications are required (13).

But, if a feature of English education could be introduced into a system of permanent education, it is indeed the Open University. This is an agency for distance learning in the grand manner, with a multi-media instructional system which is second to none, and academic standards which are at least on a par with those of conventional universities (14).

This university understood that the responsibility of any institution of higher education cannot end at graduation and was

aware of the inadequacy of initial qualifications in a technological society. The pressing need for their updating has taken care of the problems of retraining in its post-experience courses.

In Cuba there is a national plan of post-graduate refresher courses and studies programmes. Post-graduate studies programmes are aimed at specialising or reorienting general knowledge (15).

Many features of the educational system shown in this study have been highlighted here as ways of improving the 1970 Chilean model of permanent education, but the core of the educational system of the two countries which have implemented the principle of permanent education most extensively, i.e. polytechnical education, and which could produce positive benefits in Chile, seems to involve many difficulties.

It is interesting to remember that, the introduction of a technological element into general education for adolescents is something which has received serious consideration in many schools in non-socialist countries, and also that the acquisition of practical skills, through handwork in wood and metal has for a long time been established as part of general education in English schools; in Chile this idea could encounter a lukewarm reception.

The success in practice of the relationship between work and schooling would depend in large measure on the willingness of the middle class to support programmes which would involve their children working in manual occupations while attending secondary school and the first years of university. It could be very difficult to implement such a programme appealing to the middle class.

On the other hand the implementation of this principle is expensive: schools require new laboratories and workshops, teaching aids of all kinds must be designed and produced, a new kind of teacher is needed, and the whole concept of teacher-training has

to be re-examined. Many of the older teachers will need to be persuaded of the educational desirability of the new approach. Teachers will also need to be convinced that time spent in a factory or on a farm is not time that could be better spent in formal academic work, and that academic standards need not drop (16).

Another interesting example shown in this study, and one which could be useful in Chile is the Cuban literacy campaign. Again, it is unlikely that the upper and middle class would permit the enormous investment of resources and time to reach poor illiterate peasants and teach them for nine months. Although many young leftists and Christian Democrats went into the Chilean countryside during the Frei regime to work with peasants, they did so mostly only during the university holidays. They were motivated politically and not primarily to teach people how to read and write (17).

Perhaps the school in the countryside concept could find more acceptance in Chile, because it is interesting for both kinds of planner, in a capitalist country because such a school helps to finance schooling for marginal urban and rural children; for a socialist planner the concept is important not only for its self-financing aspects, but also because it helps to diminish the rural-urban gap and moves urban children into the countryside where labour shortages may be acute.

However, it is important to take into account that a nation's decisions on educational policy result from a variety of external and internal pressures. If one observes major contemporary issues, one can see that all countries, be they from east or west, north or south, use their educational system to preserve and further certain aspects of national character and heritage.

Finally it could be useful to take into account that when

a reform is being prepared and generally applied, steps must be taken to ensure that there is a free flow of information between all sectors concerned by education and continuous appraisal of the results obtained and the obstacles still to be overcome; and to bear in mind that an education system must operate as a whole system, incorporating both the compulsory education of the young and the educational rights of the old. An education system must itself be a learning system able to respond flexibly to individual and social needs and therefore able to change itself from within.

References: Appendix

- (1) Part (A) of this Appendix is the translation of a model of permanent education prepared in the Superintendencia de Educacion (Ministry of Education) Chile, in which the author of this study participated.
- (2) Holmes, B., "Trends in Comparative Education", Prospects, Vol. XV, No.3, 1985, p. 325.
- (3) Ministerio de Educacion de Cuba, Cuba: Organizacion de la Educacion, La Habana, 1981, p. 10.
- (4) Ibid., p. 20.
- (5) Panorama D.D.R. Documentacion D.D.R. Berlin, 1.9.42/6.4 p.3.
- (6) Information taken from a press conference given for Mr. J.R. Fernandez, Education Secretary for Cuba, in November 1980.
- (7) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, Cuba. Organizacion de la Educacion, 1981, p. 13.
- (8) Panorama D.D.R. Documentacion D.D.R. Berlin, 1.9.42/6.4 p.10.
- (9) Page, John, "Education under the Honeckers" in David Child's (editor) Honecker's Germany, Allen and Unwin, London, 1985, p. 61.
- (10) Ministerio de Educacion Publica, Cuba. Organizacion de la Educacion, 1981, p. 14.
- (11) Prisma-Latin American Focus, No. 8. Monthly Review of Latin America and World News, Published in Cuba, November, 1983.
- (12) Panorama D.D.R. Documentacion, D.D.R. Berlin, 1.9.43/6.4 p. p. 16.
- (13) University of Birmingham, Department of Extramural Studies, Courses for Adults, Spring-Summer, 1986.
- (14) Richmond, W. Kenneth, Education in Britain since 1944, Methuen and Co., Ltd., 1978, p. 139.
- (15) Gramma, Educacion en los ultimos cinco Anos, La Habana, Noviembre, 16, 1980.
- (16) Smart, Kenneth F., "The Polytechnical Principle" in King, E.J. (editor), Communist Education, Methuen and Co., Ltd., London, 1963, p. 175.
- (17) Carnoy, Martin and Wertheim, Jorge, "Cuba: Training and Mobilisation", in John Simmonds (editor) Better Schools. International Lessons for Reform, Praeger, 1983, p. 239.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

(1) Books and Monographs

- Aggarwal, J.C., An Introduction to World Education, Arya Books Depot, New Delhi, India, 1965.
- Avery, William P. et al (eds.), Rural Change and Public Policy: Eastern Europe, Latin America and Australia, Pergamon Press, London, 1980.
- Barracough, G., Origins of Modern Germany, Bladewell, Oxford, (2nd edition), 1947.
- Bell, R., Fowler, G. and Little, K. (eds.), Education in Great Britain and Ireland, Open University set Book, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1973.
- Bethell, Leslie (ed.), The Cambridge History of Latin America, Vol. IV, Cambridge University Press, New York, 1986.
- Berube, R. Maurice, Education and Poverty. Effective Schooling in the United States and Cuba, Greenwood Press, Westport, Connecticut, 1984.
- Blakemore, H. and Smith, Clifford T. (eds.), Latin America: Geographical Perspectives, Methuen, London and New York, (2nd edition), 1983.
- Bourne, Peter, Castro: A Biography of Fidel Castro, Macmillan, London, 1987.
- Brock, Colin and Lawlor, Hugh, (eds.), Education in Latin America, Croom Helm, London, 1985.
- Brooksbank, K. and Ackstine, A.E. (Eds.), Educational Administration, Harlow, Longman, (2nd edition), 1984.
- Bule, P., Notes on the Current Cultural and Educational System in Chile, World University Service, London, 1976.
- Burges, T., Education After School, Victor Gollancz Ltd., London, 1977.
- Campos, H. Fernando, Desarrollo Educativo 1810-1960, Editorial Andres Bello, Santiago, 1960.
- Castro, P., La Educacion en Chile de Frei a Pinochet, Ediciones Sigueme, Salamanca, Espana, 1977.
- C.E.P.A.L., Cuba: Estilo de Desarrollo y Politicas Sociales, CEPAL, Siglo Veintiuno, Editores, Mexico, 1980.
- Childs, D., East Germany, Frederick A. Praeger, New York, 1969.
- Childs, D., The G.D.R.: Moscow's German Ally, Allen and Unwin, London, 1983.

- Clavel, C. and Schiefelbain, E., Factores que insiden en la demanda por educacion, Departamento de Economica de la Universidad de Chile, Santiago, 1977. A
- Cole, J.P., Latin America: An Economic and Social Geography, Butterworth, London, (2nd edition), 1975.
- Coombs, P.H., The World Educational Crisis: A Systems Analysis, Oxford University Press, London, 1968.
- Cropley, A.J. (eds.), Lifelong Education: A Stocktaking, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, 1979.
- Cropley, A.J. and Dave, R.H., Lifelong Education and the Training of Teachers, Unesco Pergamon Press, 1978.
- Cropley, A.J. (ed.), Towards a System of Lifelong Education. Some Practical Considerations, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, and Pergamon Press, 1980.
- Council for Cultural Cooperation, Council of Europe, Permanent Education: The Basis and Essentials, 1973.
- Council of Europe, Permanent Education, Strasbourg, 1970.
- Curnill, Pedro, Geografia de Chile, Editorial Universitaria, Santiago, 1973.
- Curle, A., Educational Strategy for Developing Societies, Tavistock Publications, London, 1970.
- Cowen, R., McLean, M. (eds.), International Handbook of Education Systems, Vol. III, Asia, Australia and Latin America, University of London Institute of Education, John Wiley and Sons, 1984.
- Curtis, S.J., History of Education in Great Britain, London: University Tutorial Press (7th edition), 1967.
- D'Aeth, R., Education and Development in the Third World, Saxon House, Lexington Books, England, 1975.
- Dave, R.H., Lifelong Education and School Curriculum, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, 1973.
- Dave, R.H., and Stieureiling, Lifelong Education and the School, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, 1973.
- Dave, R.H. (ed.), Reflections on Lifelong Education and the School, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, 1975.
- Dave, R.H. (ed.), Foundations of Lifelong Education, Unesco and Pergamon Press, 1976.
- Dent, H.C., 1870-1970 Century of Growth in English Education, Longman, London, 1970.

- Dent, H.C., The Training of Teachers in England and Wales 1800-1975, Hodder and Stoughton, London, 1977.
- Dent, H.C., Education in England and Wales, Hodder and Stoughton, London, 1977.
- Dominquez, Jorge, Cuba: Order and Revolution, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1978.
- Donahue, W., Education for Later Maturity, Whiteside and Morrow, New York, 1955.
- Dornberg, J., The Other Germany, Garden City, Doubleday Co., New York, 1968.
- Eaglesham, E.J.R., The Foundations of Twentieth Century Education in England, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1967.
- Edholm, Felicity (ed.), Education and Repression: Chile, World University Service, London, 1982.
- Edwards, Judith, Working Class Adult Education in Liverpool: A Radical Approach, Manchester Monographs, The Centre for Adult and Higher Education, University of Manchester, February 1986.
- Egana, L., y Magendzo, A., El Marco Teorico-Politico del Proceso de Descentralizacion Educativa (1973-1983), Programa Interdisciplinario de Investigaciones en Educacion (P.I.I.E.), Santiago,
- Elvin, L., (Ed.), The Educational System in the European Community: A Guide, N.F.E.R., Nelson, 1981.
- Encina, Francisco A., Resumen de la Historia de Chile, 3 vols., Editorial Ziq-Zaq, Santiago, 1956.
- Evans, K., The Development and Structure of the English School System, Hodder and Stoughton, 1985.
- Farrell, Joseph P., The National Unified School in Allende's Chile: The Role of Education in the Destruction of a Revolution, University of British Columbia Press, CERLAC, Vancouver, 1986.
- Faure, E. et al., Learning to Be, Unesco, Paris, 1973.
- Ferguson, John, The Open University from Within, University of London Press Ltd., 1975.
- Figueroa, Max, Prieto Abel, Gutierrez Raul, The Basic Secondary School in the Country: An Educational Innovation in Cuba, The Unesco Press, Paris, 1974.
- Fisher, Kathleen, B., Political Ideology and Educational Reform in Chile, 1964-1976, U.C.L.A. Latin American Center, University of California, Los Angeles, 1979.

- Flude, R. and Parrott, A., Education and the Challenge of Change, The Open University Press, 1979.
- Fragniere, G. (ed.), Education without Frontiers, Duckworth, London, 1976.
- Freire, Paulo, Education for Critical Consciousness, The 'Scabury' Press, New York, 1973.
- Freire, Paulo, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Herden and Herden, New York, 1971.
- Freire, Paulo, Cultural Action for Freedom, Penguin Education, England, 1970.
- Fruter, P., The Planner and Lifelong Education, Unesco, Paris, 1977.
- Galdames, Luis, A History of Chile, Translated and edited by Isaac Joslin Cox, Russell and Russel Inc., New York, 1964.
- Gilpi, E., A Future for Lifelong Education, Vol.1 and 2, Manchester Monograph, No. 13, 1979.
- Gillette, Arthur, Cuba's Educational Revolution, Fabian Society, London, 1972.
- Goad, L.H., Preparing of Teachers for Lifelong Education, Pergamon Press, 1984.
- Grassau, Erika y Orellana, Egidio, Desarrollo de la Educacion Chilena desde 1940 a 1957, Instituto de Investigaciones Estadisticas, Universidad de Chile, Santiago, 1959.
- Griffiths, A., Secondary School Reorganisation in England and Wales, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1971.
- Gunther, J., Inside Latin America, Greenwood Press Publishers, Westpoint, Connecticut, 1975.
- Hall, B.L., and Kidd, J.R. (eds.), Adult Learning: A Design for Action, Pergamon Press, 1978.
- Hamuy, E., El Problema Educacional del Pueblo de Chile, Editorial del Pacifico, Santiago, 1961.
- Hanhardt, A.M., The German Democratic Republic, The John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1968.
- Haverlock, R.G. and Huberman, A.M., Solving Educational Problems: the Theory and Reality of Innovation in Developing Countries, Praeger Publisher, New York, 1978.
- Hawes, H.W.R., Lifelong Education, Schools and Curricula in Developing Countries, Unesco, Hamburg, 1975.
- Hearnden, A., Education in the Two Germanies, Boulder Co., Westview, 1976.

- Heinz, Haitzer, G.D.R. - An Historical Outline, Verlag Zeit im Bild, Dresden, 1981.
- Hencke, D., Colleges in Crisis: the Reorganization of Teacher Training 1971-1977, Harmondsworth-Penguin, 1978.
- Himmelstrup, P., Robinson, J., and Fielden, D. (eds.), Strategies for Lifelong Learning: a Symposium of Views from Europe and the U.S.A., Esbjerg, Denmark, 1981.
- Holmes, B., International Yearbook of Education, Vol. XXXV, Unesco, 1983.
- Holmes, B., Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1965.
- Houghton, V., Recurrent Education - An Alternative Future? The Open University, 1974.
- Hummel, Ch., Education Today for the World of Tomorrow, Unesco, 1977.
- Husen, Torsten, The School in Question: A Comparative Study of the School and its Future in Western Society, Oxford University Press, 1979.
- Igmas, E. and Corsini, R.J. Comparative Educational Systems, F.E. Peacock Publishers, Illinois, U.S.A., 1981.
- Illich, J., After Deschooling What? Cuernavaca, Social Policy Inc., 1973.
- Illich, J., Deschooling Society, Harper and Row, New York, 1970.
- Ingram, J.B., Curriculum Integration and Lifelong Education, Unesco and Pergamon Press, 1979.
- Instituto Cubana del Libro, Education in Revolution, La Habana, Cuba, 1975.
- International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Report on Cuba, John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1951.
- Ireland, T.D., Gilpi's View of Lifelong Education, Manchester Monograph, No. 14, 1978.
- Jassup, F.W., Lifelong Learning: A Symposium on Continuing Education, Pergamon Press, 1969.
- Kallen, D., Bergtsson, J., and Dalinft, A., Recurrent Education: A Strategy for Longlife Learning, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1973.
- Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H., Power and Ideology in Education, Oxford University Press, New York, 1977.
- King, E.J., World Perspective in Education, Methuen, London, 1962.

- King, E.J. (ed.), Communist Education, Methuen and Co. Ltd., London, 1963.
- King, E.J. Other Schools and Ours, Holt Rinehart and Winston, (5th edition), London, 1979.
- Kirberg, E., Comparison of Educational Goals in Chile Before and after 1973, Working Paper, Series, No. 28, Centre for Developing Area Studies, McGill University, Montreal, 1980.
- Labarca, A., Historia de la Enseñanza en Chile, Imprenta Universitaria, Santiago, 1939.
- La Belle, T., Educational Alternatives in Latin America, University of California, Los Angeles, (U.C.L.A. Latin American Studies Series, Vol. 30), 1975.
- Laurence, B., The Administration of Education in Britain, Batsford, London, 1972.
- Lawson, J. and Silver, H., A Social History of Education in England, Methuen, London, 1973.
- Lawson, K.H., Crisis in Education, The Grey Paper, 1979.
- Lengrand, P., An Introduction to Lifelong Education, Unesco, 1970.
- Lomax, D.E. (ed.), The Education of Teachers in Britain, John Wiley and Sons, London, 1973.
- Ludz, P.C. The German Democratic Republic from the Sixties to the Seventies: A Socio-Political Analysis, Harvard University Press, 1970.
- Lynch, J., Lifelong Education and the Preparation of Educational Personnel, Unesco, 1977.
- Maltinson, V., The Western European Idea in Education, Pergamon Press, 1980.
- McCauley, Martin, The German Democratic Republic Since 1945, Macmillan Press, 1986, (reprinted).
- Mesa-Lago Carmelo, Cuba in the 1970's (2nd edition), New Mexico University Press, Albuquerque, 1978.
- Morrey, D., South America, University Tutorial Press (Sixth edition) London, 1976.
- Moore-Rivoluceri, Mina, J., Education in East Germany, Hamden, Connecticut, Anchor Books, 1973.
- Morris, A., South America, Hodder and Stoughton, 1979.
- Musgrave, P.W., Society and Education in England since 1800, Methuen, London, 1968.

- NATFHE, The Handbook of Degree and Advanced Courses, 1986.
- Nuñez, P. Ivan, Las Transformaciones Educativas bajo el Regimen Militar, 2 vols. Programa Interdisciplinario de Investigacion en Educacion (P. I. E.), Santiago, 1984.
- Nuñez, P. Ivan, Tradicion, Reformas y Alternativas Educativas en Chile, 1929-1973, Centro de Estudios Economicos y Sociales, Santiago, 1979.
- Nyerere, J.K., Freedom and Unity, Oxford University Press, 1966.
- O'Connor, James, The Origins of Socialism in Cuba, Ithaca Cornell University Press, New York, 1970.
- O.E.C.D., Education and Working Life, Paris, 1977.
- O.E.C.D., Recurrent Education: Trends and Issues, 1975.
- O.E.C.D., Education and Working Life in Modern Society, Paris, O.E.C.D. Report, 1975.
- O.E.C.D., Recurrent Education: A Strategy for Lifelong Learning, 1973.
- O.I.S.E. - U.N.E.S.C.O., Education on the Move. A Companion Volume to Learning to Be, The Unesco Press, Paris, 1975.
- Panorama D.D.R., Introducing the G.D.R., Fifth revised edition, translated by Intertext, Dresden, 1976.
- Panorama D.D.R., From the 11th Congress of the Free German Youth (2 to 5 June, 1981), 1 VI 19/6.0 Auslandspresseagentur.
- Panorama D.D.R., Vocational Training in the G.D.R., 1-X-11/6.5, Auslandspresseagentur.
- Panorama D.D.R., Education in the G.D.R., 1-IX-42/6.4., Auslandspresseagentur.
- Panorama D.D.R., Anti-Fascist Education in G.D.R. Schools, 3-III-14/6.4, Auslandspresseagentur.
- Panorama D.D.R., Workers' and Peasants' Faculties helped overcome educational privilege, 0-1-55/7.0 Auslandspresseagentur.
- Parkyn, G.W., Towards a Conceptual Model of Lifelong Education, Unesco, 1973.
- Parry, Marianne and Archer, Hilda, Pre-school Education, Schools Council Research Studies, Macmillan, 1974.
- Paterson, R.W.K., Values, Education and the Adult, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1979.
- Pearce, J., School Examinations, Collier-Macmillan, London, 1972.
- Pedley, R., The Comprehensive School, Harmondsworth-Penguin, (3rd edition) 1978.

- Pendle, G., A History of Latin America, Penguin Books, 1981.
- Perry, W., Open University: A Personal Account, The Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1976.
- Peterson, A.D.C., A Hundred Years of Education, Duckworth and Co., Ltd., London, 1971, (3rd edition).
- Piga Arturo, Crisis y Reconstrucion de la Segunda Edición, Ercilla, Santiago, 1940.
- Reimer, E., School is Dead. Alternatives in Education, New York, Doubleday, Inc., 1971.
- Richmond, W.K., Education in Britain since 1944: A Personal Retrospect, Methuen, London, 1978.
- Ryba, R., and Holmes, B. (eds.), Recurrent Education. Concepts and Policies for Lifelong Education, London: Comparative Education Society in Europe, 1973.
- Schmidt, R. and Valdes, P., Atlas. Chile y su Nuevas Provincias Publicaciones Didacticas, Santiago, 1976.
- Schneider, Eberhard, The G.D.R., The History, Politics, Economy, and Society of East Germany, Translated by H. Adomeit, and R. Clarke, C. Hurst and Company, London, 1978.
- Schiefelbein, E., and Farrell, J.P., Eight Years of Their Lives: Through Schooling to the Labour Market in Chile, Ottawa, Canada, 1982.
- Schwartz, B., Permanent Education, The Hague, Martinus Nijhoff, (Plan Europe 2000 - Project 1 Vol.8), 1974.
- Sigmund, Paul E., The Overthrow of Allende and the Politics of Chile, 1964-1976, University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburg, 1977.
- Siebert, Klein, Margrete, The Challenge of Communist Education, Columbia University Press, New York, 1980.
- Seymour, R.P., Edmond, E.L., (Eds.), Lifelong Education in a World Perspective, World Conference on Education - Istanbul, Turkey, August 14-24, 1977, Raymac Publishing, England, 1978.
- Skager, R., Lifelong Education and Evaluation Practice, Pergamon Press and Unesco, 1978.
- Skager, R., and Dave, R.H., Curriculum Evaluation for Lifelong Education, Pergamon Press and Unesco, 1978.
- S.N.T.E.C., Comite Egentivo Nacional, Tres experiencias Sobre la Politecnización en Cuba, 1966.
- S.N.T.E.C., Comite Ejecutivo Nacional, La Politecnización, 1964,

- Stamp, Sir Dudley, The World - A General Geography, Longman (19th edition), London, 1977.
- Steele, J., Inside East Germany: The State that Came in from the Cold, Urizen Books, Inc., New York, 1977.
- Steele, Jonathan, Socialism with a German Face. The State that came in from the Cold, The Anchor Press Ltd., London, 1977.
- Suarez, W., et al., Aportes Socialistas para la Construcion de la Nueva Educacion Chilena", Editorial Universitaria, Santiago, 1971.
- Townsend Coles, E.K., Adult Education in Developing Countries, Pergamon Press, (Second Edition), 1977.
- Taylor, A., (Ed.), South America, Newton Abbot, 1973.
- Ulich, R., The Education of Nations: A Comparison in Historical Perspective, Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1967.
- U.N.E.S.C.O., and the International Associations of Universities, Lifelong Education and University Resources, UNESCO-Paris, 1978.
- U.N.E.S.C.O., World Survey of Education, Vol. IV, Educational Policy, Legislation and Administration, Paris, Unesco, 1971.
- Vaisey, J., Education for Tomorrow, Penguin, 1966.
- Verlay Zeit und Bild, Geographic Manuel G.D.R., Dresden, 1980.
- Verlay Zeit un Bild, Education for Today and Tomorrow, Dresden, 1978.
- Wardle, D., English Popular Education 1780-1970, Cambridge University Press, London, 1970.
- Wheeler, H. Jr. and others, Regional Geography of the World, Holt Rinehart and Winston, (3rd edition) New York, 1975.
- Williams, G., Towards Lifelong Education: A New Role for Higher Education Institutions, Unesco, Paris, 1977.
- Woodley, A. et al., Choosing to Learn, Open University Press, 1987.
- Wynia, G.W., The Politics of Latin American Development, Cambridge University Press, 1978.
- Yeaxles, B.A., Lifelong Education, Cassell,,London, 1929.
- Zammit, A. (ed.)., The Chilean Road to Socialism, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, Sussex, 1973.

(2) Articles in Journals and Chapters in Books

- Acdo-Richmond R., Brock, C., Noguera I., "Politics and Educational Change in Chile: 1964-1980" in Broadfoot, P., Brock, C., and Tulasiewicz, W., (Eds.), Politics and Educational Change: An International Survey, Croom Helm, London, 1981, pp. 209-227.
- Acdo-Richmond, R., Noguera I., Richmond, M., "Changes in the Chilean Educational System During Eleven Years of Military Government: 1973-1984" in Brock, C., and Lawlor, H. (eds.), Education in Latin America, Croom Helm, London, 1985, pp. 163-182.
- Allen, D.W., "Alternative Schools and the Crisis of Education in Developed Countries" in Prospects Vol. 5, No.2, 1975, pp. 187-192.
- Bowers, Stephen R., "Youth Policies in the G.D.R" in Problems of Communism, Vol. XXVII, March-April, 1978, pp. 78-82.
- Bowles, S., "Cuban Education and the Revolutionary Ideology", Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 41, No.4, 1971.
- Bravo, Alfonso, "Situacion del Profesorado" in Cuadernos de Educacion, No. 92, CIDE, Diciembre 1979, pp. 322-329.
- Campbell, Margaret, "Education in Chile 1810-1842" in Journal of Interamerican Studies, Vol. 1, No.3, July 1959, pp. 353-375.
- Carnoy, M., and Werthein, J., "Cuba: Training and Mobilisation", in Simmonds, J., (ed.), Better Schools: International Lessons for Reforms, Praeger, 1983, pp. 197-247.
- Castro, Fidel, "Report on Education, 1976" in John Griffiths and Peter Griffiths (eds.), Cuba: The Second Decade, Writers and Readers Publishing Corporative, London, 1979, pp. 164-168.
- Castro, Fidel, "Report of the Central Committee of the C.P.C. to the First Congress", Havana, Department of the Revolutionary Orientation of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Cuba, 1977.
- Cogan, John J., "Cuba's Schools in the Countryside: A Model for the Developing World?", Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 60, No. 1, September 1978, pp. 30-32.
- Coombs, Philip H., "Nonformal Education: Myths, Realities, and Opportunities" in Comparative Education Review, October 1976, pp. 281-293.
- Dele on, Asher, "Adult Education as a Corrective to the Failure of Formal Education" in Prospects, Vol. VIII, No.2, 1978, pp. 169-176.

- Dominguez, Jorge I., "Cuba in the 1980's" in Problems of Communism, Vol. XXX, No.2, March-April, 1981.
- Dube, S.C., "Theories and Goals in Education: A Third World Perspective" in Prospects, Vol. VI, No.3, 1976, pp. 349-363.
- Echeverria, Rafael, "La Politica Educacional y la Transformacion del Sistema de Educacion en Chile a partir de 1973" in Chile 1973-1981, Revista Mexicana de Sociologia, FLACSO, Santiago 1983, pp. 181-208.
- Enriquez F., Edgardo, "La Lucha de Chile por la Education y la Cultura" in Signos Revista de Educacion y Cultura, Enero-Febrero, 1984, pp. 14-25.
- Fernandez, Jose Ramon, "La Calidad de la Enseñanza: Tarea de Todos", in Cuba Socialista, 9. Diciembre 1983 /Febrero, 1984, pp. 32-55.
- Figueroa Araujo, Max, "The Role of Teachers and Their Training Problems in Cuba" in Teachers of the World, 4 - 1978, pp. XI-XVI.
- Harry, Keith, "The Open University United Kingdom" in The Distance Teaching Universities edited by Greville Rumble and Keith Harry, Croom Helm, London, 1982, pp. 167-186.
- Herve, Carrier, "Will Lifelong Education Democratise Universities?" in Prospects, Vol. IX, No. 1, 1979, pp. 91-104.
- Hicter, Marcel, "Education for a Changing World" in Prospects, Vol. II, No.3, Autumn 1972, pp. 298-312.
- Hamey, E., "La Evolucion de la Educacion Elemental y el Problema Educacional" in Schiefelbein, E. and McGinn, N (Eds.), El Sistema Escolar y el Problema del Ingreso a la Universidad, C.P.U., Santiago, 1975.
- Johnston, David, "East Germany. Distinctive Features" in King, E. (ed.), Communist Education, Methuen and Col Ltd., London, 1963, pp. 200-226.
- Kallen, Denis, "University and Lifelong Education: A Crisis of Communication" in European Journal of Education, Vol. 15, No.1 1980, pp. 61-69.
- Kupisiewicz, Czeslan, "Principles for Modernising Education", in Prospects, Vol. IV, Spring, 1974, pp. 11-20.
- La Belle, Thomas J., "Goals and Strategies of Nonformal Education in Latin America" in Comparative Education Review, October 1976, pp. 328-345.
- Leiner, Marvin, "Cuba's Schools: 25 Years Later", in Halebsky, S., and Kirk, J.M., (eds.), Cuba: Twenty-five Years of Revolution, 1959-1984, Praeger, New York, 1985, pp. 27-44.

- Messmer, Williams, "Cuban Agriculture and Personnel Recruitment Policy" in Studies in Comparative International Development, Vol. XIX, No.1, Spring, 1984, pp. 3-29.
- MacArthur, Brian, "An Interim History of the O.U." in Turnstall, Jeremy (ed.), The Open University Open, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1974.
- Núñez, P., Ivan, "Nuevos Objetivos, Planes y Programas en la Escuela Basica" in Cuadernos de Educacion, No. 97, CIOE, 1979, pp. 160-165.
- Núñez, P., Ivan, "La Restructuración del Sistema Educativo: integración, continuidad y diversificación?" in Cuadernos de Educacion, No. 92, CIOE, 1979, pp. 322-329.
- Page, John, "Education under the Honeckers" in Childs, D., (Ed.), Honecker's Germany, Allen and Unwin, London, 1985, pp. 50-65.
- Paulston, R., "Cuban Rural Education: A Strategy for Revolutionary Development", in Foster, P., and Sheffield, J.R., (Eds.), Education and Rural Development: The World Yearbook of Education, 1974, Evans Bros., 1973.
- Paulston, R., "Problems of Education at Reform and Rural Development in Latin America: Some Lessons from Cuba", in Avery, W.P., et al. (Eds.), Rural Change and Public Policy: Eastern Europe, Latin America and Australia, Pergamon Press, London, 1980, pp. 156-175.
- Read, Gerald, H., "The Cuban Revolutionary Offensive in Education", in Comparative Education Review, June 1970, pp. 131-143.
- Read, Gerald, H., "Persisting Problems in Cuban Education", in Phi Delta Kappan, February, 1972, pp. 352-357.
- Read, Gerald, H. "New Policies for Cuban Education", in School and Society, New York, 1969, p. 288.
- Richmond, Mark, "The Transformation of Education in Socialist Cuba", Unpublished Seminar Paper (Master of Education Programme), Institute of Education, University of Hull, January 1982.
- Richmond, Mark, "Preparation for the Transition from School to Work in Socialist Cuba", in Watson, Keith (ed), Youth, Education and Employment: International Perspectives, Croom Helm, London, 1982, pp. 100-121.
- Richmond, Mark, "Education and Revolution in Socialist Cuba: The Promise of Democratisation", in Brock, Colin and Lawlor, Hugh, (Eds.), Education in Latin America, Croom Helm, London, 1985, pp. 9-49.
- Richmond, Mark, "Educational Change in Postrevolutionary Cuba: A Critical Assessment", in International Journal of Educational Development, Vol.7, No.3, 1987, pp. 191-204

- Rodriguez, C., "Chile: System of Education", in Husen, T., and Postlethwaite, T.N. (eds.), International Encyclopedia of Education, Vol.2, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1985, pp. 696-701.
- Salas, L., "Juvenile Delinquency in Postrevolutionary Cuba: Characteristics and Cuban Explanations", in Horowitz, I.L., (Ed.), Cuban Communism, 4th edition, New Brunswick, N.J., 1981.
- Schneider, Gottfried, "Adult Education in the German Democratic Republic" in Prospects, Vol. VII, No.2, 1977, pp. 263-271.
- Schiefelbein, E., "Reforma de la Educacion Chilena en 1964-1970", in Educacion Hoy: Perspectivas Latinoamericanas, No.6, pp. 33-34.
- Schniefelbein, E. and Farrell, J.P., "Women, Schooling and Work in Chile: Evidence from a Longitudinal Study", in Comparative Education Review, June 1980, pp. 160-179.
- Smart, Kenneth F., "The Polytechnical Principle" in King, Edmund, (Ed.), Communist Education, Methuen and Co., Ltd., London, 1963, pp. 153-176.
- Thompson, John M., "Teachers Organisation and Educational Reforms", in Educational Reform: Experiences and Prospects, Unesco, 1979, pp. 90-103.
- Timar, Janos, "The New Crisis in Education Seen in the Developing Countries", in Prospects, Vol. 5, No.2, 1975, pp. 397-411.
- Wertheim, J., "Cuba: System of Education" in Husen, T. and Postlethwaite, T.N. (eds.), The International Encyclopedia of Education, Vol.2, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1985, pp. 1124-1129.
- Wiegand, Pablo, "Education and Social Class, Disparity and Conflict in Latin America, with special reference to Minority Groups in Chile", in Comparative Education, Vol. 19, No.2, 1983, pp. 213-218.
- Zimmerman, H., "The German Democratic Republic in the 1970's", in Problems in Communism, XXVII, March-April, 1978, pp. 1-40.

(3) Official DocumentsMinistry of Education - Cuba:

- Revolucion y Educacion, 1970.
- Report of the Republic of Cuba to the 38th International Conference on Public Education, 1981.
- Batalla del Sexto Grado (Consejo Nacional de Educacion), (no date).
- Batalla por la Matricula, la Asistencia y la Mejor Organizacion Escolar. (Consejo Nacional de Educacion) (no date).

Republica de Cuba:

Political Constitution of the Republic of Cuba.

Ministry of Education - German Democratic Republic:

- Act on the Integrated Socialist Educational System of the German Democratic Republic. Berlin, 1972.
- Development of Public Education in the German Democratic Republic, 35th Session of the International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, 1975.

German Democratic Republic:

- The Constitution of the German Democratic Republic (3rd edition) Translated by Intertext, Berlin, 1974.
- Law and Justice in a Socialist society. The legal system of the German Democratic Republic. Panorama D.D.R. Translated by Intertext, Berlin, 1976.
- Law and Legislation in the German Democratic Republic. Lawyers' Association of the G.D.R. Berlin, 1983.

Department of Education and Science publications - London, H.M.S.O.:

- Education Act, 1944.
- Circular 10/65 on The Organisation of Secondary Education, 1965.
- Report of James Committee on Teacher Education and Training, 1972.
- White Paper on Education, A Framework for Expansion, 1972.
- Report of Warnock Committee on Special Education Needs, 1978.
- White Paper on Teaching Quality, 1983.

H.M.S.O. (Cont.):

- The Educational System in England and Wales, 1980 and 1985.
- Better Schools, 1985.
- The Further Education Act, 1985.

Ministry of Education - Chile:

- Politica Educacional del Gobierno de la U.P. Medidas Inmediatas. (Hugo Araya) Superintendencia de Educacion, October 1970.
- Programa Basico del Gobierno de la Unidad Popular, Imprenta Horizonte, Santiago, 1970.
- Aportes a la formulacion de una politica educacional (Suarez, W., Nuñez, I., Videla, L.), Ministerio de Educacion. Ediciones Cultura y Publicaciones, Santiago, 1971.
- Debate Nacional sobre Educacion, Santiago, 1973.
- Informe sobre Escuela Nacional Unificada. Santiago, 1973.
- Lineas Generales de la Politica Educacional del Gobierno de Chile. Santiago, 1974.
- Políticas Educacionales del Gobierno de Chile. Santiago, 1975.
- Decretos y Disposiciones Acerca de Educacion. Santiago, 1975.
- La Educacion en Chile 1976-78. Informe de Chile a la 37th. reunion de la Conferencia Internacional de Educacion en Ginebra, 1979.
- La Educacion en Chile 1979-1980. Informe de Chile a la 38th reunion de la Conferencia Internacional de Educacion de Ginebra, 1981.

Republica de Chile:

- Constitucion Politica de la Republica de Chile. Promulgada el 18 de Septiembre de 1925. Imprenta Universitaria, Santiago, 1925.
- Declaracion de Principios de la Junta de Gobierno Editorial Nacional Gabriela Mistral, Santiago, 1974.
- Circular N° 127/2 sobre Divulgacion de Materia de Seguridad Nacional en Establecimientos Educativos, Santiago, 1974.
- Augusto Pinochet - Directivas Presidenciales sobre Educacion Nacional. Base para la Politica Educacional.

Republica de Chile (cont.)

Division Nacional de Comunicacion Social, Santiago, 1979.

Instituto Nacional de Estadisticas, Imprenta INE:

- Compendio Estadistico, 1977
- Compendio Estadistico 1978
- Compendio Estadistico 1979
- Compendio Estadistico 1980
- Compendio Estadistico 1981
- Compendio Estadistico 1982

(4) Other DocumentsThe Open University:

Guide for Applicants for 1986 - B.A. Degree Courses,
The Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1986.

(5) Newspapers and Magazines

Gramma, Weekly Review, "The Battle to Improve Quality in Our
Educational System", Havana, November 16, 1980.

Gramma, Weekly Review, "Cuba the Threshold of Year 25", Havana,
July 17, 1983.

Blum, Leonor, "Fidel's Other Revolution", The Times Educational
Supplement, 22.11.85, p. 22.

Smith, Pat, "A Revolutionary Growth", The Times Educational Supplement,
1.2.85.

Smith, Pat, "Time to Call in the Doctor", The Times Educational
Supplement, 23.1.87, p. 19.

Ruiz-Tagle, P. Jaime, "Desarticulacion de la Educacion Nacional" in
Mensaje, No. 291, Agosto 1980, pp. 381-384.

El Mercurio, "Aprobada Nueva Ley Sobre Las Universidades
Chilenas", 3 de Enero 1981, p. 10.

(6) Unpublished Theses and Dissertations

Fisher, Nelson, Chile, the Evolution of an Educational System,
Ph.D. Thesis, University of Nottingham, 1974.

Vivalo, J. Rudecindo, Education in Chile under the Allende Government,
Ed.D. Dissertation, Temple University, 1978.

