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Perspectives in Education: Journal of the Faculty of Education of the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, and the Johannesburg College of Education 6(1)

Wally Morrow; Eddie Webster; Jane Hofmeyr; John Lewin; Terry Dachs ...

1982-07
University of the Witwatersrand
https://hdl.handle.net/10539/29004
Morrow, W. (Ed.) (1982, July). Perspectives in Education: Journal of the Faculty of Education of the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, and the Johannesburg College of Education, 6(1). Identifiers (ISSN): 0258-2236

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PERSPECTIVES IN EDUCATION



Vol 6 No 1
July 1982

Journal of the Faculty of Education of the University of the Witwatersrand and the Johannesburg College of Education

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Perspectives in Education is edited collectively, published jointly by the Faculty of Education of the University of the Witwatersrand, 1 Jan Smuts Avenue, Johannesburg and the Johannesburg College of Education, 27 St Andrew's Road, Parktown. Printed by the Central Printing Unit of the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

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DISCUSSION

THE STATE, CRISIS AND THE UNIVERSITY: THE SOCIAL SCIENTIST'S DILEMMA

Eddie Webster

Let me begin with the obvious - the crisis facing South Africa is deep, it is structural or, as Saul and Gelb put it, it is organic. A crisis is organic, they suggest, when it is so embedded in the structure of society that solutions involving a new balance of forces are demanded. 'If the crisis is deep-organic - these efforts (to defend and conserve society) cannot be merely defensive. They will be formative: a new balance of forces, the emergence of new elements, the attempt to put together a new "historical bloc" ...a profound restructuring of the state and ideological discourse (will emerge)' (1).

Because of the 'organic' nature of the crisis in South Africa, apartheid no longer serves as an adequate blueprint, even among some of its former advocates. Its high priests, such as Gerrit Viljoen, now announce that separate development'... is an open-ended method, not a dogma or end in itself, but with options quite open for changes towards what is mutually acceptable' (2).

South Africa's rulers are faced by a genuine 'legitimation crisis', writes Adam (3). Among the subordinates this legitimacy was never deeply rooted. The increasing doubts about the traditional way among their own group is a new phenomenon. It is this ideological vacuum, he says, which offers social scientists some special scope.

I want to suggest in the first part of this paper that while this ideological vacuum has offered the social scientist an opportunity, it is also the source of a dilemma. In essence this dilemma is how to respond to the state's overtures for help, while at the same time retaining professional integrity. I identify three different responses to this dilemma by social scientists. In the second part of the paper I suggest a different dilemma the resolution of which does not involve abandoning social science but transforming it in a way that links it up with the practical activity of the majority of South Africans. This I call a social science of liberation and identify three dimensions of the relationship of theory and practice. However, the social scientist's contradictory class location places him/her in a contradictory situation, caught between the demands of the profession and an attempt to make himself/herself accountable to organisations outside the university.

Historically such links have been established at a cost but by drawing a distinction between the tactics of political struggle and the methods of science, the value of social science within liberation can be retained. The basis of this distinction is contained within a (redefined) notion of academic freedom and this should be defended as an essential part of a social science of liberation.

PART 1

Increasingly the state is turning to the social scientific community to help solve the crisis facing South Africa. The South African government is establishing, a recent report suggests, what is probably the most extensive state-funded and coordinated social research system outside the communist countries (4).

It is true, of course, that such a relationship between social science and the state has always existed in South Africa - after all Dr Verwoerd was a professor of sociology at the University of Stellenbosch in his early days - but as I have argued elsewhere (5), this relationship was to expand rapidly in the 1970s. However, I concluded that analysis, written in 1979, by suggesting that 'the pressures on South African sociologists to serve apartheid are likely to increase in the unfolding of "total strategy" as expressed by PW Botha' (6). Constrained in direct and indirect ways to avoid controversial areas of research, I suggested, most sociologists will be tempted to take advantage of the money and access offered to do research to assist capital and the state in their new strategy of 'reform' (7).

Two aspects of this relationship between the state and university have developed further since 1979.

(a) Until 1979 the HSRC did not see itself as a direct instrument of national policy. 'In the Republic', the first annual report of the HSRC said in 1968, 'social science research is not a dogma super-imposed from above as an instrument of national policy; the aim of the HSRC is to encourage and stimulate research in the social sciences by free and independent scholars...' (8). While of course this was never true in any unqualified way, it is possible to conclude as I did after careful examination of money granted to industrial research by the HSRC between 1968 and 1978 that 'it did not indicate any obvious direction and quite likely represents the sort of interests held by post-graduate researchers at the universities' (9). Ultimately, I conclude, such an analysis would not be able to prove that bias did not exist, as those who fear discrimination may simply not apply for research funds in the first place - or, indeed, as some argue, one should not apply for funds on principle.

The pattern I identified in the period 1968 - 1978 was, however, to change when as a deliberate act of policy in 1979, the HSRC National Plan was formulated. From then onwards one could argue that research had become deliberately politicised. The N-Plan - as it was dubbed in the press - stipulated that social research concentrate on 'areas of national concern' so that it can be used as a tool of policy-makers (10). The HSRC has since set out ten priority research areas and four investigations have already been launched, bringing together scholars, civil servants, and industry. The Council has stepped up its own policy-orientated research. Its internal budget is now approaching what all universities together spend on social research, employing 300 social scientists - almost one-fifth of the country's total (11).

(b) A second aspect that is new in this relationship is the deliberate attempt in some sections of the state apparatus to mobilise the 'liberal' universities. It is common knowledge that the 'liberal' universities have been engaged in a conflict with the state over their right to choose freely whom they wish to teach. While this concession has not yet been won as a right - blacks require permits - the state has increasingly begun to see in these universities a potential, if uncertain ally, in its attempt to create 'a black middle class' (12).

How have social scientists reacted to the state's overtures? Three different responses can be readily identified:

(1) Servants of apartheid

The first and most obvious response are from those who is happy to serve apartheid. These are the men and women who accept the state's definition of the problem and serve on the numerous Commissions of Inquiry that have been set up to solve the crisis. They are in the nature of hired 'philosophers of the state' who perform a clear ideological function in the sense that the commissions are presented as standing apart from the state and classes in society, willing to lend an impartial ear to any of the parties at odds with each other, including the state as just one of these parties. They are, suggests Hindson, part of the ideological apparatus of the state performing two distinct functions:

(a) the first is that of deflecting demands made at the high point of a crisis, in the heat of the moment, away from their object (13).

(b) the second function is to reorganise the ideological relations amongst classes. In the case, of Riekert for example, it is an attempt to accommodate apartheid with free market ideology.

An important caveat is necessary here. The intentions of the commissioners are quite often 'genuine' and, in the sense that the state is in a crisis, they quite often open up space for change by suggesting reforms, such as African trade unions, that are serious concessions. But in the final analysis, these are Government Commissions. They set the terms of reference and accept or reject the recommendations to fit into Government policy.

(2) Pragmatic realism

This second response accepts that social science must take a committed view but argues that 'Given the reality of firmly entrenched group conflict... sociologists ought to place themselves firmly within their respective group, in order to maximise their political impact' (14).

The point of departure for this position is that South Africa's social scientists have been concerned with personal confessions at the expense of effect. They have, says Adam, been utopian. Frequently, he says, the declaration becomes an end in itself. The need to allay black suspicions and demonstrate solidarity has blinded many white academics to the obstacles to liberation. More tragic, he says, unnecessary victims can be created by an atmosphere of moral instead of political approaches to injustice. As Margo

Russell has aptly observed for the early 1960s:

> The pressure to do and to be seen doing probably also accounted for the speed with which the police were able to infiltrate the sabotage movement and eliminate it. The severe sanctions in themselves provided the cathartic opportunity for public affirmation of allegiance. The emotional appeal of sabotage outweighed its strategic irrationality (15).

This leads, says Adam, to a celebration of individual heroism, and, as in Paton's work, a glorification of martyrdom.

Pragmatic realism then draws its strength from its hard-headed rejection of the 'moralism' of past would-be intellectual activists. Crucially, suggests Adam, this arises out of the failure of social scientists to understand adequately the pragmatic and enduring nature of South African society. Hence the title of his celebrated book Modernizing Racial Domination (16).

Adam's position is a tempting one - intellectuals are often tempted to accept the existing distribution of power and work for piecemeal change - particularly if there is lucrative research money in the offering (17). But the problem with this position is that it takes the given 'reality' as too permanent and unchanging. Adam should know better, as his own statement in 1971 that 'strike action is hardly possible in South Africa' was cruelly refuted by the spontaneous mass action of 100 000 African workers two years after his book was published! Pragmatic realism, then, finds its solutions being outpaced by the rapid tempo of events, particularly since 1976. Thus, we find, as Wilkinson describes, the Urban Foundation's objective of creating a black middle class completely outpaced, as a strategy, by the emergence of democratically organised community movements in the townships (18).

(3) Privatism

The third response to the dilemma facing the social scientist is the withdrawal into the 'ivory tower' of uncontroversial research or Grand Theory (whether marxist or functionalist) and Abstracted Empiricism (whether positivist or phenomenological (19). We shall call this position privatism. Privatism stresses the neutrality of the scientist and emphasises his professional role.

The central assumption underlying this position is the classic distinction between 'pure' and 'applied' research. But the distinction between 'pure' and 'applied' science is

quite misleading if it is taken to mean that the scientist, even if he is unconcerned about any possible application of his work, bears no responsibility for its social consequences, or that there are no social consequences to 'pure' science. However 'pure' research is intended to be, the distinction is not absolute. For we cannot know what the application of even the most abstract theory may be. After the dropping of the atomic bombs on Japan, Einstein, on whose early 'pure' and utterly 'academic' mathematical work the development of nuclear weapons depended, remarked: 'Had I known, I would rather have been a watchmaker'. The classical liberal view of science did not prepare Einstein for these problems, for it teaches that science is neutral. Thus the liberal conception of science fails to provide an adequate sociological model of the practice of science.

Two clarificatory points are necessary here:

(a) We should not confuse an argument that social science is not neutral with a statement that it can't be objective or professional. I am simply asserting the importance of considering the consequences of your research, not that the research itself should not be done in a professional manner. In fact I would want to define 'professional' in a way that takes into account a consideration of the consequences of your research. What future would sociology have as a professional activity if it was to become simply 'a tool of apartheid' now? (20)

(b) There is a pragmatic version of this liberal position; sure, it is argued, research is not neutral, but in South Africa it is naive to believe that academic freedom exists and one should avoid controversial research because it will only get you into trouble!

This, like pragmatic realism, is a tempting position, particularly from the career point of view, as it provides a coherent justification for a focus on 'pure' research. But this approach can only be a temporary and personal answer to the dilemma facing the social scientist. As the crisis deepens in South Africa, censorship and detentions affect all critical work, whether you succeed in drawing a distinction (artificial?) between pure and applied research or not. Ultimately the answer to this dilemma cannot be privatism - and its logical consequence, emigration to countries that preserve traditional academic freedom; it can only be resolved by a redefinition of the classic conception of academic freedom with its negative emphasis on no state interference. This redefinition of academic freedom involves, as Terence Ranger argued at the TB Davie Memorial Lecture

last year, 'a radical commitment to the dangerous truth which serves the people' (21).

I have argued that three responses to the dilemma of the social scientist can be identified:

- servants of apartheid

- pragmatic realism

- privatism

It is clear that none of these three responses deals adequately with the deep-seated nature of the challenge facing social science in South Africa.

PART 2

The Conference of Academics for a Democratic Society (CADS) it seems to me is trying to develop an alternative position to the three identified in this paper so far. In essence it is being proposed that intellectuals need to link their theory/knowledge more clearly to the practical activity taking place among the majority of South Africans. Intellectuals, it is being suggested, need to be beyond the 'ivory tower' and engage more clearly as academics for a democratic society. I want to call this attempt to link theory with practice a social science of liberation (22). The relationship between science and liberation, theory and practice involves three, separate but interrelated dimensions (23).

(a) The relationship between theory as a conceptual structure and practice

What does this mean? It does not mean that intellectuals provide a set of political formulas for action or a science that allows you to predict the future which you then take to the masses outside the university. It does not mean, in other words, that you tell people what to think! For me, what it means is that the task of a social science of liberation is to provide people who have been excluded from access to university education, an opportunity to learn from their own practice, to learn from their mistakes and their successes. They learn by being given an opportunity to reflect and conceptualise their experiences. This can either be done in the university, or preferably, in the communities where the men and women live and work. Thus our task is to provide people with the systematic opportunity to learn from their own experience by reflecting on it, and at the same

time providing them with new concepts that explain that experience. The Labour Studies Programme run through the CCE (24) is an attempt to do this with worker leaders in FOSATU (25). Importantly it is run jointly by workers in FOSATU and academics at Wits. An attempt is being made to ensure a degree of worker control over the course. The university hopes to be able to run similar courses for other independent unions, either jointly with FOSATU, or separately, depending on the organisation's desire.

(b) The relationship between intellectuals as producers of theory and practice

The theories intellectuals develop and the research agendas they draw up do not come from thin air. The problems with which they are preoccupied and which define the contours of the questions which they pose are critically shaped by the ways in which intellectuals are linked to political practice. This is not a metaphysical claim. I am asserting that intellectuals are accountable to the wider communities that form part of society for the kinds of questions they ask and the priorities they develop (26).

The dominant institutions of our society assert constant pressure to define in their terms the questions intellectuals ask. We discussed in Part 1 of this paper the HSRC N-Plan. In the absence of real links with the working class and the wider communities outside the university, it is very difficult to resist such pressures.

This is not to argue that it is only through direct participation in the barricades that serious questions can be generated, but it does suggest that the greater the distance between the intellectual and the real practical struggles of the working class, the more difficult it will be for that intellectual to be held accountable to the wider society for the questions which are asked. Of course the problem is more complicated - who are you accountable to? This is particularly difficult when no well developed democratic organisations exist. Over what areas are you accountable? Surely non-social scientists are neither able nor willing to involve themselves in the details of research? All I am asserting at this stage is that intellectuals need to be made accountable; the range of issues need to be defined through trial and error over time!

(c) The relationship of the intellectual to theory

The production of theory - or the questions you ask - is not simply a consequence of practical engagement with struggles

to change the world; it is also a consequence of an engagement with theory itself. The subtitle of Marx's most important theoretical work, Capital, is 'a critique of political economy'. Here Marx is engaging with theory in order to generate new concepts such as surplus value, formal and real subordination, organic composition of capital, etc.

The practical involvement of the social scientist raises another type of dilemma to those considered in Part 1 of this paper. Let me begin by drawing a distinction between the tactics of political struggle and the methods of social science. The Polish sociologist, Stanislaw Ossowski drew such a distinction in 1956 when he reflected on a decade of socialism from above in Poland.

> The untouchable authority of a leader is often a decisive element in the achievement of a political or military victory. Untouchable authority in any aspect of intellectual life is fatal to the development of science. Obedience in the course of a battle, is the necessary condition of success. Obedience in thinking kills scientific creativeness. Lack of scruples and doubts in essential matters increases the chances of victory in political and military conflicts: it is rare indeed that victory is achieved by the 'Hamlets'. Doubting, however, is at the root of scientific work, both in the formulation of theories and in the process of verification. 'Progress in science can hardly be imagined without moments of doubting'. Karl Marx as a man of action, always spoke categorically, without waverings or reservations. As a scientist, however, his maxim was 'De omnibus dubitandum' (One must doubt everything) (27).

Establishing links with organisations engaged in practical activity has, as the quotation from Ossowski alludes to, been historically done at a cost. This is the dilemma of the social scientist as he tries to develop a social science of liberation. Perry Anderson (28) discusses at some length this dilemma faced by Marxist intellectuals in Europe in the twentieth century. Throughout most of the period since the 1920s, the only effective way for Marxist intellectuals to be systematically tied to the political practice of the working class was through the parties of the Third International, and yet membership in these Communist Parties acted as a serious constraint on their capacity to continually produce and transform theory. The rise of academic Marxism was one of the outcomes of this dilemma. To put it simply, the conditions that maximise the

intellectual's linkage to the working class have generally not been the conditions which maximise their capacity for critical theoretical work.

Here it is necessary for us to return to our distinction between the tactics of political struggle and the methods of social science. The existence of a party line on policy is necessary in any organisation and provided the decisions have been reached through democratic debate there is little the social scientist can, or should, do about this. The formulation of policy in any organisation is the task of that organisation and those who are members of it. However, the existence of party lines, or attempts to impose them on theoretical-scientific questions, imposes unacceptable constraints on scientific work (29). Discipline is an essential element of organisation but it can be abused as a concept if it is used to impose certain ideas on people rather than establishing agreement through a structure.

In other words, attempts to establish practical links with organisations outside the university place the academic in a contradictory position. They are caught between their commitment to open debate in the university (and pressures to publish their work in professional journals) and the discipline imposed by involvement with organisations. Of course to survive, the committed academic must become partially accountable to the practices of the university! The tendency has been to resolve this contradiction by either retreating into privatism or by becoming an organic intellectual and immersing oneself fully into, for example, the independent labour movement (30).

The position that I have tried to develop in this paper is a different, and, I fear, a more difficult path. It involves a commitment to the value of social science as an intellectual activity within liberation. It involves a commitment to the university as the central arena of one's work. But this involves, also, an acceptance of the fact that the class location of the intellectual cannot be defined, as Gramsci does, by his function alone: it must recognise also the structural location of the intellectual. This conflation of functional and structural definitions of class locations by Gramsci tends to obscure the fact that intellectuals occupy, as Wright argues, a contradictory class location within class relations (31). By this he means that they do not have a specific class identity in their own right; their class character is determined strictly by their location between classes (32).

An important feature of the 'petty bourgeois' nature of

academic work is its semi-autonomous character. This relative autonomy provides the social scientist with space to challenge dominant ideas in society and engage in serious theoretical work. The basis on which this autonomy can be defended is the concept of academic freedom. Academic freedom redefined in a positive rather than a negative way must be an essential part of a social science of liberation.

This argument has nothing to do with protecting the income privileges of academics. The critical issues are control over one's work, censorship, race and sex discrimination and participation in decision making. Serious theoretical production cannot take place under conditions of bureaucratic control. After all, the university is, like all capitalist institutions, a contradictory institution and therefore a site of struggle. The problem for a social science of liberation is not to abandon social science but to transform it (33).

Notes

I would like to thank the Department of Sociology (University of the Witwatersrand), and Drew Archibald in particular, for arranging a seminar on this paper. The paper was originally presented as a public lecture in a series organized by CADS (The Conference of Academics for a Democratic Society) at the University of the Witwatersrand, and was an attempt to explore publically some of the problems of being a sociologist in South Africa. The arguments are tentative and I would welcome further critical discussion of the issues raised.

(1) JS Saul & S Gelb The Crisis in South Africa: Class Defence, Class Revolution, New York: Monthly Review Press, 1981

(2) Quoted from H Adam "The vocation of a sociologist in South Africa" in J Rex (ed) Apartheid and Social Research, The UNESCO Press, 1981, pg 117

(3) ibid pg 117

(4) Craig Charney "A political weapon in the struggle over apartheid" in Times Higher Education Supplement, London, April 1982

(5) Eddie Webster "Servants of apartheid: A survey of social research into industry in South Africa" in J Rex (ed) op.cit. pgs 85-113

(6) ibid pg 109

(7) ibid pg 110

(8) ibid pg 102

(9) ibid pg 106

(10) ibid pg 113

(11) Interview with HSRC President, Dr JG Garbers, in Charney (4)

(12) A crucial factor underlying the opening up of 'white' universities is the decline in the white birth rate and the rapid growth of black matriculants (52 000 in 1981). For a report on recent research on the growth of black education, see H Zampetakis "'Open the door' warning to South African white universities" in Sunday Express, 23 May 1982

(13) D Hindson "The role of the Labour Bureaux in the South African State's urban policy, with particular reference to The Riekert Commission's recommendations", African Studies Seminar Paper, pg 8

(14) H Adam op.cit. pg 125

(15) Quoted in H Adam op.cit. pg 123

(16) H Adam Modernizing Racial Domination, Berkeley: Univ of California Press, 1971, pg 182

(17) See Noam Chomsky's trenchant criticism of intellectuals in the United States in his book American Power and the New Mandarins, Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1969. See also Baritz Servants of Power, New York: Wiley, 1965

(18) P Wilkinson "Straddling realities: The Urban Foundation and social change in contemporary South Africa", African Studies Seminar Paper

(19) See C Wright Mills The Sociological Imagination, Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1959, for a discussion of these two concepts. Mark Orkin suggested the additions in parentheses

(20) For an interesting argument that the professional code of ethics needs to be redefined to allow for 'systematic deception' in your research on the powerful, see John F Galliher "The protection of human subjects: a re-examination of the professional code of ethics" in The American Sociologist, 1973, 8 (August): 93-100

(21) Terence Ranger "Towards a radical practice of academic freedom: The experience of East and Central Africa" UCT 1981, pg 23

(22) The first mention of a social science of liberation was made, to my knowledge, by John Rex in his Introduction to Apartheid and Social Research (see (2)) pg 25

(23) These three dimensions are developed in detail by Eric Olin Wright in "Intellectuals and the working class" in The Insurgent Sociologist Vol 8 No 1 1978

(24) CCE = The Centre for Continuing Education: University of the Witwatersrand

(25) FOSATU = The Federation of South African Trade Unions

(26) The question of accountability is a complex one and requires careful discussion in each particular situation. In the departmental discussion on this paper it was suggested by a colleague that a sociology of liberation would be accountable for its validation to the practice of the working class. This would take the problem of accountability a good deal further than I suggest as I assert that intellectuals are accountable for the kinds of questions they ask, not their validation.

(27) S Ossowski "Tactics and truth" A Bulletin of the Committee of Science and Freedom. No 7, December 1956

(28) Perry Anderson Considerations on Western Marxism, London: NLB, 1975

(29) For the disastrous effects of the attempt by Stalin to impose dialectics on genetics see Dominique Lecourt Proletarian Science? The Case of Lysenko, London: NLB, 1977, pgs 104-5

(30) Gramsci identifies three categories of intellectuals: those intellectuals who are organic intellectuals of the working class, those who are organic intellectuals of the bourgeoisie, and those whom he calls 'traditional intellectuals', typically organic intellectuals of the feudal aristocracy. Thus he identifies the class character of intellectuals with the specific function they play in the class struggle. See Gramsci's essay "On intellectuals" in Quinton Hoare & Geoffrey Nowell Smith (eds) Selections from the Prison Notebooks, New York, 1971

(31) He rejects the Poulantzian notion that intellectuals are part of the petty bourgeoisie. See EO Wright op.cit. (23), 7A-8C

(32) I find Wright's argument here unclear. Surely petty bourgeoisie implies precisely a contradictory class location? However, the recognition of its contradictory nature seems more important than the label you give it.

(33) This paper is concerned with a social science of liberation, not after liberation. What role intellectuals will or could play in a society where social relations of production have been transformed is a separate question.

ARTICLES

TEACHER EDUCATION AND THE DE LANGE COMMITTEE

Jane Hofmeyr & John Lewin

Teacher recruitment and training have been identified by many educationists (see (1) & (2)) as a critical constraint on the provision of any new system of education in South Africa, and it is immediately obvious that the de Lange committee also recognises teacher recruitment and training as the key factor in such provision: 'No other single factor determines to such an extent the quality of education in a country as the quality of the corps of teachers, lecturers and instructors'. (3:180) The statistics of the report of the Main Committee highlight the present general shortage of professionally qualified teachers and the future need for some quarter of a million teachers by the year 2020 (3:24). The shortage of teachers is shown to be critical in the areas of Black secondary education, technical and vocational training, the teaching of languages, the natural sciences and mathematics. In view of the need for great numbers of teachers by the turn of the century the present rate at which teachers are being trained is seen as 'totally inadequate' (3:63). Furthermore, the Commission's awareness of the importance of adequate numbers of competent professional teachers in any new education system is reflected in the principles or guidelines it has drawn up for the new system of education: Principle 10 states that "the professional status of the teacher and lecturer shall be recognized" (3:15).

Thus the Main Committee is aware of both the crucial role of teacher education in any system of education and the seriousness of our present shortages and future needs in this

area. However, when we examined the analysis of the problems in the area of teacher recruitment and training and the recommendations, we were obliged to be critical of the treatment of this topic. The Work Committee (4) appears to have been constrained by the notion of necessarily separate teacher communities and with the existing racial and ethnic divisions in education. Sensitive areas are avoided and the recommendations show a lack of a national perspective in terms of the needs of the RSA as a whole. Consequently, the Work Committee's analysis and recommendations are essentially conservative. Most of the recommendations could be accommodated within the existing system of teacher education with some additions. The report of the Work Committee shows little influence of international research and developments in teacher education - the focus is essentially insular and narrow. Many important areas are neglected and where recommendations are made, they are too often no more than vague well-worn generalities. It is true that de Lange was investigating education at the macro-level and was restricted by the shortage of time, such that very detailed recommendations cannot be expected, but a greater degree of specificity was needed in this key area to flesh out the bones of their suggestions. A major cause of the problem of vagueness is perhaps the conflict in orientation between the Main and Work Committees - essentially an ideological clash. The Main Committee, aware of the sectional appeal of Christian National Education (CNE) and the strong criticism it has provoked in many quarters, was anxious to exclude any explicit references to this philosophy from its report. However, the Work Committee's approach to teacher recruitment, and training is shaped by Christian Nationalism's life and world view in many places.

This comment requires substantiation in a more detailed study of the Commission's investigation of teacher education. The areas we have selected for closer study relate to the general problems of structure, supply and quality. For the purposes of this article we dealt mainly with the summarized study of teacher recruitment and training in the Main Committee Report (3) but supplemented this by reference to specific issues in the report of the Work Committee (4). (To date this report is available in Afrikaans only).

STRUCTURE

How the training and development of the teacher is to be organized and co-ordinated is an issue of central importance in the provision of a new system of education. Without a structure which can be efficiently and effectively managed from a common 'non-segmented planning base' (quoted in (2))

there is little hope of solving the enormous problems of teacher education and provision.

The general need for greater centralisation in teacher recruitment and training is recognized in the Main Committee Report. Its recommendations on teacher education point to the need for national evaluation and recognition of qualifications, certification and registration of teachers (3:182). The Report suggests that the teaching profession should handle the registration of teachers and that the other functions should be performed by a national ministry of education acting on the advice of the proposed South African Council for Education and the registering authority for teachers.

However, in the report of the Work Committee the tendency is to stress the diversity rather than what is common between all population groups. This results in a view of separate groups of teachers serving separate teaching communities, 'onderwysgemeenskappe'. Consequently, it seems likely that when the Main Committee was faced with the task of summarizing and highlighting the important findings and proposals of the Work Committee, it was forced to resort to vague generalisations which would smooth over and leave out potentially contentious and embarrassing examples of the Work Committee's ideological bias. Thus the Work Committee adopts a limited interpretation of co-ordination and centralisation to mean the superimposition of an umbrella body for teacher education over and above the existing system of separate education departments, and a central registration authority of representatives from the separate ethnic registration bodies for the teachers of each population group.

In this area a difference of emphasis and opinion can be detected between the Main and Work Committee reports. The Main Committee's summarized version of the Work Committee's report makes no reference to separate ethnic education departments in structural proposals. All that it says is 'The proposed South African Council for Education's Committee for the training of teachers should play a key role in the planning and co-ordination of teacher training'. (3:183) Again, on the nature of the registration authority for teachers it is similarly vague: the nature and function of registration is a professional matter and 'should be finalized with the interested parties'. (3:182) The use of vagueness to avoid sensitive issues and controversial proposals in the Work Committee's report results in a recommendation of little practical value or guidance.

We reject the limited interpretation of co-ordination and

centralisation offered by the Work Committee. The creation of yet another controlling body in teacher education can only add to the already vexing problems caused by the present authoritarian and bureaucratic system of organization and control. In our opinion, centralisation and rationalization are essential in teacher education to eliminate, not add to, the top-heavy administration structure and the duplication of posts found in the fourteen existing education departments in the RSA (excluding the four education departments in the independent national states) (5). The complex bureaucratic structure of our education systems is regarded by many observers (6) as a cause of inefficiency, communication problems and a waste of funds which contribute to the unsatisfactory working conditions and poor status of the teaching profession. The problem of bureaucratization is not addressed in the Commission's discussion of teacher training. Apart from one brief mention of 'excessive bureaucratic control' (3:67) there is no recommendation about the effect of bureaucratic control on the autonomy of the teacher, the profession and the training institutions. No doubt the Work Committee, whose composition was largely official, were protecting the vested interests of its members and constituencies.

The problem of bureaucracy can be viewed from another perspective: debureaucratization is necessary to eliminate a source of excessive conservatism which would obstruct meaningful change. As Adam and Giliomee (7:193) point out 'even if by some miracle political power would fall into the hands of a more progressive, colour-blind opposition party, a continuing Afrikaner civil service could ensure that new policies were implemented differently'.

In order to eliminate authoritarian bureaucratic control of teacher training and the profession there must also be decentralisation and devolution of power at the regional and local levels, which would involve the greater participation and representation of the 'users' of education - the parents, teachers, civic bodies and the private sector. The conjunction of centralisation in matters of national importance and democratic decentralisation in terms of local education units are the organizing principles advocated by the Work Committee: Education Management, and in our opinion, should be applied to the structure of teacher training and control as well. We believe that this would produce a structure flexible enough to allow for experiment and innovation to improve the quality of the teachers produced by pre- and in-service training. Michau (8) provides sobering evidence of the resistance to change of the 'red tape' of bureaucracy, encountered by private sector

organizers of projects to upgrade teachers in Natal. A more democratic and representative teacher education structure could facilitate the involvement of the private sector which could make a valuable contribution in the training of technical and vocational teachers and non-formal instructors, and the provision of courses in management skills and experience of the world of work for teachers.

Any attempt to design a workable structure for teacher training, in our opinion, should pay attention to the recommendations of the van Wyk de Vries Commission of inquiry into universities (9). This report makes suggestions about the thorny issue of the relationships between teacher training schools, colleges, universities, the central government and the provinces - an issue which has bedevilled teacher training since 1910.

The Commission declared that:

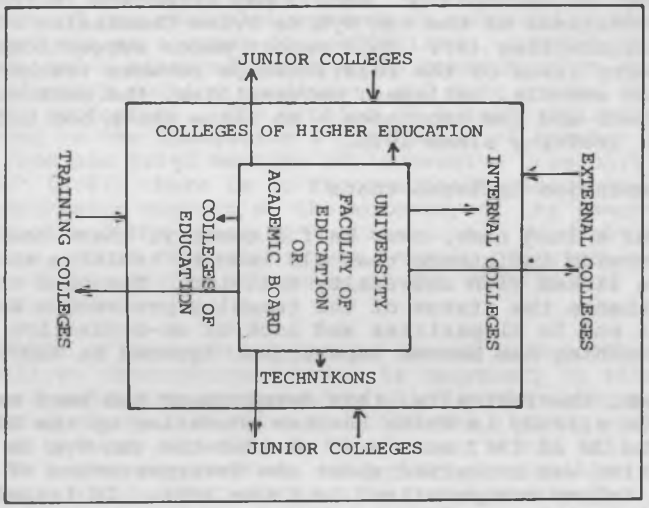
> For a long time, over half a century, there has been growing insistence that all teacher training should be linked with university training. The need to enhance the status of the teaching profession and put an end to disparities and lack of co-ordination in training has become imperative. (quoted in (10))

Although, theoretically, this development had been made possible already in White teacher education by the Education Acts, No 39 of 1967 and No 73 of 1969 the van Wyk de Vries Commission was concerned about the interpretation of the phrase 'close co-operation' in those Acts. It feared that the universities would not be prepared to accept the concept of a diarchy, that is, a university and a college as two separate institutions, each claiming different identities and functions. Consequently, the Commission came to the conclusion that all teacher training should take place under the guidance of a university in what is termed the 'college idea'; a college being defined as 'an extremely elastic concept and an entity whose nature, function, form and content may vary and which provides training in the field of higher education.' (11)

The Commission conceived of a wide variety of colleges. The rigidity implied in a definition of a college as an institution maintained, managed and controlled by a provincial administration as stated in the Acts of 1967 and 1969 was to be avoided. Consequently it proposed a pattern of 'a university with colleges within its own structure but surrounded by colleges in various forms associated with it in various ways' (para 16. 22) The Commission speaks of

'internal' and 'external' colleges. In the case of the former there would be almost complete academic, administrative and financial integration (par 16. 24). It also envisaged the establishment of private colleges within the structure.

The structure has been represented in diagram form by Prof AN Boyce (10) in the following way:



2 SUPPLY

The Main and Work Committee reports recognise the seriousness of our present critical shortage of teachers and the very great numbers of teachers that will have to be trained by the turn of the century. Their suggestions for improving our present and future supply encompass the following:

a) the development of a model for a recruitment and selection campaign drawn up by the South African Council for Education (SACE) in collaboration with employers and the profession for adaptation by each education authority in line with its particular needs.

b) the strategic siting of pre- and in-service training institutions in areas with a critical shortage of teachers.

c) the training of teachers by technikons.

d) the training of teacher educators.

e) the establishment of professional, competitive and attractive conditions of service.

f) identification of the need for continuing education.

Most of the recommendations given above are vague generalities. The issue of 'how' in each case has not been answered and although detailed suggestions cannot be expected, some indication of how these recommendations are to be achieved is required if they are to lead to constructive action.

Although we have separated our discussions of supply and quality in this paper, in reality the two issues cannot be considered separately. One of the lessons learnt from the last twenty years of education in South Africa is that the quality of teachers cannot be sacrificed to quantity, if we are to break the vicious cycle of poor teachers producing poor students. The Main and Work Committees realised this and consequently decided to recommend Std 10 as the minimum entrance qualification and a three-year training for all teachers. However, in the short-term these stipulations will decrease the supply of teachers and thus interim emergency measures should be investigated to increase the number of teachers immediately while the long-term qualitative improvements come into effect.

Such interim measures were largely ignored by the Work Committee, despite submissions to it on this area (see (6)). There are many avenues which could be explored to increase the quantity of teachers in both the short and long-term - very few of these were discussed by the Work Committee. The following are some possbilities:

a) <u>The early identification of teachers</u>

In the United States of America an association known as the Future Teachers of America publicizes teaching and identifies prospective teachers in the equivalent of our Std 8. These high school students then visit different classes in the primary and middle schools of their area for a few days about twice a year. Thus their 'chalk-face' experience is begun early. In this regard the Work Committee mentions that early channelling of prospective teachers and publicity for the teaching profession at schools is desirable.

b) The use of teacher aides

The Commission makes no mention of them, yet the idea is a very real possibility. Matriculated volunteers could be given a short intensive, say, three-month course of preparation and when used to assist over-loaded teachers in Black primary schools especially. The concept of teacher aides accords with the recent findings from teacher effectiveness research that the monitoring and supervisory functions of teachers are crucial to increase pupil 'time-on-task', an important factor in pupil achievement (12). Furthermore, Third World use of minimally trained youth (IMPACT project) and young adults ('Cursos Comunitarios') has yielded promising results (13).

c) Use of educational technology

Use of programmed materials which provide the structure, focus, continuous cues and feedback for successful student engagement (14) could greatly assist the overburdened South African primary school teacher and free her from drilling and more mechanical functions for more substantive activities. Greater use of educational technology to relieve teachers should be imaginatively investigated. The Main Committee Report does include a section on the use of educational technology but the Work Committee does not mention it.

d) Maximum utilisation of existing facilities and teachers as a national not a sectional resource

To tackle the immediate problems of quantity and quality this is an obvious essential step, but the Work Committee - seeing everything being divided up into different communities - does not advocate this. Nothing is said about opening up of training institutions to all races, and the concept of 'onderwysgemeenskappe' makes teachers a sectional resource.

e) The training of pre-basic and non-formal teachers

In terms of the new structure of education proposed by the de Lange Commission, in which pre-basic and non-formal education are given considerable importance the training of teachers in these areas is an urgent necessity. Here the Work Committee seems not to have been acting in concert with the other Work Committees because it does not refer to these needs at all, - despite the existence of the Synthesis Committee whose

task was to keep the various Work Committees in contact with general developments and the major proposals of each Work Committee. In the Main Committee Report, however, these are a number of references to the teaching needs of the non-formal sector (3:59, 64) but the provision of teachers for pre-basic education is not considered.

f) Overseas recruitment of teachers

The glut of teachers in most Western countries overseas could be to the RSA's advantage if these teachers could be persuaded to come and teach here by recognition and validation of their qualifications and the offer of attractive salaries. The Work Committee recognizes that this may become imperative and that clear guidelines must be established for selection in terms of the needs of each community.

g) The training of teacher educators

The Main and Work Committee reports recognize that a supply of teacher educators will be important, especially in continuing education but they offer no practical suggestions as to how to train them in sufficient numbers. In this regard proposals like that of Freer (15) bear closer investigation.

h) New and alternative models of teacher training

Because of the critical shortage of adequately qualified teachers particularly in Black education in the short-term, new approaches to training teachers will have to be found. For example, a short pre-service period of training for teacher trainees with a matriculation certificate could be followed by more, complementary in-service training when the supply of teachers becomes adequate, the period of initial training could be extended. Other options include sandwich courses, distance teaching, correspondence courses and internship programmes.

Models from Africa seem to suggest that the trend in initial training is towards programmes in which full-time college training alternates with complementary periods of full-time teaching in schools. Commenting on these programmes, Hawes (16:135) states: 'I am convinced that they are potentially more effective than full time initial training. They offer a way to link teacher training very closely with real conditions in schools; at the same time they provide a very powerful instrument for curriculum development and

implementation. A period of internship for all new teachers would get teachers into the schools earlier and give them the guided 'on-the-job' experience so vital for effective training.

Distance teaching and Correspondence courses will have to be instituted to enable teachers already in the schools to improve their qualifications and competence without disrupting the school programme by removing the teachers from the schools. As Wandira (17) points out, this form of upgrading will be the reality of in-service training for the majority of teachers in Africa - only a minority will be able to attend full-time courses.

The Work Committee did not mention the sort of approaches to teacher training outlined above - with the exception of internship. It felt that the idea of internship under the guidance of a tutor-teacher (3:182) should be carefully studied. Continuing and in-service training, the emphasis in most of the approaches outlined above, is identified as very important, but the decision as to what, how and where it will be provided is left to each education authority. Nevertheless some general comments on continuing training are offered by the Work Committee: it should aim at improving the effectiveness of teachers; uniform criteria for all in-service courses must be established in the interests of controlling standards and certification; attractive opportunities for upgrading should be offered; research in the area is important to increase the effectiveness of courses.

The Work Committee's recognition of the importance of research in continuing training is crucial, in our opinion. Present and future courses must be evaluated in terms of whether they increase the professional effectiveness of the teacher on the job. In this regard we find the present academic bias to continuing training in the Transvaal under the supervision of the College of Further Education to be suspect. Furthermore, the form that in-service training takes must be carefully considered. International experience seems to indicate that the 'institutional development' type of in-service training is far more effective than short, 'crash' courses for individual teachers (18). One teacher alone has little hope of introducing innovation into a school or department, without the support and commitment of the departmental head and principal. Another aspect of in-service education that requires attention is the agencies responsible for providing it. As Hartshorne (2) points out, many more agencies than the education departments can be involved. The teachers' professional organisations, through

the setting up of independent teachers' centres, the training colleges, the universities and private enterprise, all can play a part.

3 QUALITY

The problem of quality in teacher recruitment and training is multi-faceted and particularly urgent in Black education, where if a senior certificate and a professional qualification is accepted as the norm, only 14,5% of all black teachers can be regarded as adequately qualified (3:66). The Main Committee Report states that 'the standard of service provided in the educational system is determined mainly by two factors, namely, the quality of the person being trained and the quality of the training that he receives.'(3:59) However, the recommendations of the Main and Work Committees to improve both the above aspects of quality are very general, and they appear to have neglected important issues in this regard.

What does quality training mean and involve? Increased length of training is no guarantee of quality. The three-year minimum training stipulation does not mean that the extra time will provide a high-level training unless the courses given are relevant to the world of the classroom; neither is a Standard 10 certificate an accurate predictor of an effective teacher at the end of the training course. The present heavily theoretical approach followed in most South African training institutions is likewise no guarantee of ultimate practical teaching competence. This approach is also out of line with overseas developments in teacher education - particularly in Britain where increasingly the focus of courses is on an integrated professional studies programme with a large teaching experience component (see (19)).

When it comes to the curricula of teacher education the Main Committee's recommendations are rather vague:

> An effort should be made in the training of teachers to achieve an effective balance between academic, professional and practical oriented components. In particular the teaching and acquisition of classroom skills and teaching practice should be given adequate attention.
>
> In teacher education a study should be made of the desirability of including suitably oriented academic and other subject matter that has a relevance for the work of teachers (3:182)

The Work Committee adds other detail:

a) Professional elements should be given a prominent place in teacher training.

b) Research is needed to ensure that new demands and challenges are timeously incorporated in training programmes.

c) Standards must be raised in order to bring about more effective training.

d) The profession should participate in the drawing up of teacher education curricula.

e) Cultural differences necessitate that the autonomy of each teaching community be respected in the interests of 'gesonde verskeidenheid wat vir die ontwikkeling van enige gemeenskap noodsaaklik is' (4:119). Contact between teaching communities should be provided by the 'regte' co-ordination at the national level. A distinction should be made between matters of national and community importance.

f) National criteria must be established for the evaluation and recognition of qualifications. There is an existing set of criteria which with suitable adaptations could be used.

As guidelines for curriculum development these do not adequately deal with a number of pressing and contentious issues. For instance, there is the difficult question of who shall control teacher education curricula? Points d), e) and f) provide no clear answer. Then there is the problem of a necessary re-orientation of teacher education to cope with the extension of career-oriented education in the proposed new structure. Point b) could be taken to refer to this but the wording is hardly clear or strong enough for a recommendation which concerns a major change in the present system. Of course, what is immediately crystal-clear, is the ideological stand-point of the Work Committee - the differences between communities are all important. Each community must be allowed to educate its teachers in accordance with its own needs, values and philosophy - and that includes Christian National Education.

It seems to us that the issue of the curriculum is a vital one. With the urgency of the present crisis in South African education and limited monetary and human resources, especially in a time of financial stringency, we cannot

afford to make mistakes in training teachers. Because every teacher counts in a situation of shortage, every teacher should be maximally effective. Furthermore, we must have good initial teacher education if we are to stop the vicious cycle of needing in-service education to remedy what was not done in the initial training.

Questions must be asked of teacher training curricula in terms of the goals and purposes of that training. If the general assumption in teacher education is that an objective of teacher training courses is to produce competent, effective teachers, then we need to ask ourselves what competence and effectiveness mean. This question bedevils all teacher trainers everywhere and to date there are no definitive answers, although there are a number of insightful probes of the issue. For instance, Hirst (20) suggests that competence and effectiveness should be viewed as professionalism which consists of four major distinct but inter-related elements: knowledge and understanding; the ability to make rationally defensible practical judgements; the skills to carry out such judgements; and the appropriate set of dispositions for teaching. As a logical outflow of his definition Hirst believes that all these four elements must be attended to in a teacher's training.

In South Africa we suggest that teacher educators have hardly 'come to grips' with the question of training for teacher effectiveness, let alone the answers to it; and although there are no clear easy answers, that is no reason for avoiding the question or not designing courses in terms of the pointers that international experience and research can offer. Courses would then be designed in terms of faith and some insight instead of faith alone.

Linked to the issue of competence is a second fundamental problem: for what sort of society are we educating our teachers? This issue which focusses on the relationship between education and the overall development of the RSA was generally neglected in the de Lange Commission. The Work Committee: Technical and Vocational Education examined the question of South African society in the future from a largely economic perspective. The Main Committee Report refers on several occasions to the topic of education and national development (see paragraphs 3.1, 3.3.3.2, 3.3.3.3 and 4:10) but nowhere was it specifically studied in its widest interpretation of economic, social and political development. This then, seems to be a serious omission in the work of the Commission, and in fairness, perhaps outside its brief in the limited time available. However, it is a crucial issue which has important implications for all

aspects of the proposed education system including teacher education. Nowhere are there any clear pointers as to the desired nature of South African society in the future. Consequently there are no clear ideas about the values and attitudes that will be regarded as desirable in future South African citizens, and therefore the values and attitudes that the school system should foster and teachers promote are equally indistinct. Thus the end product of teacher education, especially in terms of an effective component, is very difficult to conceptualize.

Although the de Lange Commission does not explore the issue of South African society of the future, some commonsense generalisations could be made about the 'shape of things to come' which do affect teacher education. For example, South African society of the future will almost certainly be multi-cultural with a dual economy (21) of urban and rural communities. Consequently future teachers must be educated for tolerance and understanding of different cultures, and some form of inter-cultural studies must be part of their theoretical and practical training. First hand experience of the different communities in South Africa in their different stages of transition will be essential for all teacher trainees if they are to have maximum mobility as teachers. Community involvement and service should become part of all students' practical experiences. Because of the sheer complexity of the multi-cultural, transitional South African scene of the present and future it follows that teacher training should encourage innovative, creative and analytical skills to equip teachers for problem-solving and adaptability in the many, varied teaching contexts in South Africa. 'Education for continual adjustment must necessarily be part of any new strategy of teacher education.' (17)

There are a number of aspects to the problem of quality besides that of quality training. The Main and Work Committees recognize quite rightly that the quality of the trainee is very important, and that attractive, competitive and professional conditions of service, especially salaries, are essential to draw students of a high calibre to teaching and to improve the status of teachers in the eyes of the public. The Work Committee suggests that a thorough investigation be made of all the factors that affect conditions of service. However, as mentioned earlier, they neglect to talk about the effect of excessive bureaucratic control on the autonomy of teacher and the training institutions - and autonomy is another important element of professional status.

The quality of a teacher's working life is also determined by

the availability of support services for the teacher. The Work Committee mentions the importance of administrative and clerical assistance for teachers, specialized expertise and professional help but does not go into much more detail. Here the availability of in-service training for renewal and upgrading of teachers' competence seems to us to be very important. If initial training is seen as preparing teachers for their first appointment only as advocated in the James Report (22) in Britain, then on-going in-service education becomes essential to assist teachers to cope with new appointments and curricula and for continuing professional renewal.

The need for in-service training in South Africa is particularly urgent amongst black and coloured teachers - this is recognized by the Work Committee which recommends the strategic siting of in-service training facilities for each teaching community but does not discuss the idea of professional or teachers' centres per se. Such a concept has a lot to offer teachers in South Africa. A grouping of, say, six to eight schools around a teachers' centre (23) could meet local needs of teachers in the area by providing a means for renewal and up-grading in-service courses, a resource centre and a focus for local curriculum development. Many agencies could be brought together in the work of the centres - universities, colleges of education, technikons, inspectors, the private sector. Such professional centres could also offer students first-hand experience of curriculum development - a necessary part of their training if they are expected to develop curricula in their jobs as teachers.

4 CONCLUSION

Although the de Lange Commission appreciated the significance of teacher recruitment and training for its proposed education system, it neglected crucial issues in its analysis of the problems in this area and offered little meaningful direction in its recommendations. Thus, in our opinion, the Work Committee : Teacher Recruitment and Training can be said to have failed in its task.

The report of the Work Committee seems to be at variance with the Main Committee Report. The Work Committee did not take a national perspective on the structure of teacher education, or the supply and quality of teachers. Its emphasis lay on the necessary diversity between different cultural communities and consequently its perspective was restricted by ethnic compartments. Furthermore, the Work Committee's orientation seems at odds with the spirit of the

Principles drawn up by the Main Committee. Nowhere do the Principles contain any explicit reference to Christian National Education. However, the report of the Work Committee shows the influence of this philosophy in many places and especially in its major standpoint that each community should educate its own teachers in accordance with its beliefs and values. The dominant first Principle, which states that 'equal opportunities for education, including equal standards in education, for every inhabitant, irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex, shall be the purposeful endeavour of the State' also seems to have been underplayed. If teachers of quality are regarded as the key to the provision of equal educational opportunities for all, then there is little evidence that the Work Committee's emphasis on separateness in its recommendations is going to provide adequate numbers of professionally educated effective teachers of equal quality for all South Africa's children. As Auerbach (24:24) points out, 'many people believe equality in education can come only after political change - but that is no excuse whatever for delaying reduction of the worst inequalities.' And removal of those inequalities in the provision of teachers requires a broad national overview in terms of the needs of South Africa as a whole.

In fact, if the very real problems of the key area of teacher recruitment and training are to be solved a more creative approach resulting in a radical and innovative restructuring of teacher education and a re-ordering of its priorities is needed. Therefore, in our opinion, a new study group must be established to investigate this area. Unlike the predominantly White Work Committee which was mainly composed of education officials, it must be broadly representative of all the groups interested in teacher education in order to produce new solutions to the problems.

Notes

(1) Michael Corke "A school system for South Africa", Senate Lectures University of the Witwatersrand, 18 Sept 1978

(2) Ken Hartshorne "The education and training of the teacher with particular reference to the situation on Black education". Paper presented to the ATASA conference, 12 Dec 1981

(3) Human Sciences Research Council Provision of Education in the RSA, Report of the Main Committee, Pretoria, July 1981

(4) Raad vir Geeseteswetenskaplike Navorsing Verslag van die werkkomitee - werwing en opleiding van onderwysers, Pretoria, July 1981

(5) OD Dhlomo "A view of curriculum innovation". Paper delivered at the conference on Curriculum Innovation at the University of Cape Town, Jan 1981

(6) The Urban Foundation Submission to the Human Sciences Research Council's Investigation into Education, Johannesburg, March 1981

(7) H Adam & H Giliomee The Rise and Crises of Afrikaner Power, Cape Town: David Philip, 1979

(8) Maureen Michau "Teacher development - a brief report on some of the voluntary, informal schemes in operation in Natal" in W Morrow (ed) The Proceedings of the Kenton Conference 1980, Johannesburg, 1980

(9) Official Publication Inquiry into Universities, RP 25 - 1974 (The van Wyk de Vries Commission)

(10) AN Boyce "The organisation and control of institutions responsible for the education and training of teachers", submission to the HSRC investigation, 1981

(11) We are indebted to Professor Boyce for this summary of the van Wyk de Vries Report

(12) BV Rosenshine & DC Berliner "Academic engaged time" in British Journal of Teacher Education Vol 4 No 1, Jan 1978

(13) B Avalos "Teacher effectiveness; research in the third world (highlights of a review)" in Comparative Education Vol 16 No 1, March 1980

(14) ET Emmer & CM Evertson "Synthesis of research on classroom management" in Educational Leadership, Jan 1981

(15) David Freer "Education for the majority: quantity needs quality". Lecture delivered to Wits Council of Education, June 1981

(16) H Hawes Curriculum and Reality in African Primary Schools, London: Longmans, 1979

(17) A Wandira "Teacher education for mass education in Africa" in Teachers' College Record Vol 81 No 1 (pgs 77-93), 1979

(18) M Sinclair & K Lillis School and Community in the Third World London: Croom Helm, 1980

(19) R Alexander & E Wormald Professional Studies for Teaching, Leeds: Leeds University Press, 1979

(20) Paul Hirst "Professional studies in initial teacher education" in Alexander & Wormald (19)

(21) MB Dagut South Africa: An Appraisal, Johannesburg: Nedbank Group Economic Unit, 1977

(22) Department of Education and Science (GB) Teacher Education and Training (The James Report) London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1972

(23) A Rudd in A Harris et al (eds) Curriculum Innovation, London: Croom Helm, 1975

(24) Frans Auerbach "Share education resources fairly" in The Star 18 March 1982

A CASE FOR ILLUMINATIVE EVALUATION IN EDUCATION

Terry Dachs

The origins of illuminative evaluation as an alternative to traditional models of evaluation can be traced to the Churchill College, Cambridge, Conference of December 1972 when Malcolm Parlett and Barry MacDonald gathered a small group of non-traditional evaluators from Britain, the USA and Sweden together. They shared a dissatisfaction with the predominant psycho-statistical paradigm in curriculum evaluation and proposed instead a model founded in a social anthropology paradigm which would display three vital characteristics; it would be rooted in the real situation of a curriculum in action and not in contrived experiments using control groups; it would do justice to the complexity of this reality by revealing not only consensus and intended outcomes but also diversity of opinions, atypical and unintended consequences, processes as well as products; and it would produce reports which were both useful and readable. Such evaluations would be holistic, responsive and illuminative. Hamilton (1) defines these terms :

> Responsive evaluation responds to the wide range of questions asked about an innovation and is not trapped inside the intensions of the programme builders. Holistic evaluation seeks to portray an education programme in its entirety. Illuminative evaluation seeks to open out an educational situation to intelligent criticism and appraisal.

Far from producing tidy statistical findings with their pretence of value-free objectivity, such evaluations would align themselves with Hawes' (2) sentiments.

> We must learn to live with the untidiness, the humaness of change, control our exasperation and be thankful that we are dealing with individuals who can laugh and can change.

The Inappropriateness of the Psycho-Statistical Paradigm

Emphasis on the psycho-statistical paradigm has led to a proliferation of 'objective' evaluation techniques - a tradition maintained by studies which command considerable public interest such as those of Bennett (3) and Rutter (4). Such studies attempt to identify primary and secondary

objectives of the curriculum, to isolate the process variable at work and to refine measuring instruments to assess the product outcome in terms of behavioural change. Whilst such an approach has many of the attributes of scientific tidiness, its prime sin is one of omission. In Parlett's (5) words :

> So many random, unpredicted and human factors intervene that neat experimental designs cannot contain them all. For this reason, results from such studies merely carry conviction : they present an emaciated and artificial picture of real-world educational life.

Stake (6) expresses similar objections to the psycho-statistical paradigm claiming that it promotes the 'great simplifiers' of statistical analysis, theory-building and consensus-seeking. "These simplifiers help us by reducing the phenomena to something within our power of comprehension. But they mislead us by saying that education is much less than it really is." He recognises the existence of a "need to convey holistic impression, the mood, even the mystery of the experience." (7)

A further criticism of the objectives approach comes from Stenhouse (8) who challenges the unquestioning acceptance of this model by many educators. "We do not <u>have</u> objectives," he observes, "we choose to conceptualise our behaviour in terms of objectives or we choose not to." He claims that objectives can be too restrictive : "Education as induction into knowledge is successful to the extent that it makes the behavioural outcomes of the students unpredictable." (9) This emphasis on objectives has misled the curriculum evaluator into favouring the study of 'samples' and neglecting the study of 'cases'. Stenhouse pleads for a compromise :

> I believe that the description of cases and the analytic categorisation of samples are complementary and necessary approaches in educational research, and it is high time that the superficial stylistic differences between their proponents were recognised as impediments to good sense in the research community. (10)

Others however are less optimistic about such a compromise as they challenge the assumptions made by the psycho-statistical paradigm. They criticise the appropriateness of an 'agricultural-botanical' model of evaluation for the curriculum. In this model :

> Students - rather like plant crops - are given pretests (the seedlings are weighed or measured) and then submitted to different experiences (treatment conditions). Subsequently, after a period of time, their attainment (growth or yield) is measured to indicate the relative efficiency of the methods (fertilisers) used. (11)

Such a model fails to reveal the value-laden nature of curriculum decisions and gives a pretence of a value-free evaluation. Hamilton (12) asserts that evaluation cannot be value-free :

> Evaluation entails a view of society. People differ about evaluation because they differ about what society is, what it can be and what it ought to be. Much of the debate about evaluation is ideology disguised as technology.

He further notes that "it is something of an irony that its (the curriculum's) evaluators are commonly assumed to be value-free." (13)

Concern for the elimination of value-judgements has led evaluators into the blind alley of the agricultural-botanical model where peripheral aspects of the curriculum often assume dominance. Hawes (14) suggests a consequence of this trend : "It becomes easy and often less disturbing to concentrate on whether a curriculum is working than whether it is appropriate."

Far from curriculum evaluation avoiding, denying or concealing value-positions, it should, in Stake's (15) view, address itself directly to the question of values :

> Evaluation is an observed value compared to some standard. It is a simple ratio but the numerator is not simple. In programme evaluation it pertains to the whole constellation of values for the programme; and the denominator is not simple because it pertains to the complex of expectations and criteria that different people have for such a programme.
>
> The basic task for an evaluator is made barely tolerable by the fact that he does not have to solve this equation in some numerical way nor to obtain a descriptive summary grade, but needs merely to make a comprehensive statement of what the programme is observed to be, with useful reference

> to the satisfaction and dissatisfaction that appropriately selected people feel towards it.

The psycho-statistical paradigm, the objectives approach and the agricultural-botanical model are all, therefore, rejected by proponents of illuminative evaluation as inadequate because they fail to enlighten the participants on how the curriculum operates and how it produces the outcomes they observe it to produce. Measurements of efficiency alone are considered inadequate.

The Philosophical Foundations for Illuminative Evaluation

As indicated earlier, Stenhouse (16) suggests that the differences between the psycho-statistical paradigm with its concern for the study of 'samples' and the ethnomethodological approach with its emphasis on the study of 'cases' are largely of a 'superficial stylistic' nature. This viewpoint fails to take account of fundamentally differing epistemological theories on which these paradigms are based. Opponents of empirical theory include phenomenologists, 'social action' theorists and 'reflexive sociologists'. They unite in questioning the adequacy of empiricism, of attempts such as those of Hirst (17), Peters (18) and Phenix (19) to classify knowledge into 'domains', 'realms' or hierarchies of 'worthwhileness' on an a priori basis, and of all preordinate theories of learning. (See Young (20), Brent (21), Denton (22) and Curtis & Mays (23) for the development of these points.) Empirical theory, in their view, misinterprets the nature of knowledge by accepting the constraints of sense perception and by viewing the individual as a receiver of stimuli from an external, objective world. Such a theory fails to attribute sufficient importance to the subjective influences upon perception and tends to dehumanise and depersonalise knowledge in its search for universal, eternal, objective 'truth'.

Young (24) emphasises the need to view what constitutes knowledge as problematic and refers to the work of Alfred Schutz in support of this belief :

> Schutz treats institutional definitions or typifications (whether of education or families or politics) as the inter-subjective reality which men have constructed to give meaning to their world.

Consequently curriculum evaluation must reflect the vision of reality as perceived by the participants and seek to describe the similarities and differences in these

perceptions. "Unless such ... distinctions or intrinsic logics are treated as problematic, philosophical criticism cannot examine the assumptions of academic curricula." (25) Such a philosophical criticism is essential for a holistic evaluation of any curriculum.

The Procedural Stages in Illuminative Evaluation

Parlett (26) describes in some detail the five separate but associated stages he deems necessary in illuminative evaluation. In the first stage, a general strategy must be established to clarify the type of study and report required. Important factors at this stage are the clear establishment of the role of the evaluator who does not 'inspect' but studies the project with a view to understanding it as a working system, of the evaluator's brief and of the clientele to whom he is to report. There must be no prescription of variables to be included or excluded.

In the second stage, the evaluator undertakes the laborious task of familiarising himself with the day-to-day realities of the curriculum and becoming knowledgeable about the total scheme. It is here that his role most closely resembles that of the social anthropologist in the field, amassing information and recording the actions and opinions of the participants.

In stage three, the evaluator is able to pin-point particular areas for a more sustained and intensive enquiry. During this stage interviews and observations become progressively focused and the process of triangulation is employed. Some pencil-and-paper tests may also be used. Such tests may provide quantitative data and whilst Parlett (27) is concerned lest illuminative evaluators scorn the value of such data, he also insists that it should not occupy any position of privilege in the evaluation.

In stage four, the organising and ordering of descriptions, interpretations and explanations is undertaken. The prime purpose during this stage is to highlight the areas of major concern as revealed by the participants. In the final stage, the written report is produced reflecting not only the sensitivity of the evaluator to the needs of his audience but also his ability to provide an overview in which his personal views are neither concealed nor evangelised.

By following these steps, the illuminative evaluator portrays a holistic view of the curriculum. His report is non-recommendatory; it is enlightening - and as such fulfils a real need for information experienced by both teacher and curriculum designer alike.

Notes

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'AN EXAMINED LIFE' — REFLECTIONS ON THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE

Sheila Schlesinger

Out of the wisdom of Socrates arose the classical idea of the attainment of knowledge - that to be educated implies the power to live 'the examined life' through a continual process of questioning. 'His (Socrates') aim was to discover the truth, not as matter of pure speculation, but with a view to the (morally) good life. '(1) Thus education extends beyond information-gathering, to understanding and evaluating oneself and one's environment.

In Emile, Jean-Jacques Rousseau posited that the teacher should concentrate on the developing potential of the individual through experimental learning. 'The only kind of lesson he (the pupil) should get is that of experience!'. (2) John Dewey emphasised the acquiring of virtue, the active role of the individual and goals of personal freedom in education. (3)

Two ideas can be extracted from the above philosophies: firstly, that education involves self-examination, a quest for understanding as well as a consideration of the moral and ethical issues of life. Secondly, participation and autonomy for the individual is of primary importance.

These ideas have been largely waived in the wake of the technological era following the Industrial Revolution, with its need for mass education and technical and scientific training. Large classes, with a lack of emphasis on the individual, teacher authoritarianism led to standardisation of learning, especially of such material that could be easily examined. Further, the explosion of scientific research and discovery has given rise to an overwhelming amount of technical data and factual information now accessible to the school teacher. Ours is a fact-oriented society and the gathering and learning of these facts has largely become the primary occupation of the classroom.

Alvin Toffler sees a close relationship between society today and its methods of schooling. 'The inner life of the school thus becomes an anticipatory mirror, a perfect introduction to industrial society. The most criticised features of education today - the regimentation, rigid systems of seating, lack of individualization, the authoritarian role

of the teacher - are precisely those that made mass public education so effective and instrument of adaptation for its place and time.' (4)

In a similar vein, Charles A Reich states : 'Beginning with school, an individual is systematically stripped of his imagination, his creativity, his heritage, his dreams and his personal uniqueness in order to style him into a productive unit for a mass technological society. Instinct, feeling and spontaneity are repressed by overwhelming forces'. (5) Imposed learning, geared towards competition and the passing of exams allows little space for the questing mind and the first-hand attainment of knowledge. A vast chasm divides home and school life, school being the place where one studies facts which have little bearing on the 'decisions and revisions which a minute will reverse'. (6)

Hard facts flung into a vacuum will not help young people in search of their dreams and their identity. Education a lá Gradgrind is diametrically opposed to the contemplation and working-out of moral values in life. Add to this the priorities of a materialistic society with the values once embodied in church and family becoming increasingly dissipated, and a picture of alienation and anomie emerges. An educational approach based on utilitarianism must surely produce a weltanschaung blurred to the implications of 'the examined life'.

This utilitarian schooling bears an intimate relationship to the teaching of literature. Of all the disciplines within the classroom, perhaps literature is most subject to the abuse of standardised procedures. It is suggested here, that the way in which literature is taught militates against any search for learning on the part of the individual. Literature is reduced to a set of facts to be learned by rote along with the other subjects in the school curriculum. Only too often the study of a book entails an ability to chronicle in detail the events contained within it. Innumerable aids are published with this aim in mind.

The factual information that Macbeth murdered Duncan with a dagger becomes far more important for examination purposes than the moral dilemma into which Macbeth plunged himself. The Bullock Report - a comprehensive account of English teaching in Britain - states : 'The explanations and the summaries have expanded to take-over point; the literature has receeded. We must seriously question what is being achieved when pupils are producing chapter summaries in sequence, taking endless notes to prepare model answers and writing stereotyped essays which carry no hint of a felt

response'. (7) This situation prevails in South Africa to an even greater extent. A South African teacher of English comments: 'The essence of a subject like English has little to do with testability .... One still encounters teachers using the kind of "Test Yourself" questions posed in "College of Careers" booklets ... In which suburb of London did Estella live? In which street was Mr Jaggers' residence? How much money did Miss Haversham bequeath to Herbert's father? .... This emphasises on content trivia is enough to repel the most ardent reader'. (8)

Even at university level, the 'truth' of an interpretation is often seen as residing in the lecturer. Students become over-anxious about note-taking, not daring to trust their own ability in reading and analysis. Since students have not developed the necessary skills for close contextual analysis, their fears are perhaps justified. However, students do often complain that a lecturer does not allow the exploration of alternative interpretation.

Poetry, too, presents problems for the student. In primary school, learning poems by heart or reciting them over and over again is done only too often. There is not enough attention paid to poems of high literary value that, at the same time, are central to a child's immediate concerns. The result is disillusionment : ' ... what kind of understanding has the detailed study of poetry given to the large numbers of pupils who vote so feelingly against it? It is clear that this antipathy rests substantially in the method of teaching it; and the comprehension approach is by no means confined to the examination years. It is usually associated with the timetabled poetry lesson which often assumes the shape of the Procrustean bed'. (9)

The inaccessibility of poetry is further complicated by the way in which the poet is elevated to god-like status. His main function is seen as didactic. Many a student essay begins: 'The poet is teaching us ....' The prejudice against poetry is increased when it is presented as something arcane, precious, to be revered but not experienced. 'The teacher finds it difficult to show that poetry is not some inaccessible form of utterance but that it speaks directly to children as to anyone else, and has something to say which is relevant to their living here and now'. (10) The language of criticism ambiguous enough for those skilled in its use becomes an unwieldly tool in inexperienced hands, putting the student at a remove from the poem itself. Thus the vital link between poet and audience is never forged.

The teaching of literature, therefore, does not consist of a

shared encounter with poetry, novels or plays. Rather it is taught in such a way that it is external to the student's pattern of experiencing. The student is unable to make any connection between the study of literature and the vital life questions that beset him. His individuality is subjugated within a system that regards literature as a means to a utilitarian end - namely passing examinations and obtaining a school-leaving certificate.

This is both tragic and ironic, for intrinsically literature addresses those concerns at the heart of the human condition - the meaning of life, the characters, motives and internal workings of men and women, good and evil and the mysterious cycles of life and death. If the work studied is truly a work of art, it must contain this universality, this devotion to key concepts about human nature, concepts which preoccupy young people to a greater or lesser extent. Most young people are involved with discovering their identity, choosing sets of moral values, experimenting with lifestyles. Therefore, any study concerning these concepts could engage them profoundly, so long as it were presented in a suitable manner. The story teller has traditionally held young people captive by his craft, from the time that Man's first imaginings were framed in language. The writer is heir to this ancient craft of story-telling, a craft that reaches into the archaic roots of myth and fairy tale, the earliest and simplest explanations of Man's behaviour. 'From these tales children formed their concepts of the world's origin and purpose'. Bettleheim claims that 'these stories answered the child's most important questions and were a major agent of his socialisation'. He terms the study of literature 'life divined from within' (11), thus emphasising its importance to the development of children.

Indeed, literature is so meaningful in daily living that it could be seen as a reflection of life. The characters have these numerous parallels with people like ourselves. In Aristotle's formulation of catharsis is the concept that we identify with the joys and terrors of characters created by the writer. Further, the original impulse for the work of literature must be taken from life itself : Jane Austen's irony arose out of the fact that she herself had detailed and intimate knowledge of the society that she described. Dickens was intensely preoccupied with the Poor Law and other social injustices. The raw stuff of writing is formed from subtle and sensitive observations about people and environment. The writer's internal gauge takes readings of the moral and emotional climate of his characters and his own reactions to them.

The creative process that the writer undergoes perhaps parallels that of the reader who enjoys the fruits of the poet's or author's labours. As the reader ingests the words on the printed page, he is doing two things. Firstly he is comparing and contrasting his own thoughts, dreams, ideals and experieces with those of the writer's, searching for both similarities and differences to either add to his view of the world or to confirm it. Secondly, and this applies especially to poetry, he is using his knowledge of language, the implications of his own vocabulary and his ability to extract the rich connotations and associations from the written word. Thus he weaves a complicated web, both emotional and cognitive, into his response to literature, and his reading will be taken into the very fabric of his life, his dreams and hopes. 'In literature we are working on the unity and coherence of our value systems, our feelings about the world in double harness with the artist'. (12)

Thus it may be seen that literature has the power to involve those engaged in its studies at the deepest and most profound levels, providing that it is taught in an appropriate manner. It is proposed here that the starting point should be within the student himself, his own emotions, ideas and life experience, and that this should be a continual source of reference which grows outward to fuse with the work of art under consideration. This obviously implies a progression, and may be likened to a journey into unknown territory from a familiar place. This journey involves stretching the mind and the awareness into other modes of being and feeling.

Any scholarship presupposes a certain amount of detachment and perhaps the first task of the student is to become aware of his ideas, opinions and prejudices as they are tested against literary works. The process, therefore, moves from a perception of emotional reaction to the larger standpoint of moral awareness, leading to considerations of more universal concepts about the human condition.

To teach in such a way that the encounter between literature and the self takes place requires a certain amount of humility. The teacher's role is guide or facilitator, mid-wife to ideas. Skill at probing, encouraging, understanding plus a great deal of patience is required. Restraint is necessary to keep questions divergent and open-ended and to avoid dogmatism. Tact and delicacy on the teacher's part lead students to build upon one another's ideas and it is not easy to keep the poem or passage in sight whilst allowing room for enthusiastic comments from the class. Perhaps one of the teacher's main tasks is to show faith in the student's abilities and redirect answers, promoting discussion and

argument, rather than discouraging it.

It is essential that the atmosphere in such a class be an accepting, relaxed one since students need time to come forth with their own ideas. Allowing a silence to develop requires a firmness of purpose which is perhaps more difficult to maintain than that needed to discipline a class. Yet silence also has its place in teaching literature, for ideas can grow in it. Similarly, quietness is important : 'The classroom in the school and the university may provide a setting of quietness and concentration in which there is no need to argue about the beauty of an ode by Keats because that beauty has been directly perceived by the attentive spirits of the class'. (13)

In teaching literature, it is possible to promote the growth of awareness and a sense of humanity. A definition of such a growth could be the investigation of the relationship between the self and the environment, and the ability to articulate this investigation. Maps and charts, in the form of books and poems can be a guide to this process. Herbert Read sees the social function of the artist as 'his capacity to materialise the instinctual life of the deepest levels of the mind'. (14) By allowing literature to imbue our students with its own liveliness, we would be accommodating the individual and the 'examined life' into today's society.

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INTERCHANGE

THE COMMON AND THE DIVERSE

Henry Stone

1 INTELLECTUAL POSITION

Comparative Education, as it is being practised in the University of South Africa, rests upon a definite appreciation for and use of what so many exponents of this pedagogic discipline have up to now done. It has however also grown from a conviction that Comparative Educational thought, especially in the Western World, has been and is being narrowed down too much to reflection merely on methods and technicalities. In many cases Comparative Education is quite uncritically equated with the use of the comparative method. The result of this narrowness is that theoretical questions lacking a direct methodological relevance receive very little attention, eg the distinctive perspective or angle on education which distinguishes Comparative Education from Didactics, History of Education, Philosophy of Education or Socio-pedagogics.

A second objection is that exponents of Comparative Education often fail to reflect critically on theoretical premises. Brian Holmes's criticism of positivistic presuppositions is almost an exception. Marxist exponents of Comparative Education even deny that their premises are assumptive, for they believe them to be empirically proven. In positivistic circles reflection on presuppositions in educational research is regarded with disfavour as it runs contrary to this school of thought.

In the University of South Africa, therefore, we began to

extend our research slightly more than a decade ago beyond methodological matters. Without disregarding methodological models and technicalities, we began to study what can perhaps be termed the foundations of Comparative Education. We checked consistently not only data but also underlying assumptions. This has led in due course to a somewhat distinctive approach to Comparative Education.

2 WEIGHING FACTS AND PREMISES

Theoretical knowledge can never be elevated above the hypothetical. Of course facts are important, but when facts are placed in certain relations and arranged in a manner to suggest a proposition or theory certain basic but often unnoticed assumptions consciously or unconsciously play a role. Implicit or explicit inherent assumptions underlying the arrangement of facts into a theory often play a vital role. If one does not accept the possibility of a science totally free from presuppositions it follows that not only facts should be consistently checked but also that a watch should be kept on the role of all those lurking assumptions embodied in hypotheses, propositions, so-called self-evidencies, the implied but unverified preferential use of certain authors, paradigms, so-called intellectual positions put forward in literature on Comparative Education - including one's own efforts. "Being truly scientific", King asserts, "requires him (the comparative educationist - HJSS) to acknowledge his subjectivity". (1,15)

Eventually this intellectual position combined with research has led to a perspective on Comparative Education which, I believe, owes much to the valuable contributions of a vast number of Comparative Educationists throughout the world, especially the grand masters in this field. But at the same time it is a perspective resulting from a different arrangement of common facts dependant on our particular research and our somewhat different assumptions.

3 PERSPECTIVE: THE COMMON AND THE DIVERSE

In the remaining paragraphs it will only be possible to explain by way of example how a somewhat different premise has led to a different interpretation of researched data. The perspective of Comparative Education, distinct from that of Didactics, Philosophy of Education etc, will be taken as an example.

Anyone who makes an in-depth study of the development of Comparative Education will observe that comparativists are apt to over-emphasise either the general or the particular

in educational systems. In most writings and research either the common or the unique, either the general or the diverse, is stressed to the neglect of the other side of reality. This one-sidedness can be related to one-sided ontological premises.

(a) A unilateral stress on universality, the common, generality or unity has resulted in an under-estimation of the close link that should exist between education on the one hand and the needs and circumstances of a particular society on the other. And this fact has led to more than one problem:

- A backlog in the provision of education; for a general or international model implies a system which does not provide education according to the changing and differentiated needs of a particular society. The general is regarded as more important than the particular.

- Uncritical and even slavish borrowing from other educational systems, such as by a colony from the mother country.

- A too high appreciation, in the spirit of Comenius, of "international" and "global education", also by UNESCO in the fifties and sixties, has led to an under-estimation of the diversity within the world of education.

(b) A unilateral stress on individuality, particularity or uniqueness and therefore on the diversity of education systems has resulted in the following:

- An absence very often of what King has termed "the systematic promotion of research into the phenomenon of education per se" (2,47), and therefore the absence of a search for what constitutes the general essence of effective education and education systems.

- The compilation of a vast quantity of data on individual educational systems which, although useful in itself, has a limited scope lacking as it does the previous identification of its general applicability.

- If the focus is only on the individuality of educational systems, as it was in the so-called 'phases and factors' era, a general 'tertium comparationis' as well as criteria for evaluation become elusive matters.

All the above-mentioned problems and deficiencies of Comparative Education are outcomes of a unilateral view of reality.

4 THE COMMON AND THE DIVERSE IN EQUILIBRIUM

It seems desirable to take as a basic premise that the two sides of educational reality, the common and the diverse, are of equal importance to comparative research. After all comparison needs diversity as it needs a common basis. Furthermore: the common/general and the diverse/particular are found together always and everywhere.

Such a balance of realities, both sides being of equal importance, leads to:

(a) Equal attention being given to the diverse and the common in educational systems.

(b) Consequently the balance leads to recognition of a comparative search for what constitutes the general essence of effective education as well as acceptance of comparative research as a means of finding the best way to particularise a common or general criterion or structure ie to translate it into practice. The first kind of comparative research, implies an inductive approach (not to be understood positivistically). Vastly different examples can be compared in one's search for the general, which surpasses all cultural boundaries. The second kind of comparative research implies a deductive use of comparison, whereby the examples used in the comparison are limited by the particular demands of a certain geographic or cultural region, examples which will render insight into and understanding of the particularisation or actualisation of education in that region.

(c) A general order within observable reality is also implied, and it can be brought to light by research. This is the general side of reality. In the University of South Africa we have purposefully searched for the essential characteristics of effective education and for general processes of effective educational administration and management. In studies completed up to now a general structure of educational systems and of the school as a general phenomenon have been identified with a view to finding a less random or haphazard basis of comparison.

(d) On the other hand our premise leads to the deduction

that the general takes on a particular shape or form always and everywhere. Put differently: every educational system is an educational system because it corresponds to the general structural order for educational systems. Therefore it corresponds to other educational systems. The Russian and American educational systems can be compared because both correspond to the general nature of an educational system. They differ because they are two different particularisations of the general nature of the educational system. Our research, therefore, also focussed on individuality and the resultant diversity. Fifteen aspects were identified in respect of which a particular educational system's individuality or identity can be more fully understood.

5 TO CONCLUDE

The reader will hopefully accept the fact that it is impossible to compress the work of a decade into as short an article as this. Only one small facet, but perhaps the most basic of a 'different' approach to Comparative Education has been illustrated but without saying anything about the more practical implications and applications. The interested reader will find much more in my work of 1981, The Common and the Diverse. A Profile of Comparative Education, published by McGraw-Hill, Johannesburg. The title is a reminder that Comparative Education is the educational discipline which, more than any other, focusses attention on the common and the diverse in the field of education. In the variety, on the one hand, it searches for that which transcends all geographic, ethnic and temporal bounds and therefore has a common validity. At the same time it also seeks, on the other hand, to determine how that which is general and essential for a good education can be realised by each community in its own unique way in accordance with the specific circumstances and needs which prevail there. Thus Comparative Education reveals an undoubtedly theoretical as well as a strongly practical side. We have only touched on the first in this article.

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THE NATURE AND VALUE OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

A J Vos

INTRODUCTION

The function of educating the youth of a nation, which used to be largely an undertaking by parents, or society or voluntary organisations, has been superceded by a system of education that is largely publicly financed and publicly administered.

It has also become fashionable for all countries to be involved in some form of social stocktaking and planning for the future. The use of the education system to achieve the desired social security, prosperity and well-being is also a common phenomenon.

It is therefore absolutely essential to have a thorough knowledge of not only the nature of the education system but also of pitfalls and possibilities resulting from the deliberate manipulation of a social system which deals with the formative conditions of future generations.

No social reform takes place in the sterile and regulated conditions of a laboratory. Therefore educational experiments are risky undertakings, because if things go wrong untold miseries may be brought upon millions of people.

The systematic and comprehensive academic study of education systems of the world and of the forces which have shaped the present variety of educational idioms, however, can take place under controlled laboratory conditions without committing future generations or having effect on the lives of children.

The mandate for the study of Comparative Education is intimately tied up in the foregoing.

NATURE AND VALUE

The University of Zululand and more specifically the Department of History of Education and Comparative Education agrees with an expanded theoretical approach as propagated by Stone in order to come to grips with the nature and foundations of Comparative Education, rather than with mere models, methods and technicalities.

Theoretical considerations of the wider aspects of the nature of Comparative Education, however, do not exclude a thorough (insofar as this is a possibility) study of individual education systems of foreign countries.

This more practical aspect of Comparative Education at the University of Zululand receives attention in study programmes at various levels and is not relegated to a secondary position.

From our point of view - (which is mainly shaped by the needs of our consumers) there exists in our student teachers, a one-sided view or subjective opinion of educational issues in the RSA and abroad. There seems to be a general tendency of condemnation of the indigenous, and an unqualified acceptance of foreign educational practices. Studies of foreign education systems therefore are done with due regard to and emphasis on, relevant theoretical considerations in order to come to a more objective evaluation of educational practices throughout the world.

The Faculty of Education at the University of Zululand concerns itself exclusively with the training of teachers for secondary schools: an integrated 4-year B Paed -degree composed of academic and professional subjects is offered to full-time and part-time students.

The assumption is that the bulk of the products of our efforts will remain in the teaching profession and regard it as a lifelong career that offers advancement through the ranks from assistant teacher, to senior positions in the many ramifications of the education system. With this in mind it is essential that a prospective teacher will be made thoroughly aware of both the theory and practice that underlie the social system in which he/she is required to make a lifelong positive contribution in various capacities. It is therefore envisaged that students of the study of Comparative Education will gain the following:

- The study of Comparative Education should bring about a better understanding of the intimate relationship that exists between the Education System and the society it purports to serve.

- The study of Comparative Education should extend the horizons of knowledge and understanding of a person working within the system. Such a person is hopefully more open to valid reforms and less antagonistic to renewal - the last a condition resulting from an impoverished and suffocating life and world view.

- The study of Comparative Education not only brings to light alternative educational practices and solutions but also sounds a warning to the practice of borrowing indiscriminately from other systems. An attitude of assimilating is advocated rather than one of adoption.

- Education beliefs/traditions/ and dogmas, which were formerly regarded as untouchable/unchangeable, assume new dimensions and become less fixed when seen from a comparative perspective.

- The study of an Education System in comparative prospective enhances the realization that no system is completely bad or the only one beset with problems.

- The study of Comparative Education inhibits self-complacency with regard to curricula, Teacher Training etc.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA — TOWARDS AN EFFECTIVE RATIONALE

Bernard Steinberg

As a field of study and research in universities throughout the world, Comparative Education has in recent years been passing through a phase of uncertainty and flux. While considerations of method and theory relating to such issues as the pros and cons of positivism versus subjectivity, have indeed been prominent in recent developments in the state of the art, the underlying validity of the entire field as a clearly demarcated discipline has still to be universally clarified (1).

The Founding Fathers of Comparative Education unashamedly fostered a vision of the study of foreign school systems as a means towards individual dignity, national self-improvement and global interdependence. Judicious borrowing of ideas, and the process of learning to avoid the errors experienced in other lands were regarded as the combined means towards attaining higher standards in one's own national education system. And as the ideal summation of this process, the nations of the world would be drawn closer together in a spirit of mutual co-operation. As long ago as 1902, for example, Sir Michael Sadler adopted this internationalist approach. In the course of relating his impressions of American education he summed up the ideology as follows:

> Too much depends for the future of the world on the outcome of the great educational movement in America for it to be becoming for us to rest content with indifference in regard to it or with indiscriminate praise. (2)

Today, in a century characterised by the tragic paradox of expanding national systems of education, side by side with a singular lack of a corresponding improvement in the human condition, that original vision remains a noble ideal among Comparative Educationists. As in all the social and behavioural sciences the ultimate aim and justification is that of the well-being of Mankind - hence the special relevance of Comparative Education in today's world.

Implicit in Professor Stone's paper, if I understand him correctly, the Utopian end-product remains a valid factor, despite his emphasis on means rather than ends. With

justified concern for maintaining a sense of proportion over parameters relating to the theoretical and the practical, and an equilibrium between the common and the diverse, he emphasises the need for an appropriate methodology as a prerequisite in the comparative method. I agree with him about this. All too often the study of foreign systems of education can degenerate into simplistic travellers' tales or, at the other extreme, it can succumb to the intricacies of abstruse methodology and theoretical debate.

My general reaction to Professor Stone's paper, however, is to feel that he has stopped short at the crucial point of applying to the South African setting the principles that he enunciates. I would like to learn, for example, more about his views on 'the strongly practical side' of Comparative Education. With this in mind, I thought I might attempt to carry the discussion one stage further, in the hope that I will be forgiven for such an exercise in conjecture.

Comparative Education as an applied field not only has a place in education faculties and departments of this country, but ideally this place should be integral to all academic pursuits in this sector. There are, to my mind, five important reasons for this assertion. Firstly, given the South African situation, there is an urgent need for international perspectives in studying and assessing our own problems and crises. Secondly, Comparative Education teaches us at all times to bear in mind the social, political and economic factors with which national education systems are inextricably linked, as well as the historical antecedents from which they stem. Thirdly, the processes of change which have characterised national education systems throughout the world since 1945 are such that they cannot be ignored in any meaningful assessment of the local situation. Fourthly, while in the past Comparative Education in South African universities has been a neglected field, the current signs of newly-awakened interest introduce the dangers of applying foreign case studies indiscriminately as a panacea for South Africa's current problems, or of rejecting them as being totally irrelevant. Fifthly, the 'visionary' approach to Comparative Education is one that merits special consideration, both in this country and in the world at large.

Whether or not these five propositions are universally accepted, there still remain the related issues of content, approach and priorities. Here again, the line taken by Professor Stone refers to a possible methodological framework, but stops short when it comes to the crucial question (3). In terms of specific day-to-day policy, how indeed does one nurture these so-called international

perspectives? Is it really possible to steer a safe course between, on the one hand, facile comparisons involving South Africa and other countries, and, on the other, total immersion in methodological and theoretical niceties? I can only hope that these and other related questions will emerge within the foreseeable future as issues for debate among Comparative Educationists in this country.

With regard to content and approach, we at the University of Cape Town Faculty of Education are aware of the difficulties as we strive towards our own clearly defined policy, not only in Comparative Education but in every facet of our work. It is felt for example that the study of foreign systems of education should as far as possible be pursued in juxtaposition to the equivalent study of educational provision in this country, particularly within the context of the contemporary situation. Thus the well-known model of precariously co-existing First and Third Worlds in South Africa would be borne in mind in any study of independent national systems as diverse as those of France and Tanzania. Moreover, there is the ever-present reality of our own place on the Continent of Africa. While such established systems as those of the USA or England and Wales are certainly interesting per se, of more urgent relevance are related details in the Black African emergent states, so much nearer home.

If Comparative Education is to develop beyond the framework and content of an interesting academic exercise for its own sake, then its practitioners must needs adopt a problem-orientation approach. One of the basic axioms influencing international education agencies today is the fact that social, economic and political situations and their effect on education systems transcend national frontiers. For what little comfort it may be, it is salutary to bear in mind that South Africa's problems and issues have their equivalent situations, with appropriate variations, in many other countries. Four such related themes that today preoccupy Comparative Educationists the world over are as follows:- (a) Educational provision in plural societies. (b) Equality of education and equality of opportunity. (c) Education and Development. (d) Education and socio-political change. It is highly significant that contemporary South Africa presents in stark microcosm the setting for each of these four topics.

In examining locally published texts, I have looked in vain for any attempt to carry the study of foreign systems and that of South Africa beyond the stage of theory and methodology, supplemented by self-contained descriptions of the administrative structures. Attempts at analysis or

interpretation within the wider context are scarcely in evidence. Both Holmes and King, whom Professor Stone cites in a different context, as well as other seminal thinkers, have stressed the importance of applied studies relating to problems and issues (4). In a textbook published recently in the USA, the point is made that the Comparative method in education is still the best means towards a better comprehension of present day realities:

> In an imperfect and complex world, intelligent and cautious comparison may still be the best analytic tool researchers have to make generalizations about social reality over time and across societal units. (5)

The point is reinforced by the wide range of comparative studies in the field of education under the sponsorship of such agencies as UNESCO, The World Bank, and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. Such studies are first and foremost problem-orientated, while at the same time they are concerned with the realities of a changing world. They provide ideal texts for study and research in universities, without in any way diminishing the importance of theory and methodology. Comparative Education has thus become an applied study emphasising content, and by direct implication involving its practitioners in policy and development. It has emerged from the esoteric seclusion of the ivory towers of Academe precisely because it has so much to offer to the planners and the policy makers.

Here in South Africa there is today tremendous scope for studies along these lines. Indeed, such an approach is an indispensable part of the preparation of our teachers and education administrators at all levels. As such, therefore, international perspectives provide an urgent challenge. Especially since 1976 the processes of upheaval, change and reform in our own education system can only be fully assessed within the wider context. While in the past there had been a marked tendency to overlook this fact of life, in the research that preceded the publication of the de Lange Report an awareness of it was already in evidence. Similarly, it is encouraging to note that this preliminary research also attempted to take account of a comparative internationalist approach (6). As far as work in university educational faculties and departments is concerned, the priorities of such branches as Psychology, Philosophy and Teaching Methods retain their importance, but can only be enhanced through the introduction of these new perspectives. Apart from this, a very important by-product of such a policy would be the creation of closer links with Comparative Educationists and

Internationalists in other countries, an academic relationship from which this country could benefit greatly. In the final analysis, by advancing beyond an abstract consideration of the common and diverse, and concerning ourselves with substantive realities, are we not all comparativists? (7)

Notes

(1) See, for example, Comparative Education Review (1977) 21/2, under the general title, "The State of the Art: Twenty Years of Comparative Education"

(2) Stewart E Fraser & Williams W Brickman (eds) A History of International and Comparative Education - Nineteenth Century Documents, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co, 1968, pg 480

(3) My comments refer to Professor Stone's paper only. I have his book The Common and the Diverse: A Profile of Comparative Education (Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill, 1981) on order, and look forward to reading in it an elaboration of his views.

(4) For example: Brian Holmes Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, London: George Allen & Unwin, 1981, chs 1 & 4; and Edmund J King Other Schools and Ours, London: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1979, chs 3 & 12.

(5) PG Altbach, RF Arnove & GP Kelly (eds) Comparative Education, New York: Macmillan, 1982, pg 5.

(6) Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into Education - Report of the Work Committee: Education Management, Pretoria, July 1981, pgs 9-13 and 119-123

(7) I am grateful to Owen van den Berg and Peter Buckland for their comments on the preliminary drafts of this paper. The opinions expressed and any shortcomings in the final version are my own responsibility.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE COMMON AND DIVERSE APPROACH FOR EDUCATION SYSTEM PLANNING

Dudley Vermaak

This short article is in support of Stone's approach to Comparative Education which emphasises both the common and the diverse in education (1). This approach has specific implications for education system planning.

1 THE ISSUES OF CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION SYSTEM PLANNING

Normally the main issue of education system planning is to bring about education reform and development which will enable an existing education system to distribute relevant and suitable education opportunities justly across the whole population. Taking into consideration the extent of the crisis which education development, especially in developing countries, has to face nowadays, it is clear that the required education reform will have to involve more than just a linear expansion of the existing education system. What is really needed is an overall development of the total structure as well as the substance of the existing education system.

For the planning of the development of the structure of an education system, insight and first hand knowledge of the universal and general characteristics of an education system is a prerequisite. In fact the essence of planning an education system for a specific country is to particularise the general characteristics of the universal education system until they become particular characteristics for a particular education system relevant to the specific country. During this planning process it is important to strive towards a balance between the common and the diverse with other words to recognise and to take into consideration all the essential characteristics of an education system during this 'shaping' process.

This is in fact the chief activity of the Research Unit for Education System Planning of the University of the Orange Free State which came into existence some eight years ago. This Research Unit is mainly involved in supporting the planning divisions of the education departments of several developing countries in the South African context. While doing this the Research Unit has already examined the

competency of several planning approaches to account for as many as possible of the factors which play a role when the universal criterion is actualised. Before commenting on these planning approaches it is necessary in a discussion like this to distinguish very briefly some of the more important general characteristics of an education system which require special attention during education system planning.

2 A FEW GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EDUCATION SYSTEM

An education system is an interwoven social structure

Several social structures such as the state, the church, parents-in-organisation and teachers' professional bodies intertwine to form an education system. The variety of the structures and their degree of involvement in education vary from country to country. The more developed the country the greater the variety of social structures which claim the right to participate in education. Each one of these structures has the right to speak out and influence an aspect of education related to his own field. When functioning these structures should respect one another's rights and not interfere with one another. For instance it is the teachers who, as the professionally qualified substructure in the education system, have the right to decide on the correct and suitable teaching methods. When parents and industrial and commercial institutions try to dictate to the school on didactical matters they are trespassing.

Education system planning involves adapting these general characteristics to the particular characteristics of a specific, existing education system and acknowledging the participating social structures in such a way that the resulting system will be suitable and acceptable to the specific country. To prevent the structures from overlapping and trespassing in a disturbing way the planner should clearly spell out the functions and rights of each one.

Under normal conditions a state of equilibrium exists amongst the structures and substructures which intertwine and form an education system. This state of affairs gives an education system its typical stable character. No meaningful development will therefore be brought about in an education system by an isolated action of one of the structures. If planning wants to bring about meaningful

change it will have to identify all the structures and substructures which should be involved and prepare them for the change beforehand.

An education system is subjected to the influence of the current primary driving forces and external cultural and natural determining forces

An important means through which the universal education system may develop particular characteristics and give birth to a particular education system suited to a specific country, is the distinction and recognition of the current primary driving forces and external cultural and natural factors applicable in that country. In this way an education system may develop which reflects the inhabitants' philosophy of life and takes into consideration determining influences from outside such as the political, cultural, economic (including manpower aspects), demographic, linguistic and sociological factors as they function in the specific country.

The implications for education system planning is clear, no education system will succeed unless it complies with the demands of these forces.

An education system is subjected to the principles of cultural differentiation, integration and continuity

The development of a variety of education systems is in accordance with the phenomenon that civilisation comprises a differentiated variety of cultures. This principle accounts for the fact that education systems differentiate on cultural grounds and reflect the influence of the dominant culture in all its substructures for instance those of teaching, control, finance, provision of teachers etc.

The principle of differentiation is also reflected in the phenomenon that social structures intertwine to form education systems and show respect for one another's participation. The principle of cultural integration which recognises the common in all the cultures on a global level implies that critical and responsible borrowing from the education systems of other countries could enrich an education system. It is part of the task of education system planning to do comparative studies of education systems and identify those aspects of the education systems of other countries which could be introduced into the education system of a specific country without rejection or creating a conflict. This principle makes it possible to change the

structure and substance of the education system in a dynamic way.

The third cultural principle is that of (historical) continuity which demands that education system planning should take the past into consideration when planning for educational change and development. It should therefore be possible to draw an unbroken line through the past, the present situation and the anticipated future. If this principle is respected, change will be brought about on evolutionary lines. If it is disregarded and a total break with the past and the present is catered for the educational change will have a revolutionary character.

An education system functions through the work of professionally qualified personnel

It is a common characteristic of all education systems that they require a professionally qualified personnel to function efficiently. Planning an education system therefore includes looking into the provision of sufficient professionally qualified personnel for both the school structure and the administrative structure of the education system. Clear descriptions of the responsibilities and tasks of the various posts as well as effective school management will ensure that a specific education system will function smoothly and efficiently.

3 THE PARTICULARISATION PROCESS OF AN EDUCATION SYSTEM

The real issue during education system planning is the application of the above mentioned theoretical perspectives in practice. The questions arise which methods and approaches are suitable and relevant and will do justice to the various characteristics when their universal basis is given a particular and unique content.

Faced with this problem the Research Unit for Education System Planning followed the following modus operandi:

A special Documentation Centre was established

With the co-operation of several international institutions the Research Unit established a Documentation Centre in 1975. The main function of this Centre is to collect on a local and international level information related to education system planning especially in developing countries. Approximately 20 000 items have already been documented with the aid of a specially developed thesaurus and computer

programme. This information provides valuable perspectives during the comparative studies of education systems.

General descriptions of the present situation are made

With the aid of several senior officials of the education departments of the developing states in the South African context, members of the Research Unit document the present situation. This includes in-depth statistical analyses of the real situation revealing as many as possible of the shortcomings and real needs.

A transdisciplinary research method is followed

As already pointed out responsible education system planning must account for a large variety of factors ranging from the cultural to the economical and provide maximum opportunities for the participation of those for whom the education system is really meant. In this respect a transdisciplinary research method proved to be the most useful. This way of working creates opportunities for the educational planning body to receive interdisciplinary assistance from for instance economists, ethnologists, and sociologists. It also allows for the participation of inter alia the politicians who take the final decisions regarding the acceptance and implementation of the suggested plans. Valuable perspectives may be obtained if an expert from outside, preferably from abroad, is included in the team.

A system approach is applied

During the past two decades general planning methods and planning approaches have been suggested for education system planning. Because of the special interest of economists in planning development most of these approaches emphasise economic and manpower needs. Examples of these approaches and methods are the manpower demand approach, residual approach, cost benefit approach, social demand approach, linear programming, management by objectives technique, econometric models, program evaluation as well as the review technique and critical path method.

Because of the necessity to consider all the determining factors during the planning process the Research Unit for Education System Planning has experimented with a systems approach. With this approach it is possible to account for most of the determining factors. A combination of a systems approach and some of the other approaches may be the solution.

In the last instance it must be realised that education planning implies making a choice. Weiler points out that

> ...to plan is to choose, and it is precisely the politics of choice, the conflict over the structural conditions of choice, which form the most critical aspect of the current argument on educational planning and its limitations at the theoretical level. (2)

Notes

(1) HJS Stone The Common and the Diverse. A Profile of Comparative Education, Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill, 1981

(2) HN Weiler "The uses of educational planning: some further thoughts" in Prospects 11:2 (1981), pgs 149-158 (see pg 152)

"THE COMMON AND THE DIVERSE" AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

Maureen Michau

1 THE COMMON AND THE DIVERSE

I do not agree with Professor Stone's claim that there has been a narrowing down of Comparative Education thought. The present state of Comparative Education seems to be an extremely healthy and interesting one, with a diversity of intellectual positions ranging from that of the positivists to those of phenomenologists and ethno-methodologists. This provides vigour and vitality and that optimum amount of tension sufficient to encourage breakthroughs and provide dynamic development, but not so high that it leads to fission and dispiritedness.

Professor Stone's view that there should be a move away from the positivists position is one which is well supported in recent publications by world-renowned Comparative Educationists such as Husén and Holmes (1,2).

The challenge to provide a central focus for the field has been to the forefront in recent years. This challenge has been taken up boldly by Professor Stone with his choice of focus being 'the common and the diverse'.

It is granted that the common and the diverse have long been a concern of Comparative Education. Bereday, for example, makes clear reference to this when he says that Comparative Education seeks "to make sense out of the similarities and differences, among the educational systems" (3). But, is this division sufficiently basic for it to be accepted without the accusation of arbitrariness being levelled against the author? I would suggest that other divisions might be equally acceptable. For example, in the splinter field of development studies one could argue that the perspective of static and dynamic might be more appropriate.

In his book The Common and the Diverse we are provided with scanty guidelines as to methodology. In a list of the most important characteristics of Comparative Education research he accords premier position to an investigation of the common and the diverse. "The answer to the problem concerned is sought by attending to similarities (the common) and differences (or diverse) in the field of research." (4)

This presents problems to the would-be researcher. We are warned by Stone and the other anti-positivists of the pitfalls of belief in objectivity in social science research. How then, if one accepts one's subjectivity, can one determine that particular elements of an institution or function within a system are in fact, common with those in another system. There may be external indications of commonality, but the meaning of the phenomenon may vary significantly from culture to culture. And, what appears to be diverse may in fact be an expression of a common feeling.

When Professor Stone classifies his variables as common or diverse is there not an assumption that the variables are all independent ones? Would not the dependent variables present inordinate difficulties?

Whilst there is little evidence anywhere in Stone's work that he is attempting to develop an approach to Comparative Education which will justify any particular political ideology, there is a real danger that the choice of 'common and diverse' having a South African origin, may be interpreted by some persons as an extension of the ideological underpinnings of separate development. The situation could arise where work based on this system might be employed to uphold this policy and the accusation of ethnocentricism could be levelled at Stone, eg it may be used as a justification for the separation of the education system in the Republic of South Africa into sub-systems based on ethnic grounds.

2 THE APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE EDUCATION AT UNIVERSITY OF NATAL (PIETERMARITZBURG)

The approach is a pragmatic one. We aim to make students aware of the elasticity of the field's boundaries and the range of methodological approaches.

The word field is used to conform to P Hirst's definition of a field of study, ie "it is a collection of knowledge from various forms which has unity solely because the knowledge all relates to some object or interest", the implication being that "although there may be agreement on the object, the approach to studying it and the content of study are diverse and complex" (5). Even the object of the study may be in dispute in the case of Comparative Education.

The boundaries of the field are explored as are the various methodological approaches, in an attempt to get students to discover what it is that distinguishes the discipline and makes it warrant acceptance as a separate discipline. It is

a firmly held view that any intractability at this stage or any adherence to a single viewpoint on the part of teachers of Comparative Education, would be doing the field a disservice.

The field is still in a fluid state and any absorption with the laying down of territorial rights would seem to run counter to the widely held views of present-day educationists (amongst them Hirst and Peters), that there should be more integration and a breaking down of subject discipline boundaries.

Students are made aware that the concept 'comparative education' and the related concepts of 'development education' and 'international education' still require a comprehensive conceptual analysis to establish the basic core of the field (or fields) and the peripheral material. As Cole Brembeck says, we must still be willing "to seek out new and related knowledge generated at the margins". (6)

Brembeck's idea of a 'critical mass' being as relevant to Comparative Education as it is to atomic physics is an appealing one. The arrival at this 'critical mass' stage will hopefully achieve an intellectual breakthrough. On the other hand it may establish beyond any doubt that the discipline as such is too artificial a creation, and that its justification for existence, its methodology, and its objectives are so nebulous that new and reframed fields of study may best serve the interests of education.

The approach in lectures and seminars is to provide students with foundations from which at a later stage, they can question assumptions and formulate their own views as to the field of Comparative Education, its aims and objectives.

It is particularly in the area of possibility of practical application of Comparative Education that no hard and fast boundaries are set. Perhaps the study may be evolved to the stage that it can be used for prediction and social engineering, or it may never get beyond the stage where it can provide education policy makers with informed alternatives to make decisions. Even if it fails in these two spheres, the subject can still justify its existence if it is accepted as an intellectual pursuit, a quest for enlightenment for its own sake, provided that it conforms to the rigid requirements of good scholarship.

Comparative Education 1 and 11 are optional courses for the B Ed degree at this university. In Comparative Education 1, approximately one-third of the course is devoted to the

history, theory and methodology of Comparative Education. Three regional studies are undertaken - one of a Western educational system (USA); one of a Communist system (USSR) and education in developing regions of Africa with special reference to a particular country (Zambia has been the country selected for study in the past few years). The underlying ideologies of the systems are given considerable emphasis.

During this, each student is expected to conduct a two-hour seminar comprising a regional study of a selected country or area.

The final component of the course is a study of educational problems on a comparative basis. Increasing emphasis is being placed on issues in developing nations, eg the concept of continuing and life-long education in three countries with differing ideological bases, is examined.

In Comparative Education 11 considerable stress is placed on methodology which includes a course in educational statistics. The regional studies undertaken here are of two Western European countries - the United Kingdom and France. Educational problems of a common nature studied on a cross-cultural basis constitute the third part of this course.

Students following this course are required to conduct a seminar in which a particular educaional issue is studied on a comparative basis.

The aspect of Comparative Educational Administration is dealt with in only a cursory manner in the two Comparative Education courses as it receives full coverage in the optional B Ed course - Educational Administration. Here a comparative study is undertaken between the organization and administration of education in South Africa and that in other relevant countries.

FUTURE TRENDS IN COURSES

Over recent years the tendency has been to place greater emphasis on the more dynamic aspect of Development Education with particular reference to issues in newer and developing nations and it is hoped that this will receive increasing attention in the future. This is seen as being of vital importance in directing and preparing students who will follow up B Ed studies with research projects for higher degrees.

Notes

(1) Torsten Husén The School in Question, London: Oxford University Press, 1979

(2) Brian Holmes Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, London: George Allen & Unwin, 1981

(3) GZF Bereday Comparative Method in Education New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964, pg 5

(4) HJS Stone The Common and the Diverse, Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill, 1981, pg 159

(5) Paul Hirst "Educational Theory" in JW Tibble (ed) The Study of Education, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1966, pg 44

(6) C Brembeck "The future of Comparative and International Education" in Comparative Education Review Vol 19 No 3 (pgs 369-374), pg 371

NOTICES

'Discussion' and Editorial Policy

The editors would like to draw the attention of readers to the head note at the end of Eddie Webster's article in this issue, in which he invites "further critical discussion of the issues raised".

It is the policy of Perspectives in Education to encourage its readers to take up any of the matters contained in its pages and, as a matter of course, related issues which may be of concern at the time, so that discussion takes place.

The 'Discussion' section of this journal makes provision for points of view to be expressed that are not necessarily of article length, that represent provisional and even tentative thoughts on questions of moment and which may be of a personal and urgent kind.

We warmly welcome vigorous, polemical and dissenting opinions which, instead of correspondence, can appear in this journal as discussion.

Terry Dachs	Department of Education, University of the Witwatersrand
Jane Hofmeyr	Part-time researcher with The Urban Foundation
John Lewin	Department of Educational Studies, Johannesburg College of Education
Maureen Michau	Department of Education, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg
Sheila Schlesinger	Department of English, Johannesburg College of Education
Bernard Steinberg	Department of Education, University of Cape Town
Henry Stone	Department of Didactics and Comparative Education, University of South Africa
Dudley Vermaak	Research Unit for Education System Planning, University of the Orange Free State
AJ Vos	Department of History of Education and Comparative Education, University of Zululand
Eddie Webster	Department of Sociology, University of the Witwatersrand

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

The Editors will welcome contributions in the form of comments on local events or questions, original articles, discussion of articles published in previous issues, reviews, items for the 'Notices' section, and so on.

Contributions should be sent to:

Wally Morrow
Department of Education
University of the Witwatersrand
PO Box 1176
Johannesburg
2000

OR

Michael Gardiner
Department of English
Johannesburg College of Education
27 St Andrew's Road
Parktown
2193

Contributions should not ordinarily exceed 3000 words in length, and should be typewritten on one side of A4 paper, double spaced, with ample margins. Two complete copies should be submitted. Proofs will not be sent to authors for correction unless this is explicitly requested.

There is to be no separate 'Bibliography". References should be kept to a minimum. All notes (which includes 'footnotes' and references) are to be numbered consecutively in the text (in Arabic numerals, in parenthesis, on the line of the text), and should be listed at the end of the article, as 'Notes'. Titles of papers or chapters cited are to be enclosed in double quotation marks; titles of books are to be underlined. Examples:

Notes

(1) Carole Pateman Participation and Democratic Theory, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1970.

(2) PF Strawson "Freedom and Resentment" in Freedom and Resentment and Other Essays, London: Methuen, 1974, pgs 15-23.

(3) L Althusser "Ideology and Ideological State Apparatuses" in BJ Cosin (ed) Education, Structure and Society, Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1977, see pg 81.

Substantial quotations (more than about 3 lines) should be indented, shorter quotations should be enclosed in single quotation marks. Omissions from a quotation should be indicated by three dots.

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