

A CRITIQUE OF VENEZUELA'S PLAN OF STUDY
FOR BASIC TEACHER EDUCATION

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

The selection of purposes, objectives, courses, contents, theory and practice, and other components of curriculum are not ideological-free in design, development, implementation, or evaluation. The center of curriculum design is constituted by the elaboration of plans and programs of study. Those plans and programs, with the school texts, constitute the fundamental instruments of the politics of education (N. Rodriguez, 1983).

In administrative terms, there is a Ministry of Education dedicated to the schooling system rather than education. In Venezuela, schooling-education is just another administrative apparatus of the state (Orlando Albornoz, 1986).

Neal Gross et al., found that:

1. Approximately 75 percent of both the teachers and the directors believed that the Ministry of Education's 'lack of any real understanding of a teacher's problems' constituted an obstacle to an improvement in teachers' performance.
2. 63 percent of the teachers and 78 percent of the directors viewed the ministry's lack of concern about the problems of their school as a serious or very serious obstacle to effecting an improvement in teachers' performance.
3. 48 percent of the teachers and 50 percent of the directors felt that the ministry prevented any improvement in the teachers' performance because it make too many important decisions that should have been made at the local level.

4. 45 percent of the teachers and 61 percent of the directors viewed the ministry's inefficiency as a serious handicap to the teachers (Quoted in Hanson, 1986, p. 176).

Davies (1987, p. 88), concerned about the management of education in "third world countries," pointed out: "It is an irony that educational administration, as a practice, is not all educational." When educational administration is a technology of control, the separation of administration and educational concerns is evident (Bates, 1983). In a comparative study of the Colombian and Venezuelan educational systems as they relate to reform and administrative development, Hanson (1986, p. 209) concluded "Historically, the governmental institutions of Latin American nations have never been designed to achieve socioeconomic development. Rather, they were intended to serve the needs of a ruling elite that drew its wealth from agriculture and mineral resources".

Under this panorama the universities in Venezuela assumed the task of primary (basic) teacher education. The mandate has been stipulated by the new Organic Law of Education (Republica de Venezuela, Ley Organica de Educacion, 1980).

In general, the universities in Venezuela have little or no experience in primary teacher education. This responsibility was undertaken by the universities despite irregularities in their secondary teacher education. Portillo, Castano, Duran, and Caraballo (1984) found that secondary teacher education at the Universidad de los Andes "Nucleo Rafael Rangel" was characterized by:

- Lack of philosophical base.
- Lack of planning in the curriculum.
- Lack of professional profiles.

- Curriculum rigidity. The curriculum does not offer alternatives.
- A premature "specialization."
- Dichotomy between theory and practice.
- Lack of community service as part of the curriculum.
- The professional practice is underestimated. The teaching practice is the end of the plan of study.
- Lack of a perspective of life long education.
- Anarchy in the number of courses and credit units per course. The curriculum has the following make-up: Major Spanish: 42 courses, 162 credit units; Major Mathematics: 37 courses, 171 credit units; Major English: 42 courses, 180 credit units; Major French: 42 courses, 178 credit units; Major Biology: 38 courses, 171 credit units; Major Chemistry: 39 courses, 172 credit units; Major Mercantile Techniques: 39 courses, 168 credit units; Major Physics: 39 courses, 174 credit units.
- The index of prerequisites is over 66 percent.
- The ponder index of prerequisites is over 100 percent in all majors (pp. 3-7).

Similar irregularities were found in the Faculty of Education of the Central University of Venezuela (Albornoz, 1979) and the University of Zulia (Universidad del Zulia, 1982).

Need for the Study

Brock (1985, p. 7) pointed out ". . . education in Latin America remains under the influence of dependency and inertia, and exhibits today the same broad characteristics as 100 years ago." Those characteristics are:

- a. In most countries, incomplete systems even at primary level, despite their constitutional obligations, . . .
- b. problems of enrollment at primary level, especially in the rural sector and in the barrios and favelas of the cities;
- c. very high levels of repeating and wastage at primary level

- caused by inappropriate curriculum content and excessively strict examinations for promotion from one year to the next;
- d. inadequate provision of public secondary schooling, except in the middle class sector of the urban population, . . .;
 - e. a relatively large and thriving private sector serving the needs of the various elites and gaining a disproportionate share of university places;
 - f. a traditionally academic tertiary sector, which despite some diversification in recent decades remains in most countries insufficiently technical;
 - g. low teacher quality at all levels, especially in the rural sector, and a lack of professional status and identity for this occupation;
 - h. a strong correspondence between the quality of educational provision and the patterns of social class . . .;
 - i. a poor correspondence between formal education and the occupational structure;
 - j. severe female disadvantage outside of the middle classes and elites;
 - k. increasing rates of illiteracy in most countries, with rural populations and female most disadvantaged in this respect (p. 7).

This past is still with us. Escotet (1986) stated that schooling has been inadequate in terms of quantity and quality. The reasons for this statement are:

- (a) it caters for only part of the school-age population;
- (b) survival rates, especially in Latin America, are so low that of every 1,000 children entering the formal education system, it is estimated that only five complete their education, and
- (c) the subjects taught reflect neither recent advances in knowledge nor the attitude to social reform which is a human duty. Nowadays, education is a tool for the perpetuation and reproduction of existing social structures, rather than for the improvement of individual and collective systems of values and the creation of skills that will give man control over his environment and over decisions affecting his future (p. 233).

Venezuela has attempted to change this educational profile. But its major problem has been her dependency. Venezuela, as most Latin

American countries, is under the influence of dependency. This dependency is social and economical, and sometimes political. The new form of this dependency is called neocolonialism. Kryzanek (1985) commented on this reality by pointing out that:

One does not have to travel very far in a Latin American country to see signs of Americanization, or as it is sometimes referred to, 'Coco-Colanization.' Latin Americans drink out soda, drive our cars, wear our designer jeans, play baseball, buy our gadgets, watch our television programs, and absorb the images, ideas, trends, and fashions that wind their way across the border. We may not control Latin American nations militarily, but we are present in countless ways because of the cultural grafting of the U.S. way of life (XXV).

Avalos (1982, p. 149), analyzing the relationship between neocolonialism and education in Latin America, arrived at the conclusion that ". . . the Ralph Tyler model of curriculum change and the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives developed by Benjamin Bloom became a sort of blueprint for . . . change." Avalos pointed out that this has been the model adopted for curriculum design in Venezuela and Chile.

Thus, the "Paradigm of Perennial Analytic Categories" represented by Ralph Tyler's rationale (Shubert, 1986), which ". . . has become the dominant planning model in American Education" (W. May, 1986, p. 6), is "colonizing" the curriculum in Venezuela. One case is the "module" Curriculum I, elaborated by the Open National University (Universidad Nacional Abierta, 1985) and recommended by the Universidad Pedagógica Experimental Libertador as a text for the course curriculum. The module emphasizes the approaches to curriculum design provided by Robert Gagne, J. Saylor and W. Alexander, Hilda Taba, Ralph Tyler, and Benjamin Bloom. The problem is not with their approaches to curriculum design but with the acritical and ahistorical position under which

those approaches were presented. Guadilla (1984) argued that it is certain that the transfer of systems of thought are not negatives if they are exposed to an epistemological and critical vigilance by part of the users.

In another perspective, McLean (1984) sustained that educational dependency is not a product of economic and political dependency. The ground for this rationale is that many educational decisions are made by educational leaders and not politicians. McLean (p. 27) indicated ". . . educational dependence can be most fruitfully explored as an educational phenomenon and not simply as a function of wider political and economic relationships. This is based on the assumption that education systems are relatively autonomous."

That assumption is false. Educational systems are not autonomous. "We know that it's not education which shapes society, but on the contrary; it is society which shapes education according to the interests of those who have power" (Shor and Freire, 1987, p. 35). The assumption also seems to ignore the subtle ways of socio-cultural reproductions in educational systems (Passeron, 1986) and the transfer of knowledge from the developed countries to the underdeveloped ones. This transfer of knowledge in most of the cases does not help Third World countries in their development (Guadilla, 1984).

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study is to answer the following two questions:

1. What is the curriculum design followed by the plan of the study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral?

2. What is (are) the political and pedagogical function(s) of the plan of the study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral as part of the National Program of Teacher Education in Service?

Consequently, the main purpose of this study is to provide a critical analysis of the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral as part of the Programa Nacional de Formacion Docente en Servicio (PRONAFORDO).

Definition of Terms

The following terms and definitions will be important in achieving the purpose of this study:

1. Curriculum: In the text of this study, the term curriculum is defined as a set of interrelated political and pedagogical functions. Those functions are materialized through the plans of study, courses, and texts.

2. Curriculum Design: Curriculum design most commonly refers to the arrangement of the components or elements of a curriculum. Ordinarily the components or elements included in a curriculum are (a) aims, goals, and objectives; (b) subject matter or content; (c) learning activities; and (d) evaluation (Zais, 1976, p. 16).

3. Curriculum Development: The identification of tasks, steps, roles, expectations, resources, time and space, and the ordering of these elements into a system for carrying out the specified design to create a curriculum product/document (Kimpston and Rogers, 1986, p. 446).

4. Curriculum Implementation: Is defined as ". . . the planning for and actual use of a curriculum in practice" (Ibid, p. 467).

5. Curriculum Evaluation: Consists of designing and implementing a plan to gather information systematically: (a) to measure discrepancies between curriculum and its implementation; (b) to measure discrepancies between intended and actual learning outcomes; (c) to determine the worth of a curriculum product; and (d) to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum process (Ibid, p. 468).

6. Licenciado en Educacion: A bachelor degree of five years of study.

7. Index of Prerequisites: Is the result of dividing the number of courses with prerequisite by the total number of courses.

8. Plan of Study: A standardized element of the curriculum that contains the profile of a profession, its objectives, credit units, components, courses and academic time of a level or "modalidad".

9. Political and Pedagogical Functions of The Curriculum: In general, pedagogic has been defined as ". . . the act of teaching and the art and science of education" (Smith, 1980, p. 6). However, in the text of this study, the term political and pedagogical functions of the curriculum refers to the interrelationships of the political and educational interpretations of curriculum, and the roles of teachers in Venezuela's educational system.

10. Pondered Index of Prerequisites: Is the result of adding all prerequisites of the plan of the study and dividing the total by the total number of courses.

11. Profesor: A bachelor degree of five years of study conferred by pedagogical institutions of higher education.

12. Programa Nacional de Formacion Docente (PRONAFORDO): A national program of teacher education in service.

Limitations of the Study

It is impossible for any research effort to examine all aspects of an area of study. This research will have the following limitations:

1. The researcher will not pretend to cover all aspects of the National Program of Teacher Education as they apply to the plan of study design of basic teacher education.

2. This study is limited to the curriculum planning function of design.

3. This study relies on the information given in official publications and on the writer's participant observation in the design of the first-draft of the plan of study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review of the literature on teacher education curriculum was divided into four sections: (1) educational paradigms, (2) curriculum design: its metaphorical roots, (3) proposals for reform of teacher education, and (4) curriculum theorizing.

Educational Paradigms

Burrell and Morgan (1979, p. X) placed social theory in ". . . four key paradigms based upon different sets of metatheoretical assumptions about the nature of social science and the nature of society." These paradigms were identified as the functionalist paradigm, the interpretative paradigm, the radical humanist paradigm, and the structuralist paradigm.

The four paradigms were conceptualized through two major dimensions or strands. The first dimension extended from what might be called "subjectivism" to "objectivism" the second dimension from "regulation" to "radical change."

The subjective dimension was represented by the socio-philosophical postulates of "German idealism" and French existentialism as represented by Sartre.

Burrell and Morgan indicated:

In essence it is based upon the premise that the ultimate

reality of the universe lies in 'spirit' or 'idea' rather than in the data of sense perception. It is essentially 'nominalist' in its approach to social reality. In contrast to the natural sciences, it stresses the essentially subjective nature of human affairs, denying the utility and relevance of the models and methods of natural science to studies in this realm. It is 'anti-positivist' in epistemology, 'voluntarist' with regard to human nature and it favors ideographic methods as a foundation for social analysis (p. 7).

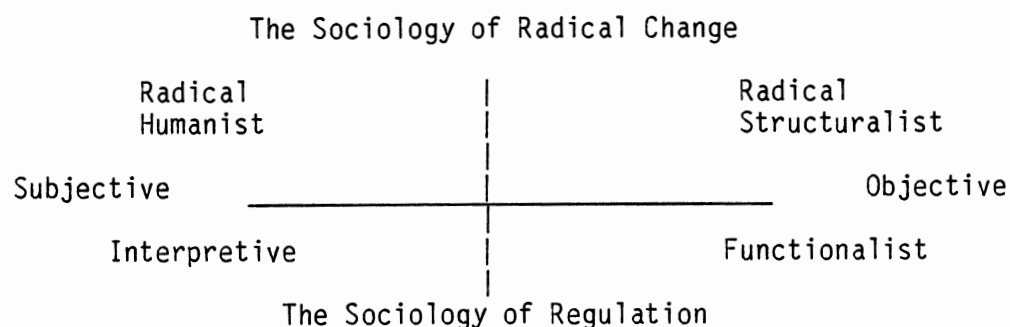
The objective dimension was described as "sociological positivism" and was opposed to the subjective dimension.

According to Burrell and Morgan:

In essence [the objective dimension] reflects the attempt to apply models and methods derived from the natural sciences to the study of human affairs. It treats the social world as if it were the natural world, adopting a 'realist' approach to ontology. This is backed up by a 'positivist' epistemology, relatively 'deterministic' views of human nature and the use of 'nomothetic' methodologies (p. 7).

The second dimension embraced two sociological approaches: a sociology of regulation and a sociology of radical change. The sociology of regulation was concerned with maintenance of the status quo, social order, consensus, social integration, solidarity, need satisfaction, and actuality. The sociology of radical change was concerned with structural conflict, models of domination, contradiction, emancipation, deprivation, potentiality; in other words, it was concerned with radical change.

With the four paradigms, it was possible to construct a matrix which located them as follows.



The first and dominant paradigm was the functionalist. It worked under an approach of regulation and from an objectivist point of view. Burrell and Morgan remarked:

[The functionalist paradigm] is usually firmly committed to a philosophy of social engineering as a basis of social change and emphasizes the importance of understanding order, equilibrium and stability in society and the way in which these can be maintained. It is concerned with the effective 'regulation' and control of social affairs (p. 26).

The second paradigm was the interpretative paradigm. This paradigm followed a sociology of regulation but from a subjectivist point of view. The interpretive paradigm ". . . sought explanation within the realm of individual consciousness and subjectivity, within the frame of reference of the participant as opposed to the observer of action" (p. 28). The third one was labeled the radical humanist paradigm. The interpretive and the radical humanist paradigms shared the same sociological discourse that man shapes and creates the world in which he lives. "But, whereas the interpretive theorist are content to understand the nature of this process, the radical humanists subject it to critique, focusing upon what they regard as the essentially alienated state of man" (p. 279).

The fourth and final paradigm was the radical structuralist. This paradigm was associated with a sociology of radical change working under an objectivist point of view. Burrell and Morgan pointed out:

Radical structuralism is aimed, first and foremost, at providing a critique of the status quo in social affairs. It is a perspective which is concerned not just to understand the world, but to change it. The underlying focus of interest tends to be upon the structures within society, and particularly the way in which they interrelate. Writers within the paradigm tend to view society as composed of elements which stand in contradiction to each other. They are interested in the effects of these contradictions, particularly with regard to the role which they plan in creating economic and political crises (p. 326).

How do the four paradigms relate to educational change? According to Hewton (1983), the traditional functionalist paradigm, was represented by the case of the ". . . instructional or educational technology which provides an approach to the problems of teaching, learning and curriculum development based upon a systematic, deductive mode of analysis and design" (p. 50). The influence of the interpretive paradigm was represented by action research and by illuminative approaches to educational evaluation. Action research ". . . involves an analysis of the relationship between individual, subjective meaning and objective 'reality,' which is represented by a framework or structure within which action takes place" (p. 56). The illuminative approach to educational evaluation ". . . focuses upon the 'learning milieu' defined as the social-psychological and natural environment in which students and teachers work together" (p. 57). The influence of the radical humanist paradigm was represented by the work of Freire and "Much of the contemporary criticism of education" (p. 58).

The influence of the radical structuralism was represented by the work of Karl Marx. "It is from a Marxist standpoint that a critique is made of education in capitalist societies, particularly the part which it plays in maintaining the status quo and providing capitalist industry with a 'subservient' work force" (p. 60). Similar contradiction in Marxist countries was found by Popkewitz (1986), who argued:

In both the West and East, pedagogical sciences are rooted in the mandate of the school to socialize the youth of a society to the interests of those in power. The empirical-analytic sciences of the West and the pedagogical sciences of the Soviet Union are concerned with increasing the efficiency of schools as they relate to larger social goals. The differences in these sciences, however, are not adequately expressed

by focusing upon their utilitarian purposes. The differences are in the historical and social circumstances in which goals are decided (p. 127).

In regard to the educational paradigms in Latin America, Juan Tedesco (1987, p. 19), manifested: "[It] is evident that the development registered in Latin America has followed the vicissitude of the theoretical evolution of the central countries, particularly the United States and France, with less influence from England and Germany." Tedesco identified three different educational paradigms, the liberal, the economicalist, and the critical-reproductionist. In the framework of the liberal paradigm its basic problem was to consolidate the national states and to establish a democratic liberal political order through the contribution of schooling. The contribution of the school was the homogenization of the people around a basic set of values and common codes, and the differentiation according with the social structure (e.g., leaders or followers, owners of the modes of production or working class, etc.).

New requirements of pre-capitalist modes of production gave way, according to Tedesco, to the "economicalist" paradigm. This paradigm placed the relationship between education and society under the framework of the educational contribution to the economic development. The metaphor of formation of the "citizen" was replaced by the metaphor of the human resource. The third paradigm defined by Tedesco is the reproductionist paradigm whose approaches emphasized the importance of the affective aspects and the participation of protagonists of the learning process in the definitions of the parameters of their activities.

In a more radical position La Belle (1986) disclosed two paradigms in Latin America: The equilibrium paradigm and the conflict paradigm.

The former experienced society as a system that in spite of tensions and conflicts sought to retain its equilibrium through internal mechanism of adaptation and adjustment. Under this paradigm adaptation was the only kind of change. The conflict paradigm identified those analyses dealing with the forces and relations of production, social structure such as class, etc.

By elaborating on the idea of curriculum paradigms and by applying them to curriculum design and inquiry, Schubert (1986) proposed three paradigms based upon different ontological, epistemical, and methodological questions. The paradigms were the perennial analytic categories, the practical inquiry paradigm, and the critical praxis.

The paradigm of perennial analytic categories was represented by the Ralph Tyler rationale which provides the parameters of this paradigm through four questions:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. How can learning experiences be selected which are likely to be useful in attaining these objectives?
3. How can learning experiences be organized for effective instruction?
4. How can the effectiveness of learning experiences be evaluated? (p. 171).

The practical inquiry paradigm was based on a critique of educational research developed by Schwab. According to Schubert (pp. 10-11), Schwab ". . . illuminated the distinction between theoretic inquiry that seeks generalized knowledge for its own sake and practical inquiry that seeks situational knowledge for understanding, decision, and action. . ."

The critical praxis paradigm was grounded on the works of James B. MacDonald, Maxime Greene, Phillip Phenix, William F. Pinar, Henry Giroux, and others. This curriculum paradigm was focused on the ideological ramifications of curriculum, which may allow its use as an instrument of control and indoctrination.

Social theory, including curriculum theory, seems to be in a turmoil. To deal with this dilemma Burrell and Morgan suggested:

In order to understand alternative points of view it is important that a theorist be fully aware of the assumptions upon which his own perspective is based. Such an appreciation involves an intellectual journey which takes him outside the realm of his own familiar domain. It requires that he become aware of the boundaries which define his perspective. It requires that he journey into the unexplored. It requires that he become familiar with paradigms which are not his own. Only then can he look back and appreciate in full measure the precise nature of his starting point (p. xi).

Curriculum Design: Its Metaphorical Roots

Because I use lots of metaphors in the analysis I try to do of reality, some academics say that I do not have rigor. Of course, I use very sophisticated metaphors (Freire in, Shor and Freire, 1987, p. 153).

Kliebard (1972) identified three metaphorical roots of curriculum design. Schubert (1986, p. 34) cited that the ". . . three root metaphors [were] found in curriculum literature and practice" (p. 34). The three metaphorical roots of curriculum design characterized by Kliebard were:

The Metaphor of Production. The curriculum is the means of production, and the student is the raw material which will be transformed into a finished and useful product under the control of a highly skilled technician. The outcome of the production process is carefully plotted in advance according to rigorous design specification, and when certain means of production prove to be wasteful, they are discarded in favor of more efficient ones. Great care is taken so that raw materials of a particular quality or composition are channeled into the proper production systems and that no

potentially useful characteristic of the raw material is wasted.

The Metaphor of Growth. The curriculum is the greenhouse where students will grow and develop to their fullest potential under the care of a wise and patient gardener. The plants that grow in the greenhouse are of every variety, but the gardener treats each according to its needs, so that each plant comes to flower. This universal blooming cannot be accomplished by leaving some plants unattended. All plants are nurtured with great solicitude, but no attempt is made to divert the inherent potential of the individual plant from its own metamorphosis or development to the whims and desires of the gardener.

The Metaphor of Travel. The curriculum is a route over which students will travel under the leadership of an experienced guide and companion. Each traveler will be affected differently by the journey since its effect is at least as much a function of the predilections, intelligence, interests, and intent of the traveler as it is of the contours of the route. This variability is not only inevitable, but wondrous and desirable. Therefore, no effort is made to anticipate the exact nature of the effect on the traveler; but a great effort is made to plot the route so that the journey will be as rich, as fascinating, and as memorable as possible (pp. 403-404).

Metaphors in education have schooling rooted ideologies. One approach to visualize the above position was to look at how the metaphors in education define our schooling reality. As Eisner (1985, p. 354) has stressed "the metaphors and images of schooling and teaching that we acquire have profound consequences for our educational values and for our views of how schooling should occur."

Lawton (1984) criticized the "goal" or "objective" metaphor, because ". . . [it] has the effect of limiting objectives and converting education into a closed process rather than an open-ended experience. Curricula tend to become rigid and geared to measurement rather than development" (p. 89). Lawton clarified that ". . . at instructional levels of curriculum planning, to state precise objectives might be useful . . . But as soon as you get beyond the basic skills to

higher levels of educational processes and content, then limited objectives become not only misleading, but dangerous" (p. 84).

The roots of the objective metaphors in education can be traced back to Bobbit (1918) and Taylor's (1947) rationale of efficiency by scientific management. Testing, measuring, and controlling students' behavior was the principle, not to improve the process and results.

Lawton (1984) argued that:

The objectives metaphor, despite its claims to be ideologically neutral is, in fact, an expression of behaviorist psychology and a mechanistic view of man. It is essentially a conservative doctrine because it is concerned with teaching the existing curriculum more efficiently, rather than calling it into question (p. 85).

Freire (1972, p. 58) described current education as being guided by a banking concept metaphor ". . . in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiques and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat."

In debatable position, Illich (1971) urged the disestablishment of schools on the grounds that they distort and mythologize reality. Illich proposed "learning webs" as a metaphor. According to Illich:

[Learning webs] should provide all who want to learn with access to available resources at any time in their lives; empower all who want to share what they know to find those who want to learn it from them; and, finally, furnish all who want to present an issue to the public with the opportunity to make their challenges known (p. 75).

Jackson (1968) cited a range of possible metaphors for school: prison, mental hospitals, homes and churches. Jackson's metaphors showed the impact of school socialization on learning that takes place in schools. Apple (1979) used market analogies such as "cultural capital" and "system management" approach. He declared (p. 50) "Just

as there is a social distribution of cultural capital in society, so too is there a social distribution of knowledge within classrooms. For example, different 'kinds' of students get different 'kinds' of knowledge." Apple argued to think of culture in terms of the metaphor of distribution:

One way to think about culture in society is to employ a metaphor of distribution. That is, one can think about knowledge as being unevenly distributed among social and economic classes, occupational groups, different age groups, and groups of different power. Thus, some groups have access to knowledge distributed to them and not distributed to others. The obverse of this is also probably true. The lack of certain kinds of knowledge--where your particular group stands in the complex process of cultural preservation and distribution--is related, no doubt, to the absence in that group of certain kinds of political and economic power in society (p. 16).

Is this one function of the school? Bowles and Gintis (1976) warned of this possible function and criticized schooling as a process of cultural reproduction. Bowles and Gintis achieved this remark by examining the structural relationship between achievement in school and the requirement of a capitalist economy.

Bowles and Gintis argued that:

The educational system helps integrate youth into the economic system, we believe, through a structural correspondence between its social relations and those of production. The structure of social relations in education not only inures the student to the discipline of the work place, but develops the types of personal demeanor, modes of self-presentation, self-image, and social-class identifications which are the crucial ingredients of job adequacy. Specifically, the social relationships of education - the relationships between administrators and teachers, teachers and students and students and their work-replicate the hierarchical division of labor. Hierarchical relations are reflected in the vertical authority lines from administrators to teachers to students. Alienated labor is reflected in the student's lack of control over his or her education, the alienation of the student from the curriculum content, and the motivation of school work through a system of grades and other external rewards rather than the student's integration

with either the process (learning) or the outcome (knowledge) of the educational 'production process'. Fragmentation in work is reflected in the institutionalized and often destructive competition among students through continual and ostensibly meritocratic ranking and evaluation. By attuning young people to a set of social relationships similar to those of the work place, schooling attempts to fear the development of personal needs to its requirements (p. 131).

Becoming a good worker in accordance with the social and technical division of labor was seen as another element of the hidden rationale for school practice. In the same perspective, Giroux (1981) described schooling as a process of cultural and social reproduction to socialize students to the interest of those in power.

Under the assumption that theory has its own function of guiding practice, and from a value-neutral position, it is found that a technical metaphor could be considered the dominant metaphor in curriculum design. This metaphor was portrayed by the works of Tyler (1973), Saylor and Alexander (1976), and Taba (1974), among others.

Some basic steps of curriculum planning, suggested by them, were the diagnosis of needs, the formulation of objectives, the selection and organization of content, the selection and organization of learning experiences, and the determination of what to evaluate and how to do it. Consequently, this rationale assured that:

Any teacher education should always come back to four basic questions and should offer opportunities to pose them in a great variety of educational situations: What are the objectives of education? How do the objectives vary from individual to individual? How can the objectives be achieved? How does one know that they are achieved? (G. De Landsheere, 1987, p. 79).

As can be sensed, the literature in education has metaphorical bases, rooted in industrial, military and medical fields. This reality was analyzed by Dobson, Dobson and Koetting (1985). These

metaphors borrowed from industry, the military, and medicine were:

Military Metaphor - Target population, information systems, centralization of power, lines and staffs, scheduling, discipline, govern, maintain, objectives, strategy, training, firing line, in-the-trenches.

Industrial Metaphor - Management, cost effectiveness, efficiency, institutional planning, programming, output measure, product, feed-back, defective, input-process-output, quality control.

Disease Metaphor - Diagnostic, prescription, treatment, remediation, monitor, label, deviant, impaired, referral procedure, special needs (p. 8).

Giroux and McLaren (1986) proposed a critical pedagogy metaphor in teacher education. They argued that ". . . the critical study of power, language, culture, and history" (p. 229) are imperative of a teacher education curriculum. This means that:

[Teacher education as cultural politics] conceptualizes schooling as taking place within a political and cultural arena where forms of students experience and subjectivity are actively produced and mediated. In other words, we wish to stress the idea that schools do not merely teach academic subjects, but also, in part, produce student subjectivities or particular sets of experiences that are in themselves part of an ideological process. Conceptualizing schooling as the construction and transmission of subjectivities permits us to understand more clearly the idea that the curriculum is more than just an introduction of students to particular subject disciplines and teaching methodologies; it also serves as an introduction to a particular way of life (p. 228).

Proposals for Reform of Teacher Education

To comment on reforms for teacher education improvement is a delicate matter. The relevant questions are: What is valuable? How valuable is teacher education? Can teacher education do anything except reflect the values that dominate the society? Can teacher education be designed to promote democratic schooling?

The reports and books considered were High School by Boyer (1983); "Tomorrow's Teachers: A Report of the Holmes Group" (1985); "A Nation Prepared: Teacher for the 21st Century" (Carnegie Report, 1986); and, A Place Called School by Goodlad (1984). Citations illustrated the language of the reports and intended to capture their basic points.

Boyer summarized a two-year study conducted on fifteen pre-selected U.S. high schools. The following ten topics provided the framework of his book:

"To clarify the goals of education."

"To stress the centrality of language and link the curriculum to a changing national and global context."

"To recognize that all students must be prepared for a lifetime of both work and further education."

"To strengthen the profession of teaching in America. This means improvement of conditions in the classroom, better recruitment and preparation, better continuing education, and better teacher recognition and rewards."

"To improve instruction and give students more opportunities for service in anticipation of their growing civic and social responsibilities as they become adults."

"To take advantage of the information revolution and link technology more effectively to teaching and learning in the schools."

"To smooth the transition from school to adult life through more flexible class scheduling and by making available to students new learning places both on and off the campus."

To reduce bureaucracy in education and give school principals the support they need to lead."

"To recognize that excellence in education is possible only when connections are made with higher education and with the corporate world."

"Finally, the time has come for public schools to be aggressively supported by parents, school boards, and government as well; and for the nation's historic commitment to public education to be vigorously reaffirmed by all" (p. 7).

The proposal also listed twelve major priorities or strategies which taken together provide an agenda for action:

. . . clear goals, the mastery of language, a core of common learning, preparation for work and further education, effective use of technology, flexible school patterns, strong leadership, connections with college and with corporations, and a renewed public commitment to the nation's schools. Obviously, money alone cannot make these strategies succeed, but neither can they without cost. Quality has its price (p. 297).

The rationale for those strategies was the finding that ". . . high schools lack a clear and vital mission . . . common purposes or established educational priorities that are widely shared. They seem unable to put it all together. The institution is adrift" (p. 63).

In order to have effective high schools, the proposal indicated four goals that comprise both the means and ends of what the panel thinks schools are all about. These goals were:

First, the high school should help all students develop the capacity to think critically and communicate effectively through a mastery of language. Second, the high schools should help all students learn about themselves, the human heritage, and the interdependent world in which they live through a core curriculum based upon consequential human experiences common to all people. Third, the high school should prepare all students for work and further education through a program of electives that develop individual aptitudes and interest. Fourth, the high school should help all students fulfill their social and civic obligations through school and community service (p. 67).

Boyer contended that major adjustments in the working conditions of teachers are necessary before sound teaching is possible. To this end, high school teachers should have no more than four classes per day, plus one seminar period for helping students with independent projects, giving teachers a minimum of 60 minutes each day for class

preparation. Hall duties and other non-instructional duties should be eliminated.

The schooling of teachers must include: screening of candidates and a mandatory five year program, a liberal arts base, a "B" grade average or better, a major in an academic discipline, and a masters degree in education (p. 175).

The content of the five year program included the following four course sequence:

The first: Schooling in America. All teachers should be well informed about the roots of education in the nation, how the public schools began, how they grew, and how their mission was expanded. Prospective teachers should be informed as well about current issues confronting public education.

The second: Learning Theory and Research. All teacher education students should study theories of learning, the ways teachers teach and students learn, and examine also the finding of current psychological and physiological research bearing on these themes.

The third: The Teaching of Writing. Every teacher should be prepared to help students write better. The skills involved in the teaching of writing should be well understood by all teachers.

The fourth: The Use of Technology. Teachers must learn more about the possibilities and the limits of the new teaching tools. A course on technology and education, including the use of computers, should be required of every prospective teacher (p. 176).

Other features of the proposal program for teacher preparation were classroom observation, teaching experience, and a seminar program on interdisciplinary themes in the core curriculum. A career path for teachers was recommended with a model of evaluating and training teachers that relies on the master teacher. Schools were encouraged to utilize non-academic professionals as part-time teachers in high demand subjects. Boyer's major point seems to be that if the basic capability

of teachers is increased, everything else will fall into place.

The Holmes Group's report provided a comprehensive analysis of teacher education. The agenda of "Tomorrow's Teachers" included a three-tier system of teacher licensing:

Two of these certificates, Professional Teacher and Career Professional, would be renewable and could carry tenure. The other, Instructor, would be temporary and nonrenewable. Each certificate would depend upon entrance exams and educational accomplishments. The two professional certificates also would require assessment of performance on the job (p. 10).

If this new licensing standard is approved, it will imply changes in education schools, departments, and universities. The new approach will need a revision of the undergraduate curriculum with the goal of avoiding a ". . . prematurely specialized fragments" (p. 16). This could be accomplished by devising ". . . coherent programs that will support the advance studies in pedagogy required for solid professional education" (p. 17).

This report was also aware that changes will occur only with cooperation and collaboration between and among departments and disciplines.

Other proposals for reforms were:

- Teacher program curriculum based on research as well as integration of subject matter and pedagogical knowledge.
- Productive clinical experiences, to this the proposal argues the establishment of "Professional Development Schools, the analogue of medical educations teaching hospitals. . ." (p. 56).

Bringing student-teachers, teachers, administrators, and university faculty together will enhance, according to the Holmes Group, the relevance of the teaching-learning process:

. . . through (1) mutual deliberation on problems with students learning, and their possible solutions; (2) shared teaching in the university and schools; (3) collaborative

research on the problems of educational practice; and (4) cooperative supervision of prospective teachers and administrators (p. 56).

All these broad strategies pulling together sketch the Holmes Group's goals for the reform of teacher education, which were:

1. To make the education of teachers intellectually more solid.
2. To recognize differences in teachers' knowledge, skill, and commitment, in their education, certification, and work.
3. To create standards of entry to the profession, examinations and educational requirements, that are professionally relevant and intellectually defensible.
4. To connect our own institutions to schools.
5. To make schools better places for teachers to work, and to learn (p. 4).

"A Nation Prepared: Teacher for the 21st Century," as a curricular document, is a good example of the political functions of teacher education. The philosophical roots of this report may be found in its Executive Summary. The report indicated:

America's ability to compete in world markets is eroding. The productivity growth of our competitors out distances our own. The capacity of our economy to provide a high standard of living for all our people is increasing in doubt. As jobs requiring little skill are automated or go offshore, and demand increases for the highly skilled, the pool of educated and skilled people grows smaller and the backwater of the unemployable rises. Large numbers of American children are in limbo - ignorant of the past and unprepared for the future. Many are dropping out - not just out of school but out of productive society" (p. 2).

This philosophy was visualized through the report to show ". . . the link between economic growth and the skills and abilities of the people who contribute to that growth, and to help develop education policies to meet the economic challenges ahead" (p. iii). This statement is militant at times, especially when reasons are given to

explain the United States' inability to compete in the international market. Its agenda for bringing changes in educational policy, included the following elements.

Create a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, organized with a regional and state membership structure, to establish high standards for what teachers need to know and be able to do, and to certify teachers who meet that standard.

Restructure schools to provide a professional environment for teachers, freeing them to decide how best to meet state and local goals for children while holding them accountable for student progress.

Restructure the teaching force, and introduce a new category of Lead Teachers with the proven ability to provide active leadership in the redesign of the schools and in helping their colleagues to uphold high standards of learning and teaching.

Require a bachelors degree in the arts and sciences as a prerequisite for the professional study of teaching.

Develop a new professional curriculum in graduate schools of education leading to a Master in Teaching degree, based on systematic knowledge of teaching and including internships and residencies in the schools.

Mobilize the nation's resources to prepare minority youngsters for teaching careers.

Relate incentives for teachers to school-wide student performance, and provide schools with the technology, services and staff essential to teacher productivity.

Make teachers' salaries and career opportunities competitive with those in other professions (pp. 55-57).

The report argued for the development of post-graduate professional education for teaching, and for cooperation between and among faculties of education and arts and sciences. It also proposed clinical schools in the same spirit as "the Development Schools" suggested Boyer. A second approach to instruction was the case method, emulating the designs in law and business programs.

This report, as a political document, emphasized the deficiency of the undergraduate education, one of the reasons for proposing the Master in Teaching degree program:

The purposes of the graduate program would be to prepare candidates to take maximum advantage of the research on teaching and the accumulated knowledge of exceptional teachers. It would develop their instructional and management skills, cultivate the habit of reflecting on their own practice of teaching, and lay a strong base for continuing professional development (p. 76).

Goodlad's study was a realistic and radical document. It was realistic by looking at school as a complex and unique social system, a social system that must be studied as a whole without forgetting its parts. It was radical because it realized the creation of the new reality where people need to take responsibility for their own needs given the fact that there ". . . no longer is a common body of information that every one can or must learn" (p. 56).

This document remarked:

Significant educational improvement of schooling, not mere tinkering, requires that we focus on entire schools, not just teachers or principals or curricula or organization or school-community relations but all of these and more. We might begin with one or several of these but it is essential to realize that all are interconnected and that changing any one element ultimately affects the others. Consequently it is advisable to focus on one place where all of the elements come together. This is the individual school. If we are to improve it, we must understand it. If we are to improve schooling, we must improve individual schools (p. xvi).

To avoid the side effects of the tracking system, Goodlad seemed to suggest a common core curriculum experience, compounding a philosophy where academic, vocational, civic and social, and personal goals form the purposes of the school curriculum. Regarding teacher education, the study recommended a career ladder system of apprentice, career teacher, and head teacher, more linkage between universities and

public education, reorganization of the school structure, etc. Its major contribution was "the key school," a school designed for application and innovation of teacher education.

Curriculum Theorizing

"Curriculum theorizing is value based, and there is no such thing as value neutral action" (Dobson and Dobson, 1987, p. 277). In this sense, MacDonald (1974, p. 24) argued ". . . there is an entire dimension missing from most curricular theory. It is a value dimension and, since education is everywhere a public issue, it is therefore a political dimension." He also suggested that "The process need be neither overt, planned, nor apparent to those who participate in it. It depends, rather, on unquestioned assumptions about knowledge and reality, and on resisting challenges to those assumptions" (p. 24).

The political dimensions were also stressed by Simon (1987), who distinguished between "teaching" and "pedagogy" and pointed out that:

. . . 'pedagogy' is a more complex and extensive term than 'teaching', referring to the integration in practice of particular curriculum content and design, classroom strategies and techniques, a time and space for the practice of those strategies and techniques, and evaluation purposes and methods . . . Together they organize a view of how a teacher's work within an institutional context specifies a particular version of what knowledge is of most worth, what it means to know something, and how we might construct representations of ourselves, others, and our physical and social environment. In other words, talk about pedagogy is simultaneously talk about the details of what students and others might do together and the cultural politics such practices support. To propose a pedagogy is to propose a political vision. In this perspective, we cannot talk about teaching practice without talking about politics (p. 37).

Murray (1983) observed that the function of political influence on education can be envisaged through three categories:

1. Influence over the support of, and the access to, education. This first category concerns the questions: 'Who receives how much schooling of what type of of what quality?'
2. Influence over the content and procedures of education. The question in this case is: 'What is taught, by what methods is it taught, and how is it assessed?'
3. Influence over the latitude of social and political action permitted the people who inhabit the schools. The question is: 'To what extent should the school's professional staff members and students be allowed to engage in whatever social and political behavior they choose?' (p. 8).

Murray also examined the reciprocal interactions between education and politics, arriving at the conclusion that education functions ". . . as a source of (1) political socialization, (2) political legitimation, (3) manpower production, (4) sorting and selecting personnel for society's political-economic hierarchy, (5) social assessment and interpretation, (6) social conscience and control, and (7) the stimulation of social change" (p. 23).

Wirt and Kirst (1972) considered that the "instruments of political socialization" are among others the models of political learning, the curriculum content, the text book content, and the role of the teacher.

Wirt and Kirst pointed out:

The instruments of political socialization, . . . may be woven into three instructional models. One emphasizes civic duties and obligations, rational deliberation, and compromise in policy making. A second emphasizes allegiance to a common culture, social harmony. The third emphasizes the technical ability to understand the nature of the political world in order that one may manage it (p. 29).

In regard to the role of the teacher, they indicated that:

Intervening between curriculum-textbook and the student, the teacher has been regarded as a potentially powerful instrument for political socialization since the days of Athens; and, as Socrates learned, societies have placed constraints

upon such power. Examination of teacher-preparation requirements provides important clues to the direction of such constraints (p. 31).

Commenting on socialization and education, Codd (1981) expressed:

Although it is part of the purpose of education to transmit the prevailing norms and ways of behaving that characterize some of the groups in society to which the individual will ultimately belong, it is not enough, in a democratic society, to achieve this, using procedures that lead to lack of awareness of or tolerance toward various alternatives, or to bring it about in any way which denies the individual the capacity for rational and independent judgment (pp. 57-58).

According to Codd, "A curriculum for education . . . would differ from a curriculum for socialization in at least four ways" (p. 58):

1. Whereas education would be aiming at the development of rationally autonomous individuals, socialization would be concerned with developing people who could function smoothly within their society;
2. Whereas education would endeavor to provide the concepts, capacities and knowledge required for testing truth claims and justifying beliefs, socialization would provide those skills, beliefs, attitudes and intelligence required to bring the individual into a harmonious relationship with society;
3. Whereas education would emphasize the importance of producing evidence and rational arguments in support of one's actions and beliefs, in socialization belief and action would be sanctioned either by heritage and tradition or by the power of the majority; and finally,
4. Whereas in the educational process, the ends of actions, policies and institutions are matters for open inquiry, in the socialization process ends are largely presupposed and unquestioned (p. 58).

MacDonald (1977, p. 15) contended that "Any person concerned with curriculum must realize that he/she is engaged in a political activity. Curriculum talk and work are, in microcosm, a legislative function." In a similar perspective, Giroux and Simon (1984, p. 231) argued that curriculum ". . . as a theoretical discourse . . . makes the political a pedagogical act." Lentz and van Tuiji (1987, p. 372)

pointed out that "Many curriculum documents are extremely vague . . ." about questions such as:

What function do they [curriculum documents] have? What is the teacher supposed to do with them? What kind of linguistic act is performed by the document? . . . Is there any [legal] power to oblige the school to follow the document? Is the teacher perhaps obliged to implement this curriculum? (p. 372).

The answers to the above questions may reflect multiple realities because ". . . the epistemological base of curriculum theory is diverse perceptions of reality" (Dobson and Dobson, 1987, p. 275).

Aoki (1987) intended to clarify the diversity interests of curriculum evaluation: (1) Ends-means (technical) evaluation orientation; (2) situational interpretive evaluation orientation; and (3) critical theoretic evaluation orientation.

The concerns of the end-means orientation were:

1. How efficient are the means in achieving the curricular goals and objectives?
2. How effective are the means in predicting the desired outcomes?
3. What is the degree of congruency between and among intended outcomes, the content in the instructional materials and the teaching approaches specified?
4. How good is Curriculum A compared with Curriculum B in achieving given ends?
5. Of given curricula, which one is the most cost-effective and time-efficient?
6. What valid generalizations can be made for all schools in a district?
7. How well are inputs organized to achieve organizational goals?
8. What are the principal means used to achieve goals? How do we know that these means are actually enacted, with what frequency, and with what intensity? (p. 30).

In contrast with the above approach, the situational interpretive evaluation orientation, reflected the following concerns:

1. How do various groups such as teachers, the Ministry, parents, students and administrators view Curriculum X?
2. In what ways do various groups approve or disapprove the program?
3. How do the various groups see Curriculum X in terms of relevance, meaningfulness and appropriateness?
4. What are the various groups' perceived strengths and weaknesses of the program?
5. What questions do administrators and significant others have about Curriculum X? (p. 33).

The following concerns illustrated the critical evaluation mode orientation:

1. What are the perspectives underlying Curriculum X? (What are underlying root interests, root assumptions, root approaches?)
2. What is the implied view of the student or the teacher held by the curriculum planner?
3. At the root level, whose interests does Curriculum X serve?
4. What are the root metaphors that guide the curriculum developer, the curriculum implementor, or curriculum evaluator?
5. What is the basic bias of the publisher/author/developer of prescribed or recommended resource materials?
6. What is the curriculum's supporting world view? (p. 36).

Aoki "acknowledged multiple human interests, each associated with a form of knowledge" (p. 41). Further, he affirmed that:

. . . within the ends-means evaluation approach, the implied interest is intellectual and technical control and the implied form of knowledge, generalizable objective knowledge. Within the situational interpretive approach, the implied interest is authentic communicative consensus, and the form of knowledge, situational knowledge in terms of meanings.

Within the critical orientation, the implied interest is emancipatory, based on action which brings into fuller view the taken-for-granted assumptions and intentions. The knowledge flowing from this activity is critical knowledge (p. 41).

Despite the value of the different approaches, a "Methodological pluralism [will] generate multiple insights and dialogue among maximally divergent perspectives" (Ganapathy, 1986, p. 36). MacDonald (1971, p. 122) declared that "A curriculum ought to be a vehicle for the unfolding of alternatives, with a many valued focus; not the result of the elimination of alternatives or a single value point to be arrived at." Where "the focal point in curriculum . . . is the person . . . not the individual, or the group, or the content to be mastered, or the society to be served--but the person to be served" (1968, p. 38).

Therefore, a primary concern of education should be with the development of the uniqueness of human being in an ambiance of authentic freedom, allowing students and teachers their own finding of truth. Under this philosophical assumption the school should provide each human being with assistance in his/her process toward self-realization and emancipation.

Summary

The review of the literature on educational paradigms showed that the educational paradigm of our choice is more than a conceptual framework, for it is also a political decision. One's paradigm produces perspectives that may be in opposition to those generated in other paradigms. Our educational paradigm impels us to accept some forms of evidence and reject others. It generates the kind of

questions that we ask, the judgments that we make, and even the way in which we view the consequences of our choices. This occurs when we are deliberating about political praxis.

The review of the literature on the metaphorical roots of curriculum design suggested the subtle ways of how metaphors in education shape our conception of schooling, the learning process, and our view of curriculum design, how sometimes they enrich the educational discourse, and finally how the danger rests upon its uncritical metaphorical usages. A political pedagogic was also outlined.

The report "A Nation Prepared: Teacher for the 21st Century" was presented as an efficiency-driven document concerned with the United States' economy in a competitive world market. Emphasis was placed on subject matter, elimination of the undergraduate education, and higher teacher preparation standards.

Boyer's report was the most comprehensive of the proposals. It addressed issues of content excellence and society's efficiency. This report was more specific in considering the teacher's formal education as an important facet of school reform, as it can be seen in the outline of the five years preparation program which was a model process.

The development of a community service program at the high school level was interesting, and it was a pity that it was not included in the teacher preparation, thus providing a linking of hands with schools and community at large.

The Holmes Group's report provided an interesting analysis of the programs and potentialities of teacher preparation. This report was also a warning call for change in faculties of education. Teacher

education in its present form is vulnerable, and will continue to be so, unless examination of organization and program change in faculties of education are encouraged and carried out.

Goodlad's study was an excellent example of a comprehensive and qualitative research in education. However, most of its recommendations will be contemplative if its most important finding--socio-economic inequalities of school participants--are not abolished.

Finally, the section on curriculum theorizing revealed the political and pedagogical aspects of education.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The proposal presented a review of the literature related to four areas: educational paradigms, curriculum design: its metaphorical roots, proposals for reform of teacher education, and curriculum theorizing. In addition, a critical analysis of the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral in Venezuela will be addressed. This chapter grounds the methodology to be followed in this study.

Theory Design

Regarding the sources of theory, Guba and Lincoln (1983) commented:

Rationalists prefer a priority theory; indeed, they are likely to insist that inquiry without a priority theory is impossible. Theories always exist, they say, even if only at the implicit level. It is better to make them explicit than to be uncertain about what is guiding one's inquiry. The naturalist suggests that it is not theory but the inquiry problem that guides and bounds an inquiry. A priority theory constrains the inquiry and introduces biases (believing is seeing). In all events, theory is more powerful when it arises from the data rather than being imposed on them. It is better to find a theory to explain the facts than to look for facts that accord with a theory (pp. 323-324).

Besides the "empirical analytic methods that place a premium on explanation through predictive relationships between qualified

constructs" and the "naturalistic/phenomenological methods that place a premium on understanding through qualitative interpretations of social settings" Sirotnik and Oakes (1986) added a third "face of inquiry," the "critical/dialectical methods that place a premium on clarification of values and human interests through informed discourse and action" (p. 19).

Some of these research paradigms for developing countries have been questioned. The functionalist/rationalist have been accused of favoring an approach ". . . strictly quantitative, 'positivist' one, which by the middle of this century was developed in survey research in Anglo-Saxon countries and became 'normal science'" (Torsten Husen, 1987, p. 42).

The problem with the naturalistic theory is that it just deals with the description of cultural events. It is contemplative. Any action seems to emanate from its inquiry. Angus (1986) argued that "By stressing the precedence of description over interpretation and explanation, ethnographers do not necessarily provide any basis for critical judgments" (p. 62). According to Kirk (1986) ". . . one major limitation common to all three perspectives [including critical methodologies] is a failure to contextualize teacher education within a number of structures and constraints" (p. 156).

Those structures and constraints in teacher education are "The collective ethos of teacher education institutions [manifested] in rules and procedures intrinsic to their operation--the way they structure knowledge in courses; the way they award credit; the way they select and recruit students and staff, . . ." (p. 160); the "'transmission' of knowledge and not in its 'transformation'" (p. 161); the

"phenomenology of the teaching experience"; and the "expectations of interested parties" (p. 162).

Research Design

The following research questions will be addressed:

1. What is the curricular design followed by the plan of the study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral?
2. What is (are) the political and pedagogical function(s) of the plan of the study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral as part of the National Program of Teacher Education in Service?

This study will utilize a methodology of critical analysis. The critical analysis will be limited to the curriculum design process of design. Looking for consistency in the process of analysis, the following variables suggested by Kimpston and Rogers (1986) as a framework for curriculum research at the level of design will be taken into consideration:

Presage Variables: "Who" were the participants in the curriculum design task(s)?

Context Variables: Where and under what condition the design tasks took place.

Process Variables: How the task(s) of curriculum was (were) carried out.

Outcome Variables: Products and by-products of the design task(s).

This methodology will require an historical approach to reconstruct the development of basic teacher education in Venezuela, and contextual analysis of documents and materials. This approach will allow one to

point out positive aspects of this curriculum and the aspects that may be improved. Also, the following pedagogical features from the works of Paulo Freire will be considered, as they may or may not apply to teacher education.

Teacher education as a political activity.

Besides being an act of knowing, education is also a political act. That is why no pedagogic is neutral (Shor and Freire, 1987, p. 13).

Let me say here, now, why I insist constantly on the politicity of education. There was a time in my life as an educator when I did not speak about politics and education. It was my most naive moment. There was another time when I began to speak about the political aspects of education. That was a less naive moment, when I wrote Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1970). In the second moment, nevertheless, I was still thinking that education was not politics but only had an aspect of politics. In the third moment, today, for me there is not a political aspect. For me, now I say that education is politics. Today, I say education has the quality of being politics, which shapes the learning process. Education is politics and politics has educability (Ibid, p. 61).

Learning.

Knowing is the task of subjects, not of objects. It is as a subject, and only as such, that a man or woman can really know. In the learning process the only person who really learns is s/he who appropriates what is learned, who apprehends and thereby re-invents that learning; s/he who is able to apply the appropriated learning to concrete existential situations (Freire, 1986, p. 101).

Critical teacher education.

A critical pedagogy [critical teacher education] is one in which teachers act as intelligent practitioners capable of reflective thought and reconstructive action, who are able to take responsibility for their own professional development [lifelong learning], and who can contribute significantly to the creation of an emancipatory educational process through schooling (Kirk, 1986, p. 156, based on Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed).

Critical analysis methodologies using Freire's critical pedagogy have precedents in the studies of Rodriguez (1984), Pires (1983),

Leonard (1987). Other examples of critical studies in teacher education are the works of Popkewitz (1987), Giroux (1986), Kirk (1986), and Manrique (1985).

Sources of Data

The documentary sources for analysis of the plan of study design of the Licenciado or Profesor in basic education included the following documents:

- Informe. Bloque Comun Homologado del Plan de Estudio para la Formacion del Licenciado o Profesor en Educacion Integral por la Via de la Formacion en Servicio (1985). Nucleo de Vicerrectores Academicos del Consejo Nacional de Universidades, constituido en Comision ad hoc.
- Informe de la Comision Interinstitucional de Formacion Docente del Ministerio de Educacion en Reunion de fecha febrero 22, 1985.
- Ministerio de Educacion (1983). Resolucion No. 12, Gaceta Oficial de la Republica de Venezuela. Ano CX, Mes IV. No. 3085 Extraordinario.
- Ministerio de Educacion (1985c). Programas Sinopticos de los Cursos del Bloque Comun Homologado del Plan de Estudios para la Formacion del Docente en Educacion Integral. Comite Ejectivo de Formacion Docente.

The above documents contain the plan of study design of basic teacher education.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to present a critical descriptive analysis of Venezuela's plan of study for basic teacher education. A thorough review of the literature was presented in four parts: educational paradigms, curriculum design and its metaphorical roots, proposals for reform in teacher education, and curriculum theorizing.

The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the curricular design followed by the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral?

2. What is (are) the political and pedagogical function(s) of the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral as part of the National Program of Teacher Education in Service?

The following variables were taken into consideration as a framework for curriculum analysis at the level of curriculum design:

Presage Variables: "Who" were the participants in the curriculum design tasks?

Context Variables: Where and under what conditions had the design tasks taken place?

Process Variables: How were the tasks of curriculum carried out?

Outcome Variables: What were the products and by-products of the design tasks? (Based on Kimpston & Rogers' A framework for curriculum research, 1986).

Research Question One

What is the curricular design followed by the plan of the study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral?

Presage Variables: "Who" were the participants in the curriculum design tasks?

The Ministry of Education through Resolution No. 141 of April 18, 1984, appointed the "Comite Ejecutivo de Formacion Docente" (Executive Committee of Teacher Education) to design the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor in Integral Education. This official committee was formed by two members of the Bureau of Education: The Director of Planning (Coordinator of committee), and the Director of Higher Education, and the Vice-rectors of teaching and extension of the Universidad Pedagogica Experimental Libertador (Informe. Bloque Comun Homologado, 1985). Their curriculum design tasks were to structure the plan of study design in regard to conception and organization of the components and competencies assigned to each sector of knowledge.

The syllabi of the 33 courses (first phase of the plan of study design) were designed by content specialists, two from each participant institutions, as it was required by the "Comite Ejecutivo de Formacion Docente." On January 1, 1985, this committee appointed the "Comision Interinstitucional de Formacion Docente" (Inter-Institutional Committee of Teacher Education), which was in charge of studying and placing the 33 courses in the plan of study design. This second

committee was integrated by three representatives from the autonomous universities, three from the experimental universities, three from the institutes of teacher education, one from the private universities (Informe de la Comision Interinstitucional de Formacion Docente, 1985).

The Universidad Pedagogica Experimental Libertador (UPEL) was created to lead the new policies of teacher education. This experimental university incorporated into its organization and academic structure the pedagogic institutes and the University Institute of Professional Improvement (IUMPM) run by the Ministry of Education.

Following the norms of Resolution 12 (Ministerio de Education, 1983), the UPEL and the official curriculum committees elaborated the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral (a bachelor degree in education of five years of study).

The UPEL and the official curriculum committees were not along in this endeavor. Twenty-one institutions of higher education participated in the design of the plan of study. The institutions were as follows:

- Universidad Central de Venezuela.
- Universidad de Carabobo.
- Universidad del Zulia.
- Universidad de Los Andes.
- Universidad Nacional Experimental de Guayana.
- Universidad Nacional Experimental "Simon Rodriguez".
- Universidad Nacional Experimental de los Llanos Occidentales "Ezequiel Zamora".
- Universidad Nacional Experimental "Rafael Maria Baralt".
- Universidad Nacional Abierta.
- Instituto Universitario Pedagogico Experimental de Barquisimeto.
- Instituto Universitario Pedagogico Experimental de Maturin.
- Instituto Universitario Pedagogico Experimental "Rafael Alberto Escobar Lara" de Maracay.
- Instituto Universitario Pedagogico Experimental "J. M. Siso Martinez".
- Instituto Universitario Pedagogico "Monsenor Arias Blanco".

- Instituto Universitario de Mejoramiento Profesional del Magisterio.
- Centro de Capacitacion Docente El Macaro, Turmero, Edo. Aragua.
- Centro Interamericano de Educacion Rural, Rubio, Edo. Tachira.
- Universidad Catolica Andres Bello.
- Universidad de Los Andes - "Nucleo Rafael Rangel", Trujillo.
- Universidad Privada "Jose Maria Vargas".
- Universidad de Oriente (Ministerio de Education, 1985a).

Official curriculum committees designed the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral. Those committees were formed by curriculum specialists and content specialists as designers. Few teachers considered that they had control on the design and evolution of this part of the plan of study.

The above reflected a function of control in the way in which courses had been selected, classified, and organized in the plan of study. It is important to keep in mind, however, that:

1. Fundamental educational reform will come only through those charged with the basic educational responsibility, the teacher.
2. Teachers are unlikely to change their ways of doing things just because administrators and college professors tell them to do so.
3. Teachers will take reform seriously when they are involved in defining their own educational problems, delineating their own needs, and receiving help on their own terms (Dobson & Dobson, 1985, pp. 1-2).

When only official curriculum committees are involved in curriculum design, it cannot be expected a curriculum emerging from student-teachers needs and society's perceived needs. Teachers are central in the definition of their own identify under a participatory and democratic decision-making approach.

A curriculum committee may gain legitimacy, if it stimulates and includes teachers in defining teacher education in their own

context. Dialogue among participants is essential in promoting a democratic teacher education.

Context Variables: Where and under what conditions had the design tasks taken place?

The focus of decision-making had been the Ministry of Education and the Universidad Pedagógica Experimental Libertador. Curriculum design was authoritarian in the way of thinking about basic school education and basic teacher education. Magendzo (1988) pointed out that:

In most (of the Latin American countries) the Ministry of Education has nominated specialists from the ministry itself or from other state institutions, particularly from the universities, to plan the curriculum. In some instances an ad hoc committee has been appointed for this purpose. If the majority of teachers are consulted at all, this has been done post factum, that is to say after the curriculum has been produced and when only insignificant changes can be introduced. Teachers will receive the planned curriculum as mandatory, although the official rhetoric is focused on flexibility and adaptation to the local and school realities (p. 29).

The new Organic Law of Education of 1980 has modified the Venezuelan educational system. Article 16 of the law established that the educational system consists of levels and modalities. The levels were preschool education, basic school education (first to ninth grade), diversified and vocational secondary education (tenth, eleventh, and twelfth) and higher education. The modalities were special education, arts and crafts education, cult-ministry education, military education, adult education, and out-school education (Table I shows the Venezuelan Educational System before and after the law).

The design of the levels of Basic School Education was based on resolution No. 649 (Ministerio de Educación, 1985b). This resolution

TABLE I
 VENEZUELAN EDUCATION SYSTEM BEFORE AND AFTER
 THE ORGANIC LAW OF EDUCATION OF 1980

Before 1980	Levels	Preschool	Primary						Common Basic Cycle			Diversified Cycle			Higher Education	
	Grades or Years		1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	4	1	2	3		
	Average Age	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
After 1980	Years		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3		
	Levels	Preschool	Basic School Education						Diversified and Vocational				Higher Education			

established three phases of schooling: the first one which included the first, the second and the third grade; the second one which included the fourth, fifth and sixth grades; and the last one that corresponded with the seventh, eighth and ninth grade. Each grade was integrated by seven areas and each area by subjects. Their distributions in the plan of study of the Basic School Education are presented in Table II.

TABLE II
PLAN OF STUDY OF BASIC SCHOOL EDUCATION

Areas	Grades of Study Subjects	1st Phase			2nd Phase			3rd Phase		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Lengua	Cast. y Lit.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Inglés						X	X	X	X
Matemática	Matemática	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ciencias Naturales y Educ. p. la salud	Est. Nat.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
	Educ. Salud	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Cs. Biolog.								X	X
	Física								X	X
Estudios Sociales	Química								X	X
	Hist. Vzla.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Geog. Vzla.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Educ. Filar. y Ciudadna	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Educación	Hist. Univ.									X
	Geog. Gen.									X
Estética	Art. Plástico.	X	X	X	X	X	X			
	Educ. Mus.	X	X	X	X	X	X			
Educ. Fis. y deporte	Educ. Artis.							X	X	
	Educ. Fis. y deporte	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Educ. p. el Trbj.	Educ. p. el Trbj.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Source: Ministerio de Educación. Resolución No. 649. Gaceta Oficial No. 3610. 30 de Agosto de 1985.

Article 77 of the law decreed that primary school teaching must be university certified by higher education institutions that offer plans and programs of teacher education. Basic school teacher education was to be provided by higher education institutions through a common core curriculum in its first phase. This core curriculum, with a duration of three years, was designed following the rules and regulations of Resolution No. 12 (Ministerio de Educacion, 1983).

In accordance with the Organic Law of Education, Resolution 12 dictated the general norms that defined the policies of Venezuela regarding teaching education. The fundamental aspects ruled by Resolution 12 were objectives of teacher education, foundations of the professional profile, structure of the curriculum of teacher education; titles and certificates of competence, professionalization, graduate teacher education, and permanent education.

The second phase of the curriculum will be designed by each participant institution in teacher education. It is hoped that this second phase will reflect the idiosyncrasies of the institutions and its regions.

Process Variables: How were the tasks of curriculum carried out?

Resolution 12 (Ministerio de Educacion, 1983) conceived teacher education as a degree of higher education between 155 and 165 credit units. The curriculum of teacher education was structured by Resolution 12 into four components: General Education, Pedagogic Formation, Specialized Formation, and Professional Practice. The four components were grouped as a whole and distributed along with the plan of study with the aim of obtaining an integrated vision of teacher education. The credit units were distributed according to Resolution 12 (p. 2) among the following percentages:

- General Education 15 to 18%
- Pedagogic Formation 27 to 29%
- Specialized Formation 27 to 29%
- Professional Practice 15 to 18%

The plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor in Integral Education was part of the "Programa Nacional de Formacion Docente en Servicio" (National Program of Teacher Education in Service). The plan of study design in Integral Education consisted of two blocks: a "Common Block" and an "Institutional Block." The "Comite Ejecutivo de Formacion Docente" and the UPEL, with the consent of the twenty-one institutions of higher education, decided that the value of the plan of study was 165 credit units. A credit unit in the plan of study was equivalent to an hour of theory, or two hours of practice or three hours of laboratory, per week, during a semester, or per academic period.

The "Common Block" has already been designed. It has 133 credit units distributed in 33 courses. The syllabi of the 33 courses were designed in eight regional workshops celebrated in the cities of Merida: Faculty of Education, Universidad de Los Andes; Maracay: Instituto Universitario Pedagogico; Barquisimeto: Instituto Universitario Pedagogico; Maturin: Instituto Universitario Pedagogico; Puerto Ordaz: Universidad de Guayana; Caracas: Unidad Escolar Miguel Antonio Caro; Maracaibo: Faculty of Education, Universidad del Zulia; and El Macaro: Nucleo Permanente de Educacion Rural, in November of 1984. The plan of study design was divided into two phases a "Common Block" and in "Institutional Block."

It had been agreed that the plan of study design of the

"Institutional Block," including the component of professional practice, was the responsibility of each institution participating in the Programa Nacional de Formacion Docente (PRONAFORDO). This section was considered the second phase of the plan of teacher education. Consequently, each institution had fifty-two (52) credit units to work within the design of this "block."

Outcome Variables: What were the products and by-products of the design tasks?

One of the products was the "Common Block" of the plan of study design. This first phase has 133 credit units distributed in 33 courses with their correspondent syllabi (See Table III).

TABLE III
COMMON CORE CURRICULUM
(COMMON BLOCK)

Competence and Courses	Credits
<u>General Education</u>	
1. Educacion Ciudadana	3
2. Educacion Ambiental	3
3. Lengua Espanola I	3
4. Desarrollo de Procesos Cognoscitivos	3
5. Introduccion a la Investigacion	3
6. Musica y Artes Escnicas	3
7. Estadistica General	3
Sub Total	<u>21</u>
8. Educacion Basica	3
9. Corrientes del Pensamiento Pedagogico	3
10. Sociologia de la Educacion	3
11. Psicologia del Desarrollo	3

TABLE III (Continued)

Competence and Courses	Credits
<u>Pedagogical Education</u>	
12. Psicologia del Aprendizaje	3
13. Planificacion de la Instruccion	3
14. Tecnicas y Recursos para el Aprendizaje	3
15. Curriculo	2
16. Evaluacion Educativa	3
17. Investigacion Educativa	3
18. Orientacion Educativa	3
Sub Total	<u>32</u>
<u>Professional Education</u>	
19. Lengua Espanola II	3
20. Lecto-Escritura	3
21. Literatura Infantil	3
22. Matematica I	3
23. Matematica II	3
24. Geometria I	3
25. Taller de Artes Plasticas	3
26. Historia Universal	2
27. Geografia General	2
28. Geografia de Venezuela	3
29. Historia de Venezuela	3
30. Ciencias I	3
31. Ciencias II	3
32. Educacion Fisica y Recreacion	3
33. Formacion para el Trabajo	4
Sub Total	<u>44</u>
<u>Professional Practice</u>	
First Phase	4
Second Phase	5
Third Phase	7
Sub Total	<u>16</u>
TOTAL	113

Source: Informe de la Comision Interinstitucional de Formacion Docente en Servicio. Caracas: 27 de Febrero de 1985)

The "Comision Interinstitucional de Formacion Docente" integrated by three representatives of the autonomous universities, three by the experimental universities, three by the institutes of teacher education, and one by the private universities, designed the final product of the plan of study called "Curricular Matrix of the Common Block" (first phase) of the plan of study (See Table IV).

Considering the number of courses, credit units and percentages of the "Common Block," designed by official curriculum committees, Table V shows the curriculum distribution as it may look taking into account the "Institutional Block."

Some Critical Approximations. In Venezuela, the changes in basic teacher education were not an isolated process. "Since colonial times --and through the independence period until today--curriculum ideas, curriculum knowledge, curriculum technology, curriculum materials, curriculum models, and so on, have been 'imported' to Latin America from various developed countries" (Magendzo, 1988, p. 29). The curricular thought of "how to construct" a curriculum illustrated by the Tyler rationale, among others, was one of those models.

The paradigm of perennial analytic categories represented by the Ralph Tyler rational (Schubert, 1986), which has become the dominant paradigm in the United States (May, 1986), has been adopted for curriculum design in Venezuela according to Avalos (1982). This seemed to be certain at least in the design of some of the syllabus of the 33 courses of the "Common Block."

Taking an example at random, it was possible to identify the perennial analytic categories in the case of the syllabi of the course

TABLE IV
CURRICULAR MATRIX OF THE "COMMON BLOCK" OF THE
PLAN OF STUDY OF THE LICENCIADO OR
PROFESOR IN INTEGRAL EDUCATION

No. of Courses	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	2	3	2	1	1			
6	Literatura Infantil		Orientación Educativa			Técnicas y Recursos para el Aprendizaje		Geografía de Venezuela			Educación Física y Recreación		15	7	P R O F E S S I O N A L P R A C T I C E
5		Geometría I		Investigación Educativa		Evaluación Educativa	Historia de Venezuela		Ciencias II	Artes Plásticas			18		
4	Lecto-Escritura					Planificación de la Instrucción	Historia Universal		Ciencias I			Formación para el Trabajo	15	5	
3		Matemática II	Psicología del Aprendizaje	Estadística General	Sociología de la Educación	Currículo		Geografía General					16	4	
2	Lengua Española II		Psicología del Desarrollo	Introducción a la Investigación	Corrientes del Pensamiento Pedagógico		Educación Ciudadana			Música y Artes Escénicas			18		
1	Lengua Española I	Matemática I	Desarrollo de Procesos Cognoscitivos		Educación Básica				Educación Ambiental				15		
Academic Period Areas	Language & Literature	Mathematics	Psychology	Research	Educational Theory	Planning	History & Citizenship	Geography	Natural Sciences	Aesthetics	Physical Education	Formation for Work	97	16	

Adapted from: Informe de la Comisión Interinstitucional de Formación Docente (1985, p. 14).

TABLE V
 NUMBER OF COURSES, CREDITS, UNITS, AND
 PERCENTAGES OF THE "COMMON BLOCK",
 OF THE PLAN OF STUDY

Components	Number of Courses	Credit Units	Percentage	Credits/ Institutional Block	Credits Resolution No. 12
General Education	7	21	18.58	4	25
Pedagogic Formation	11	32	28.31	16	48
Specialized Formation	15	44	38.93	22	26
Professional Practice		16	14.15	10	26
TOTALS	33	113	99.97	52	165

"Desarrollo de Procesos Cognocitivos" (Ministerio de Educacion, 1985c)
as follows:

What objectives should the course seek to attain?

Specific Objectives: (Unit No. 3)

The facilitator will be able to:

- Value the process of observation as a source of information
- Study different situations making use of comparative processes
- Apply processes of classification to given situations
- Analyze a given problem through proper and logical criteria.

What experiences or contents can be provided that are likely to
attain these objectives?

Contents:

Basic processes of: Observation comparison, classification, analysis-synthesis. Difference between process, strategies and cognitive skills.

How can these experiences or contents be effectively organized?

Methodological Recommendations:

Presentation of the task by the facilitator. Individual and group work guided by the facilitator on exercises of observation, comparison, classification and analysis-synthesis processes. Group discussion of the results obtained from the accomplished tasks. Assignment of home practice exercises. Conceptualization of the worked-out processes, in order to reinforce the meta-cognitive skills at the end of each practical experience.

How can we determine whether these objectives are being attained?

Aspects to be Evaluated:

- Attendance to the planned work sessions, for these follow a sequential order, and therefore, the mastering of each one of them constitutes an essential base for the next ones.
- Active and relevant participation in the discussions.
- Effective and relevant participation in the work sub-groups and in the group sessions for each learning experience. This involves the performance of individual exercises, group interaction and to express a personal opinion on each learning experience.
- Solving of exercises given by the facilitator to reinforce the learning. . .

The problem is not the paradigm in itself. The dilemma evolves from who is (are) charged with answering the paradigm's questions. There was a separation of conception from the execution of curriculum "That is, in their minds [experts or specialists] teacher professionalism did not necessitate the design of learning activities but the execution of programs predesigned by other 'professionals'" (Densmore, 1987, pp. 143-144).

The subject-structured curriculum dominated the plan of study design. The notion of curriculum integration was also considered. However, a note in the "Cartelera Universitaria" of the Universidad Pedagógica Experimental Libertador (UPEL 1984) pointed out the arguments presented by Derr and Hirst against curriculum integration. The writer indicated the arguments in its primary sources and were quoted and criticized as follows.

Derr (1981) considered that the ". . . efforts to integrate concepts and propositions from diverse disciplines generate hypotheses, not facts and confirmed generalizations" (pp. 389-340), under the assumption that ". . . process of integrating knowledge from two or more disciplines generates hypotheses whose truth or validity is uncertain" (p. 390). Those arguments were presented against Gibbons' conclusions that:

- (1) The integration of knowledge from different domains is not only possible but a formal feature of the pursuit of knowledge.
- (2) Integration may be hypothesized to exhibit a particular logic.
- (3) The hypothesis is a practical one to those constituting and teaching integrated courses (Cited in Derr, 1981, p. 389).

Derr argued that ". . . Gibsons' demonstration has little practical value for educator and, indeed, is very misleading since it pertains to the research context, not to the contexts of curriculum development and instructional planning" (p. 389). However, ". . . when we separate producing knowledge from knowing the existing knowledge, schools become easily spaces for selling knowledge . . ." (Freire in Shor and Freire, 1987, p. 8).

Derr's interpretation of Hirst's Knowledge and the Curriculum was also cited in the "Cartelera Universitaria." According to Derr, Hirst used ". . . the term 'integration' to a process in which the concepts of various physical sciences are united to form a set of new concepts" (p. 391). But Hirst (1974) went even further by pointing out that "The notion of curriculum integration with which I (Hirst) am concerned is therefore, in part at least, an attack on the subject-structured curriculum, the breaking down of the enterprise of education into a number of discreet, limited enterprises of a subject character" (p. 133). According to Matthews (1980), "The politicisation of syllabi poses a problem for Paul Hirst's contention that 'curricula descend from the forms of knowledge and their harmonious interrelationships' . . . But even in Hirst's ideal situation, he is still dealing with forms of knowledge that are, to varying degrees, politicised" (p. 188).

The subject-structured curriculum rested on division of values (conception and execution of curriculum), authority (official curriculum committees), and fixed subject matter content. Within this format of curriculum ". . . subject-matter is the pre-existing content/message . . . of curriculum to be acquired from those who have it and

then transmitted by the expert pedagogue/senders to their student/receivers,. . ." (Whitson, 1988, p. 320).

The plan of study design was guided by technical concerns as evidenced in the emphasis on percentages by components, credit units, subject-matter structure and basic competencies. Such emphasis may defuse the spirit of the law in creating a more egalitarian and participant education.

Research Question Two

What is (are) the political and pedagogical function(s) of the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor en Educacion Integral as part of the National Program of Teacher Education in Service?

In general, pedagogic has been defined as ". . . the act of teaching and the art and science of education" (Smith, 1980, p. 6). However, in the text of this study, the term political and pedagogical functions of the curriculum referred to the interrelationships of the political and educational interpretations of curriculum, and the roles of teachers in Venezuela's educational system. Consequently, most of the political and pedagogical functions of teachers were products and by-products of structural changes of the educational system and consequences of the Organic Law of Education of 1980, rules and regulations that have redefined the teacher's functions.

In regard to the teaching profession, Article 77 of the Law of Education legislated the pedagogical functions of teacher, functions that have been operationalized through Resolution No. 12. Article 77 of the law pointed out the pedagogical functions of teaching, orientation, planning, research, experimentation, evaluation, direction,

supervision and administration in the educational field as determined by special laws and regulations. The latter article only considered as professionals in education those who were graduated from the pedagogic institutes, the university's schools of education and from any other institute with programs of teacher education.

Ellner (1986), commenting on the tendencies of the politics of teacher education in Venezuela, pointed out that:

One of the most far-reaching reforms in the 1980 law required all elementary teachers to acquire a degree from an institution of higher learning. When implemented, this reform would eliminate the distinction between maestro (school teacher) and profesor (high school teacher). It was criticized, however, on grounds that it would create a shortage of elementary teachers, would consider the new requirements too demanding. Nevertheless, the present surplus of graduates of institutions of higher learning in education--estimated at 10,000 by one professional association--suggests that the state can afford to stiffen standards. Not only would the less prestigious term maestro be replaced by the more generic word docente, but differences in material benefits would be eradicated. Another goal was to inculcate among elementary teachers the sense of professionalism characteristic of high school teachers, the profesores (p. 308).

In the plan of study design, four pedagogical functions of the Licenciado or Profesor in Integral Education can be identified. The functions identified were: The teacher as a facilitator, counselor, researcher, and social promoter. Those pedagogical functions and their basic competencies were defined as follows:

Pedagogical Function of Facilitator

The educator should possess the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will permit him/her to design, execute and evaluate the teaching-learning process based on aims and principles of Venezuelan education, knowledge of the subject that learns and his/her reality, theories of instruction and learning of his/her area of specific teaching, with the purpose of promoting the integral education of students (Informe. Bloque Comun Homologado, 1985, p. 6).

The basic competencies to perform the pedagogical function of facilitator were stated in the following way:

1. To use conceptually and functionally the aims, purposes, principles and curricular guidelines of education, as the fundamental base for the planification, execution and evaluation of the teaching-learning process.
2. Identify and analyze the biopsico-social characteristics of the learner, in order to use them as a base to conceive, plan, execute and evaluate his/her educational action.
3. Select, organize, execute and evaluate situations of learning that can lead to form, consolidate and enrich the socio-cultural values of the country.
4. Conceive, design, execute and evaluate situations of learning, based on his/her knowledge of the different theories of man's development, on learning and instruction with the purpose of integrating in harmonic and functional way the different elements that interact in the teaching-learning process.
5. Select, organize, adequate, develop and evaluate the cultural, scientific, humanistic and technological contents that will contribute to build up an integral education for the student.
6. To stimulate in the students the correct use of language by using it correctly and by properly correcting the students in their oral and written expression of their language.
7. Select and apply a diversity of strategies of instruction that will promote in the students the development of their creativity, their active participation in their preparation, in the transfer of knowledge and skills to real situations and in the development of attitudes and moral values.
8. Conceive, select and make use of interactive strategies that can generate an ambience of confidence and openness, to encourage the spontaneous participation of the group and the individual.
9. Select, adapt, produce, organize, use and evaluate different learning resources based upon pedagogical and technical criteria that might guarantee their feasibility and applicability to attain the objectives.
10. Select and use conceptions, criteria and procedures of evaluation pertinent to the situation object of the evaluation, as a base of decision-making (Ibid., pp. 6-7).

The pedagogical vision was democratic. However, an insistence on the technical capacities of teachers as essential in the pedagogical

function of facilitator could be inferred. The teacher " . . . must use the science of techniques but must never become a cold, neutral technician" (Freire, 1978, pp. 28-29). A technical orientation in the function of facilitator may induce to consider the pedagogical functions as social neutral, reducing teacher education to a mere technical training.

The control of the teaching-learning process was outside of the control of the learner. Under this approach "The teacher is the subject of the learning process, while the pupils were mere objects" (Freire, 1972, p. 29). Freeman (1987) stated that "The teacher--whom (Malcolm) Knowles prefers to call the 'facilitator of learning'--has an important role but is only one learning resource among many" (p. 63).

A pedagogical function of facilitator has to be learner rather than teacher centered without forgetting that "In the learning process the only person who really learns is he/she who appropriates what is learned, who apprehends and thereby re-invents that learning; he/she who is able to apply the appropriate learning to concrete existential situations (Freire, 1986, p. 101). In this sense the democratic aims and principles of Venezuelan education will be achieved.

The function of counselor was the second pedagogical function defined in the plan of study.

Pedagogical Function of Counselor

He/she should possess the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that permit them to approach the learners as persons, taking into account their own characteristics, interests and needs, in order to help them discover their own potentialities and limitations; to promote in them proper interpersonal relations, and to stimulate their acquisition of study and work habits and to assist them in the process of vocational search (Informe. Bloque Comun Homologado, 1985, pp. 7-8).

The basic competencies of the pedagogical function of counselor were stated in the following way:

1. To stimulate in the students the development and consolidation of values related to the family, the school and society.
2. To help the student in the process of knowing himself/herself, to discover his/her own potentialities and limitations and to confront these limitations in order to overcome them.
3. To promote in the students their self-appreciation and the development of their capacities and interests.
4. To assist the students in the analysis and treatment of personal and academic problems, leading them to take proper and responsible decisions.
5. To develop in the students attitudes of respect, tolerance, honesty and receptiveness toward people.
6. To participate in the personal, academic and social orientation of the students and in the exploration of their vocational interests.
7. To detect in the students, specific problems of learning and/or adaptation; to propose solutions to these problems, or to refer these students to other specialists.
8. To promote in the students the development of study, work and good health habits.
9. Auto-evaluate his/her own attitudes, beliefs, ideals and professional behavior, according to the philosophy, laws, norms and educational politics of the country (Ibid., pp. 8-9).

From a point of view of curriculum design, the incorporation of the function of counseling in the profile of teacher fulfilled an old aspiration, and it will transform the program of orientation in the basic school (Rodriguez, Lacueva, & Calonge, 1982).

The third pedagogical function defined was the function of researcher:

Pedagogical Function of Researcher

The teacher should possess knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that allow him/her to understand the socio-educational reality of his/her country and to engage effectively and

permanently in research (Informe. Bloque Comun Homologado, 1985, pp. 8-9).

The basic competencies of the pedagogical function of researcher were defined in the following way:

1. To interpret the policies established by the Venezuelan State concerning the research in the area of education.
2. To analyze different theories and scientific approaches, in order to apply them to social research, specifically in the area of education.
3. To make use of research methodologies appropriate to the natural and social sciences, and especially to education.
4. To stimulate in the students the use of research as a way to attain knowledge.
5. To make use of research for the solution of problems affecting the immediate educational reality.
6. Elaborate and execute research projects related to concrete problems in the field of education.
7. To use the results of research as a base to formulate procedures, enrich methodologies and techniques of teaching and evaluation in order to improve the general process of learning.
8. To process, analyze, interpret and give out information concerning concrete educational situations.
9. To put into practice new strategies as hypothesis, in order to improve the quality of the teaching-learning process.
10. To participate in research projects to diagnose socio-educational problems, in order to formulate alternatives.
11. To analyze different theories and scientific research approaches, to apply them to other research projects to be designed and executed (Ibid., pp. 8-9).

In spite of abolishing the dilemma that the research is not an educator and the educator is not a researcher, again we are dealing with the dilemma of limiting research to the strategy of teaching. Shor (Shor and Freire, 1987) pointed out "The most sensitive observer of students in the 1983 reform wave, Theodore Sizer, found that 'social

class' was the single most important variable among schools" (pp. 128-129). The same variable was found in Venezuela in determining students prosecution and results of the teaching-learning process despite that all schools were oriented by the same official curriculum (Bronfrenmayer, Casanova, and Garcia cited in Rodriguez, 1982, pp. 20-21). The function of teacher as researcher cannot be limited, if we want to contribute to teachers' professional growth and understanding of the socio-educational reality of the country.

The last pedagogical function defined, however not the least important, was the function of social promoter:

Function of Social Promoter

He/she should possess knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that allow him/her to reach an effective integration of school-community to promote their participation and join their efforts to contribute to satisfy socio-cultural and educational needs of those communities (Informe. 1985, p. 9).

The basic competencies of this pedagogical function were indicated in the following way:

1. To interpret the Venezuelan social structure as a point of reference for his/her educational action.
2. To characterize the community where the school is located, as a base for planning and execution of actions towards the integration of school and community.
3. Participate in the solution of community problems, as a central action to integrate community and school.
4. Assume his/her roll of leader and act with efficiency in different situations and with different community groups.
5. To reinforce in the students and the community the outgrowing of values and traditions to contribute to the conformation of a solid national conscience.
6. To encourage the students participation in the search for alternative solutions for the problems of the community.

7. To develop in the students and in the members of the community a positive attitude toward the defense and preservation of the environment.
8. To stimulate the interaction between members of the educational community and other institutions and organizations within the community with the aim of reaching an integration for the solution of common problems.
9. To reinforce in the students and other members of the community, the creation of habits and recreation and social interaction.
10. To promote in the students and in the rest of the community a responsible attitude concerning habits of consumption, the proper use of public services and the knowledge and proper use of rules and laws for the protection of people.
11. To participate in the organization of cooperatives and other enterprises of the community.
12. To interpret critically the influence of the mass-media in the process of education and in the behavior of the members of the community.
13. To promote concrete actions among the community to analyze the influence of mass-media.
14. To promote the participation of other educators in order to encourage the consolidation of a sense of unity in the professional field (Ibid., p. 10).

"Either a program has the consequences of integrating prospective teachers into the logic of the present social order or it serves to promote a situation where future teachers can deal critically with that reality in order to improve it" (Beyer and Zeichner, 1987, p. 312). A mixture of both was part of this plan of study design. On one hand, it supported the status quo, on the other hand, it suggested an axiological framework to move teacher education as an agency of change in society.

The pedagogical functions and the basic competencies established principles of rationality for guiding teacher conduct. For example, as student-teachers participate in the program, they learn what type of

pedagogical functions are expected from them, how to organize school knowledge, how to evaluate knowledge, and a language for dealing with teaching-learning encounters and educational realities. The way that teachers and prospective teachers understand the pedagogical functions, the nature of knowledge, power, language, etc., through teacher education will shape their acceptance or rejection of the teacher as either a technician or intellectual.

Some Critical Approximations. In Venezuela, the changes in basic teacher education were not an isolated process. Since the final days of the past century, and during the beginning of the Twentieth Century, the Venezuelan State has maintained direct control of primary teacher education. By decree in 1893, the Normal School for Women was created. In 1913 the Normal School for Men was founded. In 1963, normal schools extended their plans of study from four years to five. Some liceos (high schools) offered a "bachillerato docente." This was a five year program designed as part of diversified high schools. In 1936, the National Pedagogical Institute was created to prepare secondary teachers. In 1953, the Universidad Central de Venezuela opened the Faculty of Education to lead the country in teacher education. Endeavors of this kind were followed later for many of the autonomous universities, private universities, and experimental universities (UPEL, 1984b).

In 1983, Resolution 12 of the law legislated that the institutions of teacher education should orient their objectives to the preparation of a professional:

- Having the characteristics and personal attitudes that will allow him to interpret and fully accomplish his/her

roll in the community, and to serve as a model for the Venezuelan population.

- In good knowledge of the educational and national reality and able to comprehend the relations existing between the educational sector and the social, economic, political and cultural factors of the country, region or community in which the educator is involved, in order to act upon those factors and overcome their deficiencies, confronting the problems with a positive attitude and to offer possible solutions.
- In capacity to research, interpret and comprehend the teaching-learning, processes, in such a way that he/she can select and use the strategies, methods, techniques and resources to the nature of the learning situations, in order to reach the fundamental objective of his/her educative action.
- Well prepared to master and use the theory and the practice of his/her general knowledge and also of the specific knowledge of his/her area of specialization.
- In capacity to propose adequate alternatives for the solution of educational problems, and to use strategies and methodologies congruent with the historical moment and with the characteristics of the environment in which he/she is involved.
- Aware of the need to create incentives for the students to encourage them to participate nationally and actively in the development of the country or region, and to propose solutions for their own school problems, vocational and personal problems and for the problems of their community in particular.
- Conscious of the fact that the process of education in which he/she is involved should be oriented toward an attitude of openness and expectancy to the changes, given the dynamic circumstances of society.
- In capacity to contribute to the preparation of agents of change and future makers, who at their turn, should be conscious that this future is the result of a human and social action, and therefore it is not a given fact but should be created (Ministerio de Educacion, Resolution 12, 1983, pp. 1).

Thus, "Schools create competencies; they also create and procreate a public knowledge; this knowledge has a political function" (Matthews, 1980, p. 185). In regard to basic teacher education, the political

function was to create and procreate a set of democratic values.

In accordance with the Resolution 12, the plan of study design stated the competencies and knowledge that teachers should demonstrate in their performance as educators.

Those competencies and knowledge were:

1. Base his/her educational action upon the aims, principles and guidances of the Venezuelan Education, especially in the level in which he/she is involved. The educator should also base his/her action upon the conception of the learner as a biopsico-social element with the finality of encouraging his/her integral education.
2. Stimulate in the students their appreciation of the historical and socio-cultural values of their country, which are supported by the principle of national identify.
3. Conceive the processes of design, execution and evaluation of the educational action within an organic and functional way; basing his/her action upon the different theories of learning, instruction, and development of man.
4. Generate situations that will allow in the students the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values relative to the scientific, technological and humanistic fields.
5. Serve as an efficient model in the correct use of the Spanish language in all of its expressions.
6. Promote in the students the development of creativity, auto-learning, the transfer of knowledge, skills, attitudes and the outgrowing of values positive for their development as students and as members of a democratic society.
7. Encourage among the students a feeling of confidence to stimulate their effective learning.
8. Rationalize the use of resources for the learning process according to the instructional objectives and according to the school environment.
9. Base his/her decision-making upon the results of systematic evaluation procedures (Informe. Bloque Comun Homologado, 1985, pp. 5-6).

In Venezuela, the politics of education are stated in the National Constitution of 1961, in the Organic Law of Education of 1980, and since 1961 in a series of National Plans. Article 80 of Venezuela's Constitution established: "The aim of education is the full development of personality, the formation of citizens equipped for life and for democracy, who will be able to contribute to our cultural tradition and further a spirit of human solidarity." Consequently, the political aim is the formation of the Venezuelan citizens equipped for democracy and able to contribute to the Venezuelan cultural tradition.

The Fourth National Plan of 1970-74 included among its political functions:

The creation of a democratic and responsible society in which each person can find more conditions and possibilities which are favorable to his liberation and maturing. It is therefore indispensable for education to place itself in the historical process of social transformation, in order to accelerate this process. In this way, in addition to its transcendental and universal content, it must also contribute to the training of a critical awareness which encourages the creation and spreading of innovations and then becomes a means of personal and social promotion, helpful to the establishment of social and just order (Cited in V. Heredia de Hernandez, 1978, p. 119).

The Sixth National Plan of 1984-88, in its Strategic Project No. 10 (Ministerio de Educacion, 1985d), defined the plan of the educational sector through three global strategies: (1) A strategy of economic development to liberate the productive forces; (2) A social strategy to advance to a more just society; (3) A political strategy that assumes the task of deepening the democracy. Teacher education was part of those strategies.

Education was conceived in relationship with the development of the productive forces and democratic socialization. Thus, schooling

has the function of ideological and economic reproduction of the values and conditions to liberate the productive forces and promote a democratic system. Education has the function of social transformation as a political act.

The curriculum should seek a connection with the social and economic reality of the country. In order to legitimate such educational policy, widespread participation and discussion of educational issues are necessary.

In regard to curriculum design, the Sixth National Plan proposed that the fundamental objective of curriculum design (as conceived by the State) was to incorporate the development of abilities and skills related with the characteristics of productive apparatus at local and/or regional levels. It also pointed out that it has to reinforce this knowledge that links the students to his or her social context such as history, folklore, health care and environmental conservation.

At greater length Article 2 and 3 of the Organic Law of Education declared respectively that education is the State's main and undecidable function. In addition the right to education was conceived as undeniable and permanent to the individual. Article 3 pointed out that the main function of education is to promote the development of a educated and critical individual capable of making his/her own judgment and able to live in a democratic society. This individual must also be capable to actively and consciously participate in the processes of social transformation in accordance with national values and interests.

The commitment to democratic education has historical antecedents. For instance, as part of the declaration of "The Regional Conference of

Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning of Member States in Latin America and the Caribbean", convened by UNESCO with the cooperation of the Organization of American States and held in Mexico City in December 1979, Venezuela, among other clauses, approved:

- Provide a minimum of eight to ten years general education and establish as their goal to incorporate all children of school age in the system not later than 1999, in accordance with national education policies;
- Allocate increasingly substantial budgets to education until not less than seven or eight percent of the gross national product is earmarked for educational purposes, with the aim of making up for the existing shortfall and of ensuring that education will make a full contribution to development and become the driving force behind it;
- Give highest priority to providing for the least privileged population groups, who mainly live in rural and suburban areas and whose condition calls for urgent action and the provision of a variety of opportunities in keeping with their real-life situations, with the aim of surmounting the considerable differences in living conditions still existing between them and other groups.
- Undertake the necessary reforms which will ensure that education takes into account the features, needs, aspirations and cultural values of every people, and which will give impetus to and renovate science teaching and will be instrumental in forging closer links between education systems and the world of work;
- Adopt effective measures for renovating systems for the training of teachers, prior to, and following their qualifications, in order to provide them with the possibility of adding to and updating their stock of knowledge and teaching capability;
- Assist teachers in economic and social terms by creating working conditions that will ensure that they enjoy a position in keeping with their social importance and professional dignity;
- Ensure, by viewing economic growth within the broader context of social development, that educational planning is closely linked to the economic, social and overall planning of each country;
- Ensure that educational planning promotes the participation and incorporation of all groups and institutions

involved in one way or another in both formal and non-formal educational endeavors;

- Ensure educational organization and administration in keeping with new requirements which, in most countries of the region, demand greater decentralization of decision-making and organizational processes, greater flexibility as a means of ensuring multi-sectoral action and lines of emphasis that will provide an incentive to innovation and change (Mexico, D. F., 13 December 1979).

In spite of the efforts to achieve the goals of the Declaration of Mexico, there were not significant improvements in quality in the educational system, as is reflected in the following resume:

The actual population between four and six years of age has been estimated at 1,287,060, of which only 50% attend school. The population between seven and twelve has been estimated at 2,384,717, of which 86% attend school. There are 1,173,800 young people between 13 and 15 years old, of which 62.9% receive education. Thus, approximately 334,000 children between seven and twelve years and 439,000 youth between 13 and 15 years are outside the education system, the highest proportion of them being in the rural and marginal urban sectors.

In primary education (one to six years of age) the dropout rate is about 8.8%, and in secondary education it rises to 16%. As one goes from one grade to another, the number of students that continue their education decreases. It has been estimated that out of every 100 students who entered the 1st grade, only 39 passed beyond the 9th grade.

The percentage of teachers in primary education without the required qualifications is 18.5% and 48% of the instructors in secondary education do not have their higher education certificates.

According to the Minutes and Account of the Ministry of Education, for the school year 1982-83 there existed in the country 12,900 schools of basic education (grades 1-9) at which 2,660,440 students were enrolled in grades 1-6 and 710,379 students in grades 7-9. For the students in grades 1-6 there were 100,681 teachers; enrollment at this level showed an increase of 2.7 percent (69,389 students) compared with the previous year. The average annual increase rate for the decade 1973-1983 was 3.6 percent.

For the same school year (1982-83) the number of pupils repeating a grade in grades 1-6 was 265,328, representing virtually 10 percent of the total enrollment in these grades.

The number of drop-outs totaled 136,549, a percentage rate of 5.3; for grades 7-9 enrollment increased by 6.3 percent (55,446 students) with an average annual increase rate for the decade 1979-1983 of 5.4 percent.

For the diversified secondary education (grades 10-12) there existed for the year 1982-83 some 2,226 schools at which 229,299 students enrolled (included are those students in grades 7-9 who attended the same premises) and who were taught by some 84,341 teachers.

Higher education is composed of two sub-levels: the universities, institutes and colleges which offer short-term courses (two to three years), and universities which offer long-term courses (four, five or six years). At this level, enrollment has increased tremendously. In 1970-71 there were 85,675 students and in 1980 312,000 students were estimated to have enrolled in 60 institutions. Most of them (79.3%) enrolled in the long-term courses offered by universities, which consume 40% of the total education budget.

Finally, when all the levels were considered, it was found that in 1979-80, 4,341,985 pupils were in the educational system. This means that more than 25% of the total population is receiving formal education (Valbuena Paz, 1986, pp. 230-231).

Problems of quality and quantity are not easy to be solved by resolutions, decrees and laws. This traditional pattern must be improved by promoting teacher participation as part of decision-making.

Behind this profile, a centralized decision-making process exists. Luis B. Prieto, one of the builders of democracy in Venezuela and ex-ministry of education, stated that:

The extreme centralization of functions and responsibilities is a sickness in our administrative processes; nothing happens without the approval of the minister (of education) or the president. No individual supervisor dares to take action even though it is within his authority, for fear that it will be disapproved by his superior . . . The result is a strangulation of administrative actions (cited in E. Mark Hanson, 1986, p. 10).

In terms of curricula, education was also centralized. The Center for Administrative and Social Research of the Venezuelan School of

Public Administration concluded:

With respect to the teaching process, the organizational hierarchy leaves no room for anyone (at lower levels) to select alternatives of action designed to achieve a specific goal, or to establish any goals. The directives go from the Ministry of Education to the regional supervisor and from him to the district and rural supervisors (officials who function as district supervisors in rural areas), who in turn transmit them to the school directors and teachers. The lines of authority are completely defined; all the plans, programs, and evaluation methods are elaborated at the top of the organization and information regarding them is transmitted from one level to another. All members of the school community are expected to conform (cited in E. Mark Hanson, 1986, p. 117).

Under this highly centralized system of control a national plan of study of teacher education had a function of curricula control and accreditation of teachers. "In this centralised [sic.] system the role of the teacher is often seen as no more than that of an intermediary between centralised [sic.] expertise and the pupil" (Cowen and McLean, 1984, p. 817).

The political function of control of teacher education, not only within the institutions run by the state but also within the autonomous universities, was a fact because both types of institutions rely on the support of the state for approval of their teacher education programs. The autonomous universities are compelled to accept the functions attached to teacher education by the law and by Resolution 12 if they want to offer teacher education programs. Schneider (1987) traced that:

Once schools of education relied on the support of state education agencies for recognition and approval of their teacher education programs, they were compelled to accept the role and authority of the state in order to justify their own existence (p. 215).

This is a dilemma that is political in nature rather than technical. Implicit and explicit rules and regulations of control are subtly inculcated to carry out managerial practices. Again, any discourse about values and beliefs on what can or should be done in teacher education are neglected and denied. At the individual level of the teacher there arises a sense of powerlessness and alienation.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the curriculum design followed by basic teacher education and the political and pedagogical functions attributed to teachers in the Venezuelan educational system.

The plan of study design of basic teacher education followed a subject-structure curriculum under four curricular components: General education, pedagogic formation, specialized formation, and professional practice. The locus of decision making in this plan of study design has been the Ministry of Education and the Universidad Pedagógica Experimental Libertador (UPEL).

Article 77 of the Organic Law of Education legislated the following teachers' functions: Teaching, counseling, planning, research, experimentation, evaluation, direction, supervision and administration. At the level of the plan of study design of basic teacher education it was possible to identify four functions: Facilitator of learning experiences, counselor, researcher and social promoter of change.

These functions suggested an axiological framework to move teacher education as an agency of change in the Venezuelan society. However, the separation of curriculum design (conception) from curriculum

implementation (execution) may promote a logic of control in teacher education. The technical emphasis on percentages, credit units, subject-matter structure and competencies may defuse the spirit of the Organic Law of Education in creating a more egalitarian and participant education in Venezuela.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study was concerned with the plan of study design of basic teacher education in Venezuela. The review of the literature showed: the need for methodological pluralism to promote insights and dialogue among different philosophies of education, the metaphorical roots of curriculum design, recent proposals of teacher education, and some thoughts on curriculum theorizing. In addition to the curriculum design followed by the plan of study, the political and pedagogical functions of the teachers were addressed.

Findings

1. The participants in the curriculum design task were the "Comite Ejecutivo de Formacion Docente" integrated by members of the Bureau of Education and the Vice-rectors of the Universidad Pedagogica Experimental Libertador. Twenty-one institutions of higher education also participated in the plan of study design.

2. The focus of decision-making had been the Ministry of Education and the Universidad Pedagogica Experimental Libertador.

3. The plan of study design was structured by Resolution 12 in four curricular components: General Education, Pedagogic Formation,

Specialized Formation, and Professional Practice. The resolution established the following percentages of credit units by components.

- General Education 15 to 18%
- Pedagogic Formation 27 to 29%
- Specialized Formation 27 to 29%
- Professional Practice 15 to 18%

The plan of study design followed the above structure under a subject-structured curriculum.

4. The subject-structured curriculum rested on division of values (conception and execution of curriculum), authority (official curriculum committees), and fixed subject matter content.

5. Article 77 of the Organic Law of Education pointed out the pedagogical function of teaching, orientation, planning, research, experimentation, evaluation, direction, supervision and administration. In the plan of study design four political and pedagogical functions can be identified: The teacher as a facilitator, counselor, researcher and social promoter.

Conclusions

1. Official curriculum committees designed the plan of study. Those committees were formed by curriculum specialists and content specialists as curriculum designers. The separation of curriculum design (conception) from curriculum implementation (execution) may promote a logic of control in teacher education.

2. The design of curriculum of teacher education was centralized.

3. The plan of study design (functions and competencies),

suggested an axiological framework to conceive teacher education as an agency of change in society. The curriculum design was not neutral. The curriculum design of the plan of study of the Licenciado or Profesor in Integral Education had the commitment to ideas of liberation. However, it presented an implicit function of control. "Not being neutral, education must be either liberating or domesticating. (Yet I [Freire] also recognize that we probably never experience it as purely one or the other but rather a mixture of both.)" (Freire, 1985, p. 17).

Recommendations

Based on this study, the following questions are proposed for further research:

1. Does the way the plan of study of basic teacher education and courses are designed and sequenced affect student-teachers learning?
2. What are the student-teachers' perceptions of their plan of study design?
3. Is there a relationship between preparation and practice in basic teacher education?
4. How do the different curricular components of the plan of study design interact?

The following policy recommendations are also suggested to administrators and curriculum designers:

1. Participatory involvement of instructors in designing teacher education and in serving as policy advisors. Teacher involvement is essential in itself to generate a participatory democracy in teacher education.

2. Place teacher education into its setting (school-focused rather than university-focused) through clinical experiences in schools of professional education.
3. Strengthen all four components of teacher education: general education, pedagogic formation, specialized formation, and professional practice, through close cooperation among academic departments and faculties of education.
4. Development of teacher education as a process of intervention to promote the democratic system.
5. Decentralization of the curriculum design process by encouraging the political, technical and administrative climate for local curriculum design process.
6. Teacher education should consider the culture, language, history, politics, and themes of student-teachers.
7. Involvement of basic schools with faculties of education in the preparation of teachers.

If we are willing to try an emancipatory and democratic curriculum in the preparation of teachers, it will be necessary also to analyze the language of schooling, the way knowledge is structured, and the taken from granted images of teacher education. Teacher education should help participants to view and analyze the above areas from diverse philosophical perspectives. However, the chosen perspective should have a commitment to ideas of enhancing the democratic process in Venezuela. In this sense, education must be seen as a continuous process of democratic change in the total learning society. At the personal level, teacher education should encourage and enhance the growth of human being's potential for knowing, thinking, feeling, caring,

choosing and acting--as the base for school and society renewal and change.

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