

An Outline of the Historical Development of the
Education Systems of Chile, Peru and Venezuela
and some Implications for their Harmonization
According to the Guidelines of the Andres Bello
Agreement

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is all my own work and has been composed entirely by me.

Pablo Costa

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I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Nigel Grant and Dr. Leonel Valdivia who supervised this essay. Also to my wife Rony for her encouragement and support.

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GOPWI

Venezuelan Christian Democratic Party

ADV

Venezuelan Democratic Action Party

APRA

Peruvian Revolutionary Alliance Party

ABBREVIATIONS

ABA	Andres Bello Agreement
LAFTA	Latin American Free Trade Association
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ECLA	Economic Commission for Latin America
OAS	Organization of American States
ILO	International Labour Organization
CONESCAL	Latin American Centre for School Building
CUT	Chilean TUC
SUTE	Chilean Teachers' Union
SUTEP	Peruvian Teachers' Union
ESSEP	Superior School for Professional Education
SECPANE	Peruvian-North American Cooperative Educational Service
COPEI	Venezuelan Christian Democratic Party
ADV	Venezuelan Democratic Action Party
APRA	Peruvian Revolutionary Alliance Party

ABSTRACT

In the Latin American context several economic integrationist processes have arisen during the last two decades, which seek to consolidate economic and political unity as well as search for a new international order. To this end the Latin American Free Trade Association, the Central American Common Market, the Caribbean Free Trade Association and the Andean Pact or Agreement of Cartagena signed by Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Perú and Venezuela were instituted. On 30th June 1969 the Andrés Bello Agreement (ABA) was signed. It resulted from wishes to reinforce the integrationist economic efforts of the Andean Pact through culture, education and science. The ABA sees the integration of the educational systems of the signatory countries as a key element in pursuit of complete integration.

Through the study of the historical development of the educational systems of Chile, Perú and Venezuela, this essay examines the extent to which it is possible to achieve educational integration and the steps taken towards the goal. The first chapter describes the Andrés Bello Agreement, its origins, content and organization. Since it would not be possible to analyse and comment on the ABA without describing the economic integrationist efforts made at Latin American and Andean level, an attempt to do so is also included in this chapter. Chapters II, III and IV are devoted to Chile, Perú and Venezuela. Chile was selected because several issues make this nation different from other Andean countries. It has an apparently higher level of economic development and its education system appears to be more developed thanks to the liberal democracy established in the last century. Other factors peculiar to Chile are the introduction of educational reforms modelled on French, German and United States patterns, and its less severe bilingual educational problem.

Most of the problems related to underdevelopment, poverty and

deprivation are concentrated in Perú's socioeconomic and political life. There is a high rate of illiteracy, unbalanced economic development, poor sanitary and health conditions and so on. There are also over a million of "quechua" speakers most of whom are peasants still using Inca methods of irrigation and cultivation. In modern times Perú has been characterized as a violent country, whose typical form of government has been military dictatorships and whose educational advance has been minimal. In 1968 the Armed Forces took control of the country once again. This time several social reforms were introduced, among them a Educational Reform that seeks to solve the Peruvian educational problems with a different approach. The setting of this reform and its possible influence in the Andean Region have motivated me to choose Perú.

Chapter IV is devoted to Venezuela, whose oil wealth, the overthrow of the dictatorship and the establishment of a democracy have been the main features during the last fifty years of this country's socioeconomic life. The exploitation of oil and other raw materials have allowed Venezuela to experience a fast rate of economic growth. But despite this economic growth and its resultant higher income per capita, the more severe problems concerned with underdevelopment remain unsolved. A considerable number of illiterates, a low school average, as well as a considerable pupil drop out, made of Venezuela an example of the problems that face the educational systems attempted to be integrated by the ABA. Chapter V describes and analyses the actual feasibility of integration of the Andean Region educational systems. Finally, some conclusions and recommendations are made in Chapter VI.

(1) Centro Latinoamericano de Demografía.
Boletín Demográfico.
América Latina, porcentaje de población en edad escolar.
Años 1970, 1980, 1990, y 2000.
Año IX, No. 18, Santiago - Chile 1974.

(2) Semi Documentos Páscaros.
Ediciones de Ministerio de Educación de los Países
Signatarios del Convenio Interamericano 1970-1971.
Ministerio de Educación, Dirección de Administración
Caracas/Venezuela 1971.

INTRODUCTION

The Andean mountains constitute the most important geographical factor affecting the daily life of the people of Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Perú and Venezuela. The Andean chain of mountains separates these countries facing the Pacific Ocean from their Atlantic facing neighbours. Eighty-five million⁽¹⁾ people live between the valleys, basins and slopes of the several "cordilleras" which constitute the backbone of the continent. It has been called the "Andean Region" for many years by scholars, geographers and economists. Cultural links from the pre-hispanic and post-hispanic period have to a certain extent been retained by these countries, the language being the principal one. Although these countries have much in common, their education systems, because of the Spanish heritage have developed along similar lines some factors have contributed to differences between them. Thus the indigenous influence in the setting up of the nation is not the same in every country, the geographical unity of the area is far from complete, and communication between them is difficult. There are also significant sociopolitical differences. However, they have signed a treaty that sees scientific, cultural and educational integration as a key factor in improving the spiritual and material welfare of the Andean people.⁽²⁾

The ABA treaty does not specify in any of its documents, what actually the signatory countries understand for educational integration. Nonetheless, as part of it they identify: (a) the recognition of the primary and secondary education, (b) the recognition of trades and professions acquired outside the educational system, (c) the setting of an educational statistical centre, (d) the planning of education and scientific research in agreement

- (1) Centro Latinoamericano de Demografía.
Boletín Demográfico.
América Latina, porcentaje de población urbana y rural;
Años 1970, 1980, 1990, y 2000.
Año IX, No. 18, Santiago - Chile 1976.
- (2) See: Documentos Básicos.
Reuniones de Ministros de Educación de los Países
Signatorios del Convenio Andrés Bello 1970-1975.
Ministerio de Educación/Dirección de Administración
Caracas/Venezuela 1975.

with the needs of the Andean Region and (e) the revision of history programmes as key elements in achieving the harmonization of the educational systems. The essay that follows tries to describe and analyse the feasibility of integration of the educational systems among the Andean countries in the light of the historical development of their education. At the same time it tries to see whether or not the educational integrationist efforts are steps forwards to achieve full integration.

Despite the fact that the ABA is an international treaty, no documents have yet been produced in English. For this reason I have found it an advantage to be an Andean citizen as almost all the literature regarding the subject is available only in Spanish. Therefore most of the quotations are translations. It has been difficult for me to obtain material concerning countries such as Ecuador and Bolivia even in the libraries of international institutions such as UNESCO in Paris and the International Bureau of Education in Geneva. However, some general information was gathered through the various U.K. libraries.

Agreements:

- To foster the development of friendly relations;
- To apply education, science and culture to improve the living standards of the peoples involved;
- To preserve individual values and to develop cultural communication among the signatory countries;
- To favour all the cultural activities, as well as to make agreements on the publishing and distribution of books, culture, tourism, etc.

The ABA has become the educational, cultural and scientific

(1) Convenio Andrés Bello
"Resoluciones de la Junta Ejecutiva
Secretaría Ejecutiva Paraguaya
Sachb, 1976
Bogotá, 1974.

CHAPTER I

THE ANDRES BELLO AGREEMENT

1. AIMS AND ORGANIZATION

On 30th June 1969 at the meeting of the Interamerican Cultural Council organized by the Organization of American States (OAS) the Ministers of Education of Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Perú and Venezuela signed the Declaration of Puerto España. It stated that they would endeavour to achieve integration in the field of education, culture and science.

In January 1970, the first meeting of the Ministers of Education of the Andean Region was held in Bogota (Colombia). At this meeting the Declaration of Puerto España was ratified and the ABA was created. The Agreement is a Treaty of International Public Law signed by the governments of Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Perú and Venezuela, with the view to achieving the integration of their efforts in education, culture and science. To this general aim should be added the following specific aims stated in Article Number III of the Agreement:

- "To foster the development of mutual knowledge and friendship.
- To apply education, science and technology in order to improve the living standards of the countries involved.
- To preserve individual culture and to intensify cultural communication among the signatory countries.
- To favour all the cultural initiatives, as well as to make agreements on the publishing and distribution of books, culture, tourism, etc."(1)

The ABA has become the educational, cultural and scientific

(1) Convenio Andrés Bello
"Resoluciones de su Organó Maximo
Secretaría Ejecutiva Permanente
Secab. 1974
Bogotá 1974.

expression of the economic integration sought by the Andean countries through Cartagena Agreement or Andean Pact.⁽²⁾ This was signed in 1969 as a result of difficulties in operation and infrastructure which could not be solved by LAFTA.⁽³⁾

Several Education Ministers' meetings were held between 1969 and 1978 and a considerable number of seminars and conferences have been convened by educational officials of the member countries. These meetings have taken place to implement the actions agreed by the meeting of Education Ministers.

The highest directive body of ABA is the Meeting of Education Ministers, where policy decisions and resolutions are made. A Committee of Chief Educational Planning of Education Ministers of every country acts as an Advisory body.

In order to coordinate and administer the Agreement, the Executive Secretariat of ABA was created, with its headquarters in Bogota (Colombia).

The main spheres of action of the Executive Secretariat can be summarised as follows:

- (a) To study the different aspects related to the implementation of the Agreement, as well as to propose solutions at the request of the Meeting of Education Ministers.
- (b) To coordinate the activities of the various bodies of the Agreement.
- (c) To administer the Agreement and to achieve the Annual Work Plan.
- (d) To serve as link body between the Agreement and International Educational Agencies.

(2) See Appendix No. 3.

(3) Although Chile signed as a member of the Andean Pact, it resigned from it in 1976, because its policy regarding external investment was against Decision No. 24 of the Treaty, that established common and equal policies to deal with external investors. This did not mean Chile's resignation from ABA.

The Executive Secretariat is headed by an Executive Secretary appointed for two years by the Education Minister's Meeting.

Several Commissions and Committees were established to be the coordination mechanism, the more important among them being the Commission of Science and Technology, the School Construction Building Commission, and the Teleeducation Commission. There is a Mixed Commission comprising Officials of the Education Ministry and officials of the Foreign Ministry and representatives of the Embassies of the member countries.

The integrationist efforts sought by the ABA in its manifesto can be grouped in four distinct but interconnected categories.

These are:

(a) Actions to diffuse mutual knowledge and to promote tourism

This area of action seems to be closely related to the main aim of the Agreement and among the more important moves towards this are:

- (a) The exemption from visa requirements of visitors belonging to member nations involved in the Agreement,
- (b) to waive taxes on cultural products coming in or out of the nations involved in the Agreement,
- (c) the establishment of institutes in charge of spreading the Andean culture of every country,
- (d) extending the availability of Andean literature by the creation of libraries,
- (e) the teaching of history, geography, economics, art and folklore of the member countries in schools.

To put these ideals into practice would be a great advance in the fostering of mutual friendship and communication among Andean nations. However, in practice difficulties have been met. For example, the entry and exit of visitors is subject to control by the legislation of every country which did not immediately change

its arrangements for this as specified by the Agreement. The ideals of ABA were pursued although delays and problems were encountered since some officials applied their own criteria. The creation of institutes of cultural development and libraries to distribute Andean literature depends very much on the Education Ministries, whose budgetary priorities are to develop formal education rather than carrying out the aims of the Agreement.

(b) Actions leading to Technical Cooperation

This set of actions has a technical character and therefore has been predominantly a field where specialists are called for. The conclusion drawn from these meetings have allowed the Agreement to be extended to fields hitherto neglected. The principal intention of such cooperation is to collaborate in those sections and areas that require technical assistance where there is one country with expertise superior to the others. Very important cooperation schemes have been developed. For example, in the area of educational costing,⁽⁴⁾ the advice offered by Venezuela to the other countries has been useful. In the same way, Colombia has established in Bolivia and Chile an institution similar to its own Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior (Colombian Scholarship Programme in Overseas Countries).

Several studies have been produced reflecting the exchange of expertise, such as the "Estudio de Factibilidad de un Sistema de Satélite de Comunicaciones para Fines Educativos y Culturales de la Región Andina" which is a project to study the possibilities of a satellite system for cultural communication with the Andean area. "The Grupo Regional de Trabajo sobre Texto Escolares" is the project of a working party on school books. "La Escuela Empresarial Andina" an Andean Managerial School are among several other projects.

- (4) Quinta Reunión de Ministros de Educación del Convenio Andrés Bello.
Acuerdos y Resoluciones
La Paz 1974.

(c) Actions attempting to harmonize the educational systems

The decisions involved here belong to Chapter IV of the ABA, in which the signatory countries agreed to:

"To recognize the Primary Education in any of the member countries.

To establish an equivalence procedure in order to recognize the studies done at Secondary level whether finished or unfinished, so that they could be continued or finished anywhere within the region.

To recommend to the Higher Education institutions of the Andean countries the reciprocal conditions of entry at the Universities for students from other signatory countries.

To organize the arrangements necessary to recognize within the level of abilities and knowledge acquired in non formal activities and to establish a system that allows enrolment in the corresponding formal educational set up.

To establish a system for collecting and processing statistics.

To plan science and other educational agreements according to the needs of the region and to state these aims in the process of economic integration.

To examine the teaching of history as a way to reinforce the solidarity and links among the member countries."(5)

As far as the harmonization of the educational systems is concerned, from the first meeting of Education Ministers held in Bogotá in 1970, the member countries have tried to bring this into effect with the implementation of projects, plans and programmes either by the individual action of a single country or by common actions as can be seen in Appendix No. 2.

(d) Common actions

Chapter V of the Agreement seeks to put into practice a series of common actions understood as elementals and complementaries, with the aim of reinforcing the process of integration including such publications as, "The Publishing of the Educational Systems", "The Formation of an Editorial Fund", and "The Linking of the Agreement with International Institutions". However, as a result of the bureaucracy and the lack of finance, a certain number of actions

(5) Convenio Andrés Bello

Capítulo IV; Artículos XXI; XXII; XXIII; XIV and XXV.

Reuniones de los Ministros de Educación del Convenio Andrés Bello. Serie Documentos No. 2.

Ministerio de Educación de Venezuela
Caracas 1975.

have not been implemented, largely because the declarations and statements of the Agreement are too ambitious.

"The Lima Declaration" (1971) and "The Caracas Consensus" (1973) express the fundamental aims of the ABA as being the re-affirmation of the cultural independence of the Andean people. They also expressed the need to define doctrinary principles in order to overcome the influence of alien cultural values which are the main obstacle to the realization of deep and real structural changes.

The Lima Declaration further states that:

"Up to now the educational systems have served to perpetuate the dominant economic structure. For this reason, the task of education is to make students aware of the oppressive social structure in which they are immersed and to show them their power to break such a system. It is therefore necessary to equip every member of the Andean community with a knowledge whose content should not be dogmatic but should enable them to participate fully in the construction of a new society. The importation of science and technology exacerbates the condition of dependency. Thus cultural independence requires the establishment of a policy of restriction of technological transference as well as an appropriate scientific and technological research policy adequate to the Andean Region."(6)

The Lima Declaration also calls attention to the fact that integration of the Andean countries is really a re-integration since they share a common cultural past.(7) Therefore, they stress the shared nature of the historical, geographical and cultural community.

The Andean countries, it points out

"are affected by problems in the field of education and culture, especially the inefficiency of the educational services, the exclusion of a large section of the

- (6) Convenio Andrés Bello
Declaración de Lima
Segunda Reunión. Resoluciones Aprobadas, p.15.
Bogotá 1971.
- (7) Before the Spaniards' arrival the Incas dominated military, culturally and politically the present day territories of Perú, Bolivia, Ecuador, South Colombia and Northern Chile.

(8) Declaración de Lima, 1971.

population from education and culture, the trend to imitate, the indiscriminatory acceptance of foreign ideas and values, which are incompatible with the personality and the historical context of these countries."(8)

It emphasises that these problems are linked with the socioeconomic structure in which man is the object of a development and not the subject. Therefore, the educational policies are valid only if they seek to involve the participation of the large majorities.

In the Meeting that approved the Lima Declaration the ABA countries agreed that the following principles should be the guidelines under which the Agreement would work:

- a) "The educational reforms should be implemented as a part of a policy of integral socio-economic transformation and their aims should be the conditions that provide for the participation of the people within a social process that overcomes dependency. The educational reform should contribute to invalidate the socioeconomic of dependency; they cannot be limited to be just the modernization of methods and pedagogical equipment.
- b) An adequate cultural policy should establish the bases of a new creative action in the field of effective national and international collaboration.
- c) The scientific and technological policy should orientate the national action in the field towards the creation, the development and the full utilization of the scientific and technological knowledge available in a way that these can be used as weapons for the economic and social development of the Andean Region.
- d) The importation of cultural values and the indiscriminate adoption of all forms of technology should be replaced by a policy of active encouragement of creative talents by selective use and assimilating those cultural values which allow the Andean countries to keep in close touch with the advances in knowledge, and at the same time to guard against unproductive imitation and the concomitant danger of losing what unique qualities they possess.

(8) Declaración de Lima, *ibid.*

- e) The educational, scientific and cultural policy should aim at the active participation of the people simultaneously creating conditions which will discourage actions that threaten the national sovereignty."(9)

At the Fourth Meeting of Education Ministers, held in Caracas, the statement known as "The Caracas Consensus" was approved, thereby establishing policies to be taken into account in the application of educational reforms. Resolution 21 of this meeting re-states the principles laid down at the Lima Declaration and recommend that educational reforms should be conceived within the concept of life-long education.(10)

Without doubt the philosophical principles of the ABA seems to be rather theoretical. They are fully committed to the policies of governments that at the beginning of the seventies sought the nationalistic approach as the way of developing their countries under policies stated as non capitalist, and non communist but nationalistic and committed to the development of the Andean Region.

The part that follows involves study of those aspects concerned with educational integration, approved, executed or put into practice by the Agreement.

2. THE DEVELOPMENT OF FORMAL EDUCATION IN ANDEAN COUNTRIES

Formal education in the Andean countries began during the colonial period with the arrival of the first religious orders in the 16th century. It was the Jesuits and Dominicans who started the first primary schools as well as some secondary education, provided only for Spaniards and their sons. The curriculum involved reading, writing and some arithmetic.

(9) Declaración de Lima, *ibid.*

(10) Convenio Andrés Bello
Cuarta Reunión de Ministros de Educación
Acuerdos y Resoluciones, p.162
Caracas 1973.

During the early colonial period education had a religious orientation and was designed to maintain the Spanish monarchic structure, the privileges of the Church and the oligarchy represented by the landlords. Generally speaking, colonial education was religious, dogmatic and scholastic and it discriminated against the deprived sectors and women. Once independence was achieved some changes could be observed, mainly of a quantitative nature. Leaders such as Bolivar, San Martin and O'Higgins increased education by founding schools and colleges in town halls, monasteries, etc.⁽¹¹⁾ Educational systems were consolidated during 19th century, but education continued to be modelled on the Spanish and French systems. Several laws and decrees proclaimed education to be compulsory, but there were social sectors like the peasants or the Indians which were unable to benefit from it.

Twentieth century education has been characterized by the introduction of educational reforms that have increased the quantity of the education provided.

However, they have not satisfied demands. For instance in 1945, the educational reform that followed the overthrow of Gómez in Venezuela allowed a relative increase in primary, secondary, technical and higher education of 67%; 51%; 31.6% and 76% respectively in comparison with 1950.⁽¹²⁾ Likewise in Bolivia, the educational reforms introduced by the National Revolutionary Movement⁽¹³⁾ after twelve years has achieved a considerable increase in rural education: 38.2% of the rural population of school age was enrolled at school. This meant a 250% increase in comparison with 1951.

(11) See Chapters II, III and IV.

(12) Ministerio de Educación Pública de Venezuela
Anuario Estadístico 1951, p.10 Oficina Planeamiento Educación
Mineduc. Caracas, Venezuela.

(13) Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario (Nationalist Revolutionary Movement) was founded in 1940 by Victor Paz Extenssoro and Hernan Siles Suazo with a platform of social change and nationalism. In 1951, the MNR unexpectedly received the largest number of votes in the general election, but the takeover of the government by a military junta prevented the party from taking power at that time.

In 1963 the Education Ministers of every Latin American country met in Santiago in Chile and adopted the guidelines known as the Santiago Plan, that fixed as a target to be fulfilled in 1970, the goal of universal primary education. But, at the Conference of Bogota (Colombia) in 1964, the Santiago Plan was revised and its goal was postponed until 1975. Since then the Andean countries have been making efforts to fulfil this aim. The Alliance for Progress (see appendix No. 4) meant a considerable aid to resolve the educational problems. Although it did not mean an absolute solution to them, it increased the provision of education. For example in Chile in 1965⁽¹⁴⁾ the whole educational provision was increased by 60% that enabled education to be provided for 95% of the population of school age in primary and secondary schools. Regarding other spheres of education a great deal of this impetus is shown in the increase of the Escuelas Normales (Teacher Training Centres) in Peru⁽¹⁵⁾ and also in school building construction, repairing and so on. During the last 25 years every one of the Andean countries has introduced educational reforms with the aim of achieving universal primary education as well as changing the curriculum, e.g. the introduction of the Cuisinaire Methods in the syllabus of Mathematics in primary or modifications introduced in the teaching of reading and writing. However, the educational reforms of the Andean countries have been unable to solve the great majority of their educational problems which seem not to belong to education exclusively but to be closely associated with the state of underdevelopment.

The seventies saw the Andean countries as members of the ABA, with most of the educational problems still unsolved and still facing the task of the harmonization of their educational systems. Since

(14) Ministerio de Educación
Anuario Estadístico 1966
Mineduc. Santiago, Chile 1966.

(15) Paulston Rolland G.
"Society School and Progress in Peru"
Pergamon Press. New York-Oxford 1971, p.223.

its conception, the ABA was recognized as an International Treaty by its signatory countries and was in other words, on a par with the Andean Pact.

The signing of the Agreement and the declaration of its principles coincided with the development of nationalistic policies, represented within the Andean Region by the governments of Rafael Caldera in Venezuela, Salvador Allende in Chile, Juan Velasco Alvarado in Perú and the Revolutionary Government of the Armed Forces in Ecuador. The stress of these governments on nationalistic policies has left institutions like the Andean Pact or the ABA as a legacy that without being repealed by successive governments continues. However, in theory the successive governments could withdraw from them.

Chile, whose government resigned from the Andean Pact in 1976 as a consequence of the changes in its economic policies, specially its policy regarding external investment, could not be a member of a cultural, educational and scientific agreement that states that the economic and ideological dependence is the main cause of the poverty and deprivation of the lower strata of Andean society. The government of Juan Velasco Alvarado was overthrown by a "golpe blanco"⁽¹⁶⁾ and the new government seems to have changed the nationalistic policies stated by the former president as seems to have happened in Ecuador. The unstable, unsteady and always changeable political situation of the Andean countries makes of ABA a treaty full of contradictions.

The manifesto of ABA stresses popular participation in culture and education. But these democratic intentions seem not to be characteristic of those Andean countries whose governments past and present have been far from being democracies as the concept is popularly understood. All the governments are military dictatorship, except Colombia and Venezuela, although these two have a history of

(16) "Golpe Blanco". White Coup d'etat. It is defined as a coup d'etat in which the main participants are members of the former government. It is supposed that the coup d'etat aims to change the President and re-orientate the policies previously established. Generally, is given by military against military and without bloodshed.

violence and political turmoil.

Although the ABA does not define the concept of harmonization of the educational systems as it uses the term, its integrationist efforts have been projected towards the formal system of education.

Most of the agreements are concerned with the harmonization of school systems, plans and programmes, projects on educational costing and so on. This educational harmonization is sought by underdeveloped countries whose educational failures depend more on their socioeconomic conditions than on the educational structure itself. Although this highlights several problems of its own, such as excessive bureaucracy, the centralised decision-making process and the irrationality of the administrative process. For this reason whether the integration of the educational systems of the countries involved in ABA is or is not feasible is a question that requires to be examined in the light of fundamental differences in the educational systems attempting integration. These are reasons concerned with the state of underdevelopment of these countries, reasons related to the educational systems themselves, with their successes and failures, reasons concerned with the different social environments or simply local problems that ought to be considered in a process of multinational integration. In this way it appears that educational integration is a long term process and difficult to achieve in countries that face such deep problems as those related to underdevelopment.

In presenting an account of education in the Andean countries fundamental differences between them should not be ignored. Geographical location and land relief of South America have produced differences despite the common cultural heritage with which the peoples started. But despite the socioeconomic differences among the Andean countries they face some similar educational problems such as insufficient educational provision, high drop-out rate, low quality of education, inadequate teacher training, low enrolment

numbers, and so on. Generally speaking the Andean countries' educational systems face two principal problems. The first is their condition as developing countries and the second involves the structure of their educational systems and the quality and quantity of education they provide.

3. THE FEASIBILITY OF INTEGRATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS AMONG COUNTRIES INVOLVED IN THE ABA

As has been mentioned, the actions attempting to harmonize the educational systems are stated in Article IV of the Agreement in parts XXI; XXII; XXIII; XXIV and XXV. Each of these will be examined in turn.

Regarding part XXI, the countries agreed to recognize primary and secondary studies made in other member countries. However, the statement recommending the validation of titles and degrees given by the different universities of the region, has not been achieved due to the legislation regarding the subject not being similar in each of the countries. It is difficult to establish if the validation of titles and degrees is a step towards the harmonization of the educational systems. A move towards a common certification would contribute to the desired integration.

But it is necessary to ask who are the beneficiaries of a policy like this. Migration does not seem to be significant between Andean countries. Migration from Colombia to Venezuela was high during the sixties, due to the greater level of unemployment in the former, especially in the region of Santander, and the increased standard of living and work opportunity in the latter. Migration between Colombia and Ecuador seems to be low and between Bolivia and other countries practically nil, since most of the Bolivian emigrants go to Argentina and Brazil as a labour force to work mainly on the land.

As has been said, although the recognition of studies is a step towards reaching common certification, in practice, it seems to benefit only a minority. The validation of university degrees by government and private enterprises is a difficult barrier to overcome and agree with because it hides a serious socioeconomic problem which is an extreme example of the brain drain from the member countries, as most of the professionals and technicians would rather go to Venezuela⁽¹⁷⁾ and work there with better salaries and living conditions, or to go to other countries where economic development is expected such as Ecuador or Colombia whose oil industry is starting to boost those countries' economies.

Regarding the XXII part, concerned with the organization of mechanisms necessary to recognize the abilities and trades acquired in non formal studies, there has been a seminar to establish a certificate system within the framework of lifelong education. Also there are some recommendations given by the Third Meeting of Education Ministers, but these are early steps within a task that would take as long as people and institutions understand the importance of lifelong education. At the moment, the application of the lifelong education concept is still a dream, a project or an ideal only expressed but very difficult to achieve due to the impossibility of reforming education isolated from other social sectors. The poor schooling in the Andean region, the impossibility of achieving universal education, absenteeism by children prematurely working and the drop-out rate are likely to be related to low standard of living and to socioeconomic conditions rather than education itself.

The article XXIII established a uniform system to compile and process educational statistics. The project was undertaken by Peru

(17) See Bachmma Frank "Latin American Brain Drainage", p.426. Department of Economics, Indiana University Frederick Praeger Publishers, London.

which elaborated a scheme to gather the necessary statistical information within the area. The Statistic Centre has become one of the great successes of the Agreement. Although at the beginning there were difficulties with the implementation, most of them accepted that the lack of statistical resources brought about a need to supply this information to the centre in Peru. The efforts made on the subject are summarized in several publications, the best well known being Educational and Cultural Statistics of the Andean Region.

Article XXIV agreed to plan the educational, scientific and technological research in regard to the socioeconomic needs of the region, especially with the requirements of economic integration. As integration still is doubtful in these countries and the efforts made to achieve it have faced difficulties and problems, this seems to be one of the most difficult tasks to achieve. However, there are two institutions created by ABA to coordinate and plan scientific and technological investigation and to seek the means of attaining economic integration. These are the International Institute of Integration and the Andean Managerial School.

Article XXV is to review the history teaching programmes as a means of reinforcing the links of solidarity and integration among the countries. This is one of the most difficult problems to overcome. The reaffirmation of "national values" have constituted since the beginning of these republics, the main educational aim. It has also become the cornerstone of all the governments that have governed the Andean countries.

Unfortunately, the reaffirmation of the nationhood is generally emphasized in the adventures, courage, and feats of the national heroes rather than in the development of a national culture, or in the development of a national society. This is in evidence in every Andean country. e.g. "The Day of the Youth" in Chile, is

the anniversary of a battle in which a young group of soldiers lost their lives, in the Pacific War between Chile and Peru a century ago. Also in loyalty to "The Nation" and "The Flag" in Peru is the anniversary of a battle known as the "Morro de Arica" of the same type, where the Peruvian Army was defeated by the Chileans. The heroism of the fallen, their effort, the loyalty and so on are the leivmotiv and the annual spur; also the opportunity to reaffirm the government in office and the historical validity of its deeds (and it does not matter that this might be at the expense of a neighbouring country). To achieve the statement issued by the Agreement requires good will and aims that should be above national chauvinism, above the need to emphasize these kind of events.

The signatory countries of ABA have also tried to achieve the harmonization of their educational systems by joint or individual actions.⁽¹⁸⁾

Despite the efforts, a certain number of them have only been partially achieved or not achieved at all. Sometimes they have become a repetition of actions already done by other educational agencies. e.g. UNESCO that for years has been publishing an educational profile of every Latin American country. Therefore the task given to Colombia of editing a profile of Andean educational systems might well prove to be a repetition of efforts with wastage of both economic and human resources.

The work undertaken by Chile, namely the publishing of a national, economic and human geography of the Andean countries is another volume already published by UNESCO at Latin American level. Another example is the support of the Andean countries given to Chile in order to get the necessary resources from UNESCO to open in Santiago in the Research and Re-Training Centre of Teachers of the Education Ministry, a Centre of Training in Educational

(18) See Appendix No. 2.

Administration and Planning, which is a duplication of the Centre already established for more than a decade by the Organization of American States in the University of Valle, Cali, Colombia.

There is no doubt that there are actions of important value such as the putting into practice of the School Building Commission that according to the publications and bulletins of the Agreement is handing out detailed information to every member country on the school building construction field, but again this seems to be a repetition of CONESCAL (Latin American Centre for School Building) although rather more linked with the peculiarities concerned with construction in Andean soil which is likely to be different to other Latin American regions due to the mountainous topography and the continuous earthquakes.

All these deeds, whether separately or in common, are, according to the Agreement documents, steps forward to integration, such as the study done by Venezuela on educational costing or the achieving of the statistical centre at Perú.

4. THE LATIN AMERICAN AND ANDEAN EFFORTS FOR INTEGRATION

Efforts to integrate America Latina are as old as the political independence of these countries. Bolivar, Francisco Miranda and other protagonists of the South American independence devoted themselves to the creation of political and economic integration among the newly created nations. The 19th century saw several congress and meetings that aimed to reach economic integration among the South American countries, unfortunately most of the agreements never took place. However, in 1889 inaugurated in Washington, was the First American International Conference, that approved an inter-american system to improve commercial traffic and trade between the American countries as a whole. Until their political independence, all of Latin America was dependant on several regimes, characterized by the commercial monopoly of the metropolis and the exploitation of

national resources, especially minerals.

Political independence allowed Latin American countries to initiate relations with other countries especially with the United States whose economy was in expansion. United States investments in Latin America increased slowly until they surpassed the European ones. The traditional structure of private external investment at this stage in Latin America was orientated towards the exploitation of natural resources, the public services and communications. These were economic policies in which the relationship with the United States was conducted on the lines of the "good neighbour" policy proposed by F. D. Roosevelt.⁽¹⁹⁾ However, the Second World War distracted the North American continent and restored the primary importance of Latin American raw materials. As a consequence increased production was encouraged both by expansion in existing industry and the setting up of new ones in Latin America. Reconstruction in Europe during the post-war period continued to encourage this increase in the export industry. Following that, the Korean War contributed to maintain this state of affairs, but Latin American economists were already predicting weaknesses in the economy. A leading role in the polemic was played by the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) which advised that the traditional "external" growth of the export industry needed to be restructured according to a process of "internal" growth based upon industrialization and regional integration.

The origins of the actual treaty of integration can be traced back to a series of attempts at bilateral agreements among the countries concerned, through systems of compensation, or in the formation of customs unions.

(19) See: Stark, Harry
"Social and Economic Frontier in Latin America"
W.M.C. Brown Company Publishers
Iowa, USA, 1963.
See: Herring, Hubert
"History of Latin America from the Beginning to the Present"
Alfred A. Knoph Press. New York 1955.

The ECLA was the first institution, in 1948, to introduce into the discussion the term "Latin American Customs Union". Afterwards the same institution approved a resolution recommending the study of the possibilities for increasing demand throughout the region through the formation of wider markets. With the creation of the Commerce Committee of the Economic Commission for Latin America in 1956 an integration process was initiated that culminated with the Agreement of Montevideo. In 1956 an investigation into the feasibility of a regional market was set up, and an opinion poll was carried out among the Latin American countries. Following a request from ECLA a group of experts met in Santiago de Chile in 1958 and in Mexico in 1959 in order to formulate the basis of a future common market while at the same time, Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay convened a group of government experts to analyse the subject.

The ECLA group considered the creation of a common market as a continuation of the previous phase; it being a zone of free trade, they recommended the reduction of customs tariffs governed by concessions applying to primary products that would be gradually removed. Special concessions were granted to less developed countries in the region, setting at the same time agreements on complementary policies.

During the Xth (1959) Sessions of ECLA, the four above mentioned countries put forwards their viewpoints, which were initially accepted. During the same year diplomatic talks were held by representatives of Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay. The progress achieved by those discussions impressed the other countries who began to follow their example. Finally, Uruguay convened a diplomatic conference with the purpose of establishing a final free-trade scheme. The scheme adopted included several of the propositions and suggestions of the panel of experts from ECLA. Arrangements for admitting less developed countries were adopted, some complementary agreements adopted and the treaty was left open to other republics wishing to enter.

4.1 THE MONTEVIDEO TREATY

The Treaty of Montevideo was signed in February 1960. The agreement established the Latin American Free Trade Association, (LAFTA) with its centre in Montevideo (Uruguay).

The Montevideo Treaty is the greatest effort ever made in Latin America to unify economic resources of all kinds in order to achieve growth through LAFTA. Its aims, according to the Acts of the Treaty, may be summarised thus:

- (a) LAFTA would ensure a special framework in favour of the products of the region along with the diminishing of restrictions, and enhancement of trade protection for the member countries.
- (b) It would provide a mechanism for dealing with problems which threaten commerce and trading.
- (c) It would act as a link between the various enterprises of the region.
- (d) It would be an instrument for motivating public opinion and providing information on the problems of integration.
- (e) It would be for debating the economic problems of Latin America.

The signatory governments expressed their determination to make steady efforts towards achieving the Latin American common market.

They also resolved to apply efforts in favour of a progressive complementarity and integration to other areas of their economies.

In order to achieve these aims, the Treaty stated that a free trade was established whose member countries would eliminate restrictions, tariffs and charges. However, it did not propose to unify tariffs against non member countries as was usually done with countries involved in the Customs Unions.

It was proposed to eliminate the custom barrier gradually over a period of 12 years. To achieve this aim, the countries agreed to negotiate reductions every year.

The liberation programmes to achieve the free trade area went into action in the middle of 1962 after negotiations that were held after the First Conference of LAFTA. According to the agreements, later modified in Caracas (1969) this programme ought to be finished by 1980, that will be when the commerce of Latin America would be absolutely unchanged, whereby the member countries would have achieved a free trade area.

4.2 THE PROBLEMS OF LAFTA

The conditions under which the Montevideo Treaty is expected to operate are very different from those faced by the European Economic Commission. The Treaty has not produced radical changes in the economic outlook of Latin America. Little could be hoped for it, due to the scale of regional commerce. The lack of adequate communication and transport systems make it difficult to open new markets and establish commercial relations, as was once hoped. Industrialization is another serious problem, especially in the small Latin American countries which are exposed by the lack of sophisticated administrative services, the lack of infrastructure and so on, that do not allow the settlement of new industries which in Latin America should be determined by the characteristic of the market.

The smaller countries are afraid that the important industries would be concentrated in the great urban centres, like those developed in Mexico, Argentina, or Brazil, allowing them to gain little from LAFTA agreements. The lack of harmonious and unanimous development programmes has become a factor to be considered in the process of achieving integration. In short the problems that LAFTA has faced could be summarized as follows:

- (a) Geographical difficulties that raise the price of transport.
- (b) Lack of complementation among the member countries and unequal economic and industrial development.
- (c) Low quality of the industrial outputs.
- (d) Failure in the mechanism of the reduction of trade tariffs.
- (e) Lack of adequate political institutions to meet the requirements of integration.

Lastly, the LAFTA crisis gets deeper when within the process of integration different ideologies met to consider either a programme of industrialization, or a reduction of tariff or external investment, which play a fundamental role in national interests.

5. THE ANDEAN PACT

In August 1966, during a Meeting of the Presidents of the South American Republics held in Bogotá, Colombia, a statement was issued called the "Declaration of Bogotá" that established a Mixed Commission attended by representatives of the Andean countries' governments. From their work the Andean Pact emerged and was signed in May 1969 in the city of Cartagena, Colombia.

The Andean Pact was produced at the initiative of the countries whose expectations of growth were not being satisfied by the LAFTA Treaty. The signing of the Andean Pact is proof of the LAFTA crisis and of the frustration of countries like Bolivia and Ecuador whose economic expectations were not satisfied by the Montevideo Treaty. It was also the result of the political determination of Chile, Perú and Colombia to impose their own concept of integration, within the region.

(20) The signatory countries of the Andean Pact were those which

Naciones Unidas
Segunda Sesión 1976
Santiago de Chile 1976.

obtained least benefit from the creation of LAFTA. The Andean Pact started a new process of subregional integration within the framework of LAFTA.

The Pact aimed to promote balanced economic development among the member countries and to accelerate their economic growth through integration. Since its signing, the Andean Pact has made considerable progress in achieving integration but political changes have affected its continued progress in various ways.

In 1973, Venezuela joined the Pact and a series of agreements were reconsidered. Later, there was a controversy over foreign investment that ended with Chile's withdrawal in October 1976.⁽²⁰⁾

The more important features of the Andean Pact can be summarized thus:

- (a) It goes beyond the mechanism and policies stated by LAFTA as it is more flexible in understanding economic integration.
- (b) It has an institutional system with an executive body that can solve problems without the bureaucracy produced in LAFTA decision making power.
- (c) It has a definite programme to liberate commerce among its member countries. It has also a gradual and overall established tariff for commerce with non-member countries called the Arancel Externo Comun (External Common Tariff).
- (d) The benefits of integration are distributed equally and there are special policies regarding Bolivia and Ecuador (the two member countries with lower economic development).
- (e) There is a common policy regarding foreign investment.

(20) See: Revista de la Cepal Naciones Unidas Segundo Semestre 1976 Santiago de Chile 1976.

The Pact considered the selective elimination of tariff among its member countries. By 1976 some 3,000 items were already being traded on the basis of equal or lower tariffs. Thus Ecuador and Bolivia enjoyed preferential treatment.

Los Programmas Sectoriales de Desarrollo Industrial (The Sectorial Programmes of Industrial Development) are an attempt to solve the inefficiencies that the economy produced when countries with more developed markets than others are integrated. In this sense the Sectorial Programmes of Industrial Development try to develop industry according to a criterion of equality.

In 1972, the first Sectorial Programme of Industrial Development was put into practice, which affected the production of light metal mechanical goods. The elimination of tariffs has increased commercial relations among the Andean countries which were scarce before the signing of the Pact. As already mentioned, during the later years the further development of the Andean Pact had terminated due to various difficulties. For instance various plans reached the end of their programmes without a decision being taken about them by the Andean Pact Treaty Commission which is the executive body. A clear example of this is the adoption of the External Common Tariff and the approval of the Sectorial Programmes of Industrial Development due to be put into practice in 1976. Recently, the plenipotentiary representatives of the member countries agreed that the External Common Tariff would be approved at the end of 1978, and put into practice in 1979, in a programme that will be concluded by 1983. They agreed to replace the External Minimum Tariff established in 1976 by a new one that was to apply until 1979.

In one way or another the Andean Pact has meant the opening of new markets for the industries. For instance, in 1969 the Andean population was estimated at 64 million, i.e. the largest group in Latin America, excluding Brazil. The annual population

growth rate was 3.1% between 1960-1970 and its G.N.P. reached 33 million dollars. By 1985 the population will be about 100 millions and the G.N.P. 85 million dollars. These figures show an important market for every country and industry of the Andean region.

The liberation programme has worked according to the initial plan shown in Table 1. From 1969 to 1976 the liberation programme had eliminated the tariff of 2,370 items in favour of Bolivia and Ecuador and 40% of the tariff has been reduced for the other countries.

TABLE 1

PRINCIPAL EXPORTATIONS AMONG
ANDEAN COUNTRIES (MILLION DOLLARS) (21)

SECTOR AND CHARACTER OF THE EXPORTS	PERCENTAGE RESPECT THE TOTAL							
	1969	1970	1973	1974	1969	1970	1973	1974
AGRICULTURE	54.8	66.3	79.2	97.0	37.2	37.6	35.8	27.0
NEW	0.5	0.4	25.3	36.0	0.3	0.2	11.4	10.0
TRADITIONAL	54.3	59.9	53.9	61.0	36.9	37.4	24.4	17.0
MINING	21.4	21.8	19.2	22.4	14.6	13.6	8.7	6.2
NEW	0.1	0.0	6.1	6.5	-	-	2.8	1.8
TRADITIONAL	21.3	21.8	13.1	15.9	14.6	13.6	5.9	4.4
MANUFACTURERS	10.9	78.1	123.0	240.1	48.2	48.8	55.5	66.8
TOTAL	147.1	160.2	221.4	395.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Three Sectorial Programmes of Industrial Development have been approved: (a) the metal-mechanical; (b) the petrochemical and (c) the can industry. But their advance has been slow, with plenty of discussions and international meetings, because of its significance for the region.

(21) Junta Acuerdo Cartagena. Publicaciones Oficiales del Acuerdo de Cartagena Decisiones de la Commission Lima, Perú 1976.

There are several differences between the Andean Pact and the Montevideo Treaty. For instance the liberation programme of the Cartagena Agreement is more rapid than of LAFTA. The agreements "mechanisms" of the Cartagena Agreement may go beyond the purely economic aspects and tends to generate qualitative and quantitative improvements in the economy of the signatory countries.

The Andean Pact is creating some sort of interdependence among its member countries and it has produced modifications in their economic structures, i.e. technological preferences, special economic agreements and so on.

In October 1976, Chile left the Andean Pact because she had been offering guarantees and facilities to foreign investors which were forbidden under Decision 24. Before and after the withdrawal of Chile there was a bitter conflict between Chile and the other member countries, but the Andean Pact did not seem an effective instrument in the content of the Chilean Military Junta. The problems that stemmed from Decision 24, were not only economic ones. Meanwhile, for the rest of the Andean countries a certain degree of economic nationalism is an issue that contributes to economic growth, the Chilean government in opposite direction support "an external opening" policy in order to establish the necessary conditions for attracting external foreign investors, that would facilitate the placing of investments and loans to stimulate international commerce. The withdrawal of Chile from the Andean Pact did not mean the resignation of this country from ABA that it is seen as the cultural, educational and scientific treaty that supports the Andean Pact.

Despite the difficulties that the Andean Pact has faced in the last two years and the resignation of Chile, the Treaty still seeks integration. But its initial purpose has not been fulfilled at all. At the end of 1975 the only sectorial plan approved was the metal-mechanical one. There were no arguments for the can industry,

the petrochemical programmes or others related to different aspects of economy. Further the Andean Pact also faced the same problems that LAFTA did e.g. lack of good communications, problems with transport, local bureaucracy, low industrial efficiency etc.

The Andean Pact has been perhaps the greatest effort made by the Andean countries to achieve economic integration. But up to now the Andean Pact seems to be more an effort to achieve integration than a success in itself.

The following chapter is devoted to Chile who was one of the countries that fought in the South American diplomatic sphere to put forward the ideas of economic integration. Today it is no longer a member of the Andean Pact, but is still associated with the ABA.

1. THE BEGINNING OF CHILEAN FORMAL EDUCATION AND ITS DEVELOPMENT TO 1920

At the time of the Spaniards' arrival, the Araucanos was the most important in the region. Education among the Araucanos was provided through the family where the adolescents were taught basic speaking, games and the handling of weapons. The cultural legacy of the Araucanos is small in comparison with other Andean pre-Hispanic civilizations. However, they became a key component in setting up the Chilean nation.

During the colonial years (1561-1810), structured education principally consisted of the teaching of reading and writing by the

- (1) See: (a) UNESCO: Current Surveys and Research in Statistics
Latest Year Available
Paris 1977.
(b) Convenio Andrés Bello: Estadísticas Educativas y
Culturales de la Región Andina,
Bogotá 1979.

CHAPTER II

CHILE

The present chapter will be concerned with the educational development of Chile and its possible contribution towards the harmonization of the educational systems of the Andean region. The first part examines the origin of the education system and attempts to consolidate it (1561-1920). The second part analyses the last sixty years and shows how the present structure has been created. Chile has a record of educational achievement⁽¹⁾ that places its educational system among the best in Latin America. For example, its illiteracy rate is one of the lowest and the average number of school years completed is one of the highest. In this sense, the participation of Chile in the ABA, would appear important, since it could play a leading role in several educational spheres, such as educational administration, university decentralization, teachers' re-training, etc.

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Spaniards to their sons. Most education in colonial Chile was under religious auspices. Dominicans and Jesuits played a big role in the structuration of Chilean education by founding schools, seminaries and universities. State education was scarce and peasants, Indians and slaves were discriminated against. By 1738, Felipe V permitted the establishing of the University of San Felipe. This university was the first State attempt to offer higher education, but the ideological orientation was in the hands of the church. The expulsion of the Jesuits in 1767, produced an ideological dispute which touched all the intellectual spheres of colonial life. They had educated the ruling class for a century and a half in subjects which ranged from the origin of the kings to economic matters in which the Jesuits' power was great. By 1800 the formal educational system was more structured, and schools were divided into the following three categories:

- (a) minimum or minor schools, where only writing, reading and praying were taught,
- (b) major schools which were attended by those who had passed minor schools and which taught mathematics, grammar, and Christian philosophy,
- (c) schools of Latin which aimed at preparing students for higher education.

The division of schools into categories was at the same time the starting point of a more structured formal educational system. Colonial education can be summed up as being limited to a small sector of the population. It was religious, and dogmatic, and discriminated against lower strata groups as well as against women. But, the colony left as an educational heritage a primary school in almost every parish of the country, a handful of secondary schools, a very upper class school for training the elites (the Convictorio Carolino), a seminary for training priests (the Seminario Conciliar) and the university (San Felipe) orientated to the teaching of medieval theology and ancient philosophy.

(4) Escuela Normal. French and Spanish American institutions for the education and training of non-graduate teachers. Thought at one time concerned only with elementary education, but in some South American countries is concerned with both primary and secondary.

Gollins, E. P., Bowles, S. D. and others

"Key Words in Education"

Longman Group Ltd., London 1971.

Independence in Chile was obtained, as elsewhere in America, through civil insurgence. There were no deep changes during the revolution nor any changes in its institutions. Finally Chile found herself independent from Spain, but her social structure survived untouched. At one end there was a respectable and rich aristocracy linked within itself by family ties. At the other end, was a people ignorant of the rights and duties of a free country.

During early independence, education was motivated by the needs of creating and developing the bases of republican institutions in order to achieve democracy. The thinking of three men, Juan Egaña, Camilo Henríquez and Manuel de Salas influenced the early days of Chilean education. All of them advocated an educational system to serve the needs of the State. The University of Chile was created in 1842 and Andres Bello was named its first rector. Just before the founding of the University of Chile, the Escuela Normal⁽²⁾ was created as a teacher training centre for filling teaching requirements.

The university did not have immediate success because of the lack of staff and social environment for promoting activities concerned with cultural and higher education. In spite of these problems, the Faculty of Philosophy and Humanities, under the leadership of Bello, contributed a lot to the organization of the Chilean educational system, especially in matters related to the organization of primary and secondary levels, such as methodology, teacher training, plans and programmes, expansion of education in the provinces, and all the educational problems from the time when the university became the main administrative and supervisory body of Chilean education. By mid-century (1850), the founding of the Escuela Normal and the university could be counted as the major educational landmarks.

- (2) Escuela Normal; French and South American institution for the education and training of non-graduate teachers. Thought at one time concerned only with elementary education, but in some South American countries is concerned with both primary and secondary.

Collins, K. T.; Downes, L. D. and others
"Key Words in Education"
Longman Group Ltd., London 1973.

Criticisms of the nature of educational provision by public men like Sarmiento, Bello and the Amunategui brothers motivated the foundation of a Escuela Normal to train women teachers (1853) and also the Instruction Law of 1860.

According to this law, schools were divided into superior and elementary, and it was decreed that for every two thousand inhabitants one school for males and one school for females must be founded. Primary education was supervised by a General Inspector in charge of regional inspectors who controlled the whole provision and it was compulsory for convents and religious orders to set up schools. Private education was controlled by the State through the General Inspector. This law also proclaimed that to be a primary teacher, it was necessary to acquire the qualification given by the Escuela Normal. Despite the fact that this law re-organized and re-structured Chilean education, it did not make primary education compulsory. However, its regulations distinctly advanced the extension of public education for the masses. The socioeconomic transformation of the country and the development of liberal ideals favoured the implementation of a new educational reform in 1879 led by educationalists like Barros Arana and J. V. Lastarria who were followers of Comte's philosophy. Chilean education developed a humanistic curriculum, but the study of scientific subjects was added as the ideas of Comte aimed the integral formation of man, rather than a strict scientific specialization.

In 1881, President D. Santa María, sent educational missions to Germany and United States, to study both educational systems. The recommendations of these missions were later implemented in one way or another in Chilean education. Mainly they imposed the Herbartian techniques of instruction. J. M. Balmaceda became President of the Republic and deep changes took place in 1889. To develop primary education Balmaceda ordered the building of 300 new schools. Technical schools were also founded and an

Agricultural Educational Council was established to administer this kind of education. In April 1899, taking advantage of the doctrine of freedom of instruction the clergy reorganized their own centre of higher education, the Catholic University. To improve the teacher training of secondary teachers, the Instituto Pedagógico was also founded.

Compte's ideas about the integral formation of men and the scientific positivism of Spencer applied in the economic sense were ideological positions that influenced most progressive Chilean educationalists in 1890. After them the German pedagogical ideas, mainly those conceived by Herbat were introduced through the writings of V. Letelier, A. Nuñez and C. Matte, who on the other hand influenced Balmaceda's government in reforming education, especially at secondary level. The attempt of President Balmaceda to introduce several reforms in Chile's socioeconomic life ended with a bloody revolution. But despite this, the educational reform was put into practice. The reform meant several steps forward to a better humanistic and scientific education. The number of classes were extended, the learning of two languages was made compulsory (Spanish and French) and provision was made to improve the quality in the teaching of scientific subjects. The achievement of the reform can be summarized in the words of F. Campos:

"The educational reform of 1889 gave a considerable impulse to secondary education, making the lyceum the key aspect of Chilean education. The reform made plans, programmes and methods uniform throughout the country according to a criterion of unity, that was expressed in the aim of spreading culture and education to every corner of the country. It made education more effective and the focus of teaching was centred on secondary education."(3)

Despite the obvious improvement of education achieved by this reform, criticisms started to appear from different sectors which considered that it was too close to French and German education and

(3) Campos, H. F.
"Desarrollo Educacional Chileno 1810-1960", p.68
Editorial Andrés Bello
Santiago 1960.

for that reason outside the Chilean reality. Also criticized were the great number of subjects and their encyclopaedic content, which added dis-complexity to the curricula and the levels. From the criticism of the lyceum and its provision of education in the formation of men with a general culture as was held by the liberal ideology, there emerged a new concept of vocational education implemented in Chile through the setting up of commercial, mining and industrial schools, as well as female technical schools concerned with the teaching of sewing, cooking and so on.

Summing up, it could be said that 19th century Chilean education, was at first in the hands of religious orders and private institutions and minimum provision was under the State administration. Bello and Sarmiento devoted most of their writings to the diffusion and implementation of primary education. The Amunátegui brothers strove for the provision of free and compulsory education, and Manuel Montt made the University of Chile responsible for the administration of it. Balmaceda annexed primary education to the lyceum and made secondary education the axis of the educational system. Despite the implementation of laws and decrees to improve the educational service, education did not reach all social strata. The first century of Chilean republican life saw its educational system unable to provide free and compulsory education. J. C. Jobet summed up the state of Chilean education, stating that:

"The educational policies were structured for the rich. There was a lack of technical education and the school set up to provide it did not play their role. For that reason, qualified staff had to be found abroad for specific jobs. The educational system was organized for forming social castes. There was no relation among the educational levels and education until 1920, left two thirds of the population in ignorance."(4)

- (4) Jobet, J. C.
"Doctrina y Praxis de los Educadores Chilenos", p.443
Editorial Andrés Bello
Santiago 1970.

2. THE CHILEAN EDUCATION FROM 1920 TO 1976

The Educational Law of 1920 providing compulsory elementary education probably constituted one of the most remarkable pieces of Chilean legislation in the present century. It re-organized the whole educational system, and established that primary education was to be compulsory for both sexes, that the period of attendance would be four years between the ages of 7 to 13. Parents and guardians had the responsibility to fulfil this obligation. The Law of 1920 was mainly the ideological triumph of the Chilean educationalist D. E. Salas who argued that primary education should be the core from which radiate other forms of instruction.

Until 1929 the University of Chile administrated secondary and higher education. The commercial institutes and the lyceum for girls were administered by the Ministry of Education, and technical and industrial schools were administered by the Ministry of Industry. Elementary education operated under the direction of an Inspector General. In 1929 the administration of the Chilean education was re-organized and the whole provision appointed to the Ministry of Education. It was at this time that the Chilean educational system acquired its centralized pattern.

The world-wide economic crisis of the thirties had a disastrous effect on the Chilean economy, and education started to decline. A left wing coalition government was elected in 1938. Its leader was P. Aguirre Cerda who acquired the motto "to govern is to educate" as a cornerstone of his political manifesto. Under his administration the State Corporation for Development of Production was created. Since he saw education as a key to increasing productivity capacity, he promoted the development of technical, industrial and mining education. Hundreds of schools were created and the University of Chile received a large financial budget that allowed it to increase and improve its services.

In 1960 the essay "The Development of Chilean Education since 1940" of Erika Grassau and E. Orellana was published. According to them enrolment in the whole educational system increased as follows:

TABLE 1

ENROLMENT IN CHILEAN EDUCATION 1940-1957⁽⁵⁾

	1940	1957	Increase
Primary Education	524,125	880,458	68%
Secondary Education	44,055	113,595	157.8%
Technical Vocational Education	32,360	78,936	143.9%
Higher Education	7,846	19,239	145.2%

The above figures are clear evidence of the expansion of the educational services, but there was a considerable unevenness in the growth at various levels. The higher rate of expansion was achieved in secondary education while the lowest was primary. Grassau and Orellana also pointed out the high rate of drop outs from the school system, saying that out of 100 children starting first year only half reached the third year and 22.9% reached sixth.⁽⁶⁾

In December 1962, the government decreed the establishment of a Planning Commission of Chilean education with the aim of adapting education to the requirements of social and economic changes. In order to do that the Commission started to issue a lot of works and projects related to Chilean education. One of them was the revision of aims and purposes of the educational system for setting up a future educational reform. According to the Commission, it was

(5) Grassau, E.; Orellana, E.
"Desarrollo de la Educación Chilena desde 1940"
Instituto de Investigaciones Pedagógicas Sección Estadística
Ministerio de Educación
Santiago 1960.

(6) Grassau, E.; Orellana, E., *ibid.*

possible to provide general education for all Chilean children, through some changes and with few additional resources. The following diagram shows the picture of the Chilean educational system and its absorbing capacity in 1962.

TABLE 2

POPULATION OF CHILDREN FROM 7 TO 15 YEARS OLD AND CAPACITY OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN 1962(7)

POPULATION AGES THOUSANDS		ENROLMENT IN THOUSANDS					
18	150.7	12	4.7%	16.9	11%		
17	156.6	11	7%	24.5	16%		
16	160.1	466.4	10	9%	34.0	75.5	21%
15	164.2	9	12%	43.8	28%		
14	168.6	8	16%	57.9	34%		
13	173.1	505.9	7	26%	93.4	195.1	54%
12	177.6	6	29%	105.2	105.2	59%	
11	181.9	5	37%	134.1	74%		
10	186.1	1	48%	175.4	94%		
9	190.6	3	57%	206.3	108%		
8	195.2	2	67%	241.4	124%		
7	200.0	1.1314	1	100%	361.6	1224	31%
4 to 6			NURSERY	38.1		9%	

As shown in the table, the total population of children coming from the age group between seven and fifteen was 1,637,300 in 1962 and the total enrolment in primary school and the first stage of secondary in State and private schools, which comprised the first nine educational years, was 1,457,215. That meant that the

(7) Planning Commission of Chilean Education
 "Algunos Antecedentes para el Planeamiento Integral de la Educacion"
 Ministerio de Educacion
 Santiago 1974.

country was able to provide education for 89% of the whole school aged population in 1962. The figures are clear enough to conclude that, despite statements, decrees and laws proclaiming free and compulsory education, the State still was unable to fulfil that aim. Besides, it can be noted that the enrolment of the sixth year is just 29% of the enrolment of the first years of secondary education did not reach 5%, which is an indication of the enormous dispersion of students, both phenomena, dropping out and repeaters in every year. To those failures should be added the poor and disproportionate way of distributing human and material resources, the lack of appropriate buildings and so on.

The main conclusions arrived at by the Commission of Educational Planning between 1962 and 1964 were the following:

1. "A great number of students - the number could not be exactly defined, but it was likely to be more than 150,000 - were outside the educational system.
2. Only 32% of the children enrolled in primary education were able to finish their primary education. The great percentage of drop outs (nearly 50%) were in the first and second degree of primary, so that the education that they acquired was lost by disuse.
3. More than 30% of primary school leavers were unable to go to secondary.
4. The number of illiterates over fifteen years old was 1,500,000.
5. The average schooling of the whole population was 4.2 years in urban places and 2.4 in rural ones.
6. The drop out rate in secondary education, due to bad orientation, the lack of flexibility in the promotion system and poor social conditions, was around 75%.
7. Only a small percentage of students had access to university, and university drop outs were 40%. Peasants and workers at university were 3%.
8. The whole nation was demanding a change in the educational system towards one which would allow students to face life better."(8)

(8) Planning Commission of Chilean Education
"Algunos Antecedentes para el Planeamiento Integral de la Educación"

(9) *ibid.*

Ministerio de Educación
Santiago 1964

Taking as a basis these frustrating educational conclusions, the government elected in 1964 (Christian Democrat) reformed the educational system with four perspectives that are summarized as follows:

1. Educational guarantee: There was an attempt to provide equal opportunity for enrolment and continued education.
2. Sociocultural responsibility: it was assumed that education contributed to the integral personality of the student. There was an analysis of the role that education plays in the incorporation of man into the community, as a factor of change of attitude.
3. Education for life: It was assumed that education was a key factor in the development of the country. Within this context, education ought to provide to the nation the most qualified human resources.
4. Education as a permanent process: The formation of a man and his incorporation into the working and social life considered as a process which could be prolonged during his existence. In that way education would provide and develop the means and abilities for man's improvement.

According to the above mentioned statement, the new educational policies focussed on three aspects, the first one related to the expansion of the educational service, the second to its diversification, and the third, to the development and qualitative improvement of national education.

The first step was to provide education for everyone. As the National Educational Census⁽⁹⁾ in 1964 had shown that the new enrolment would mean an expenditure equivalent to that of the previous five years. A national enrolment campaign increased the percentage of children served by the educational system to 92% which placed Chile among the first countries in that field in Latin America. As a consequence of the expansion of the educational

(9) Censo Nacional de Educación
Ministerio de Educación
Santiago 1964

system the number of teachers also increased. Teachers were trained in three month courses run during the summer holidays for three years consecutively. This method of training produced protest from the teachers' unions, but despite this, the new teachers, known as the "pressure cooker teachers" (because of the way they were trained) were allowed to teach. It should be pointed out that to expand the educational services, the Chilean government was granted considerable financial help by the Alliance for Progress.⁽¹⁰⁾

By 1970 education was provided by 95% of the school-aged population. The expansion of the educational system required the starting of three simultaneous programmes related to (a) the building of schools; (b) teacher training and (c) school equipment. A scholarship programme was initiated through the Junta Nacional de Auxilio Escolar y Becas, a national commission for students' welfare and scholarships.

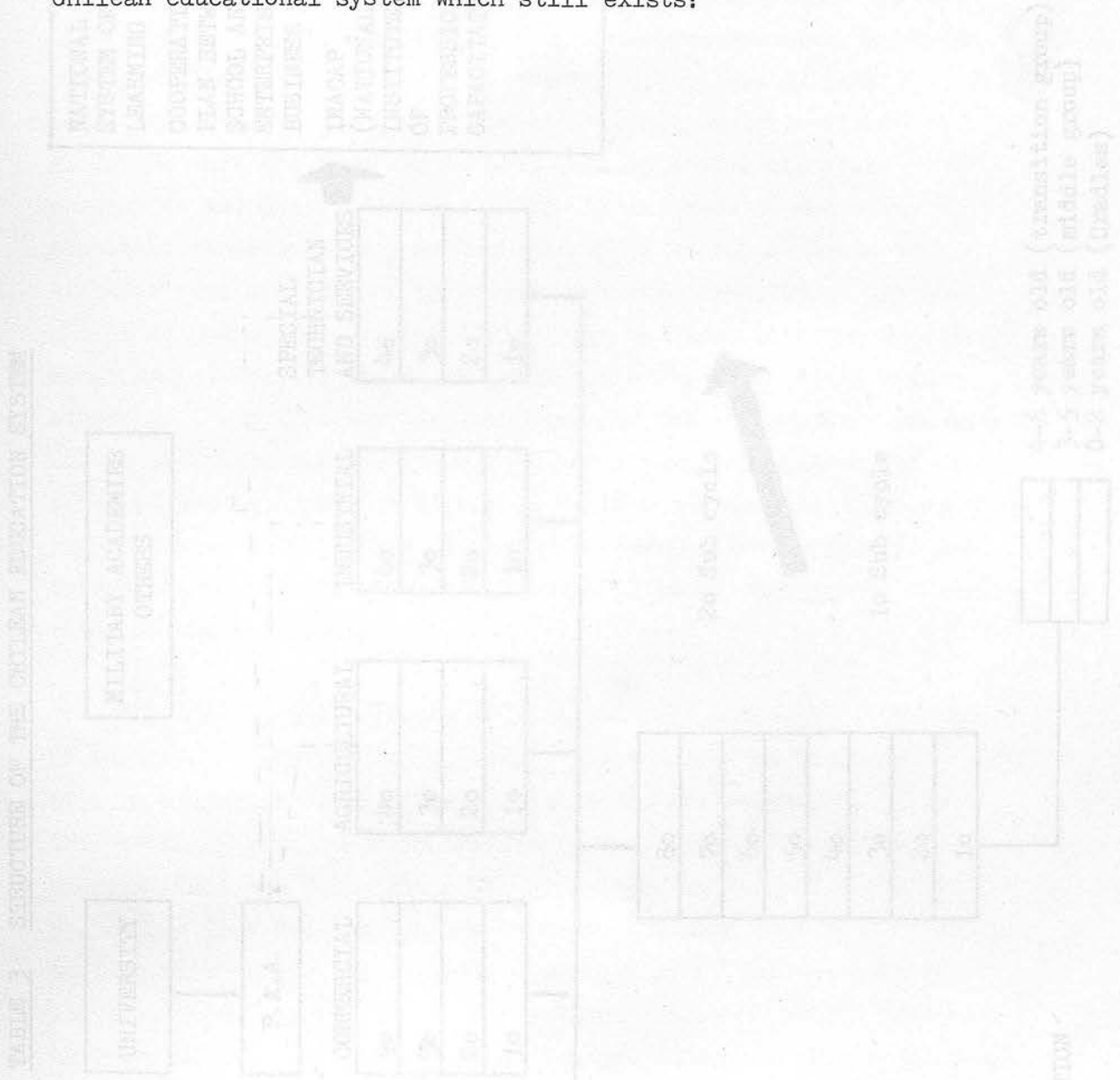
Secondary education also improved between 1965 and 1970. The school population increased from 139,200 to 332,000 which meant the annual accumulative percentage was more than 20%. Secondary technical education also improved. While the scientific and humanistic sector of secondary education increased by 117.1%; technical education increased by 211.6%.

As a result of the increase of education both primary and secondary, higher education also increased by 118% from 1965 to 1970. Adult education was improved at primary and secondary level, for instance in 1965 the rate of growth of the system was higher than 228.5% of the provision in the previous year. Adult education was also amplified to include mixed programmes of

- (10) See: (a) David J. Morris
"We Must Make Haste Slowly; the Process of
Revolution in Chile"
Vintage Books. New York 1973.
- (b) Simon Hanson
""Five Years of Alliance for Progress, an Appraisal"
The Inter-American Affairs Press
Washington D.C. 1967.

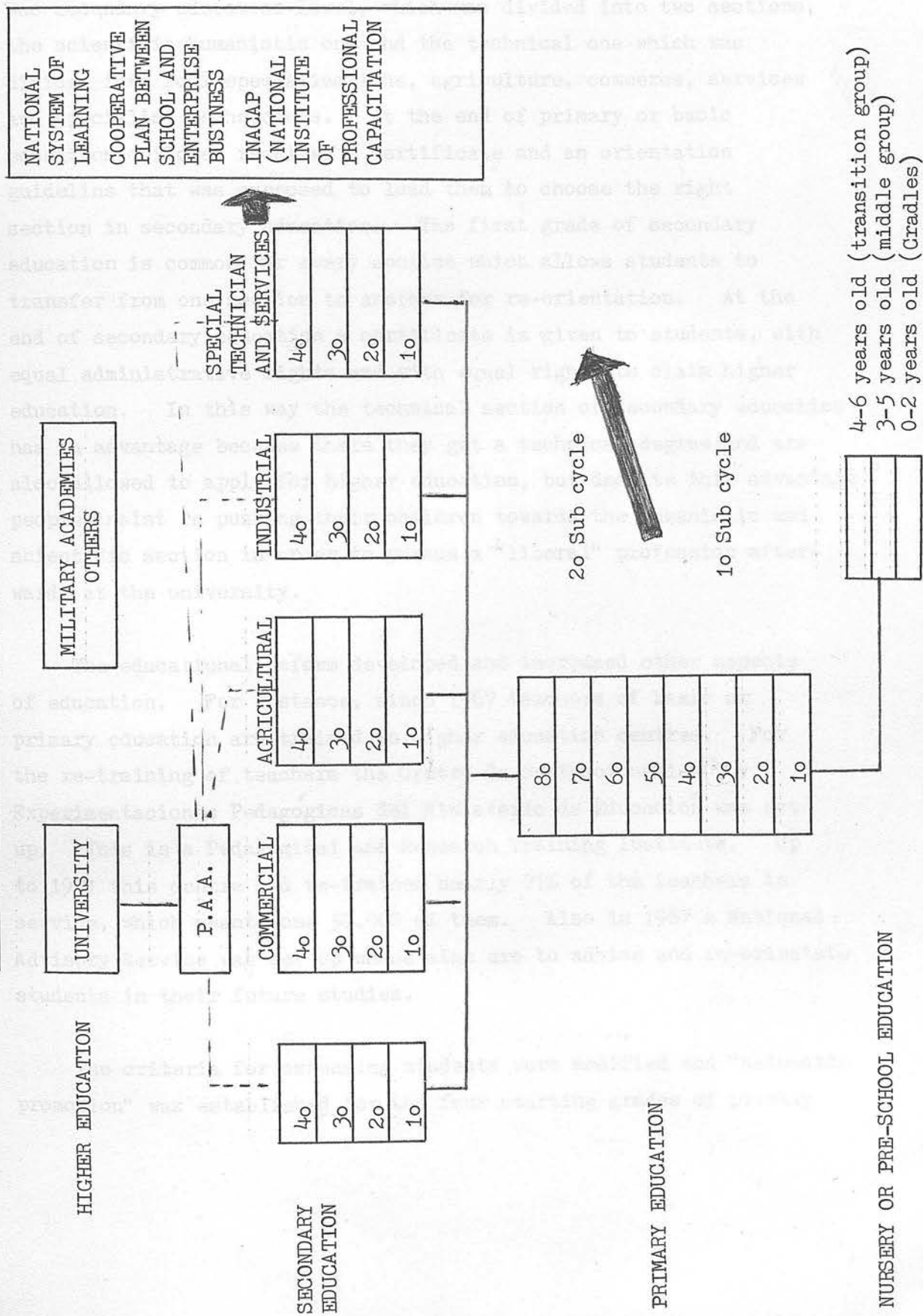
technical work and studies provided by the Instituto Nacional de Capacitacion Profesional) a national institution for professional training.

The following table⁽¹¹⁾ shows the new structure of the Chilean educational system which still exists:



(11) Cisternas, J.
 Escuela de Educación, Universidad de Concepción
 Departamento de Problemas de la Educación
 "Fundamentos de la Educación, p.3
 Concepcion-Chile 1975.

TABLE 3 STRUCTURE OF THE CHILEAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

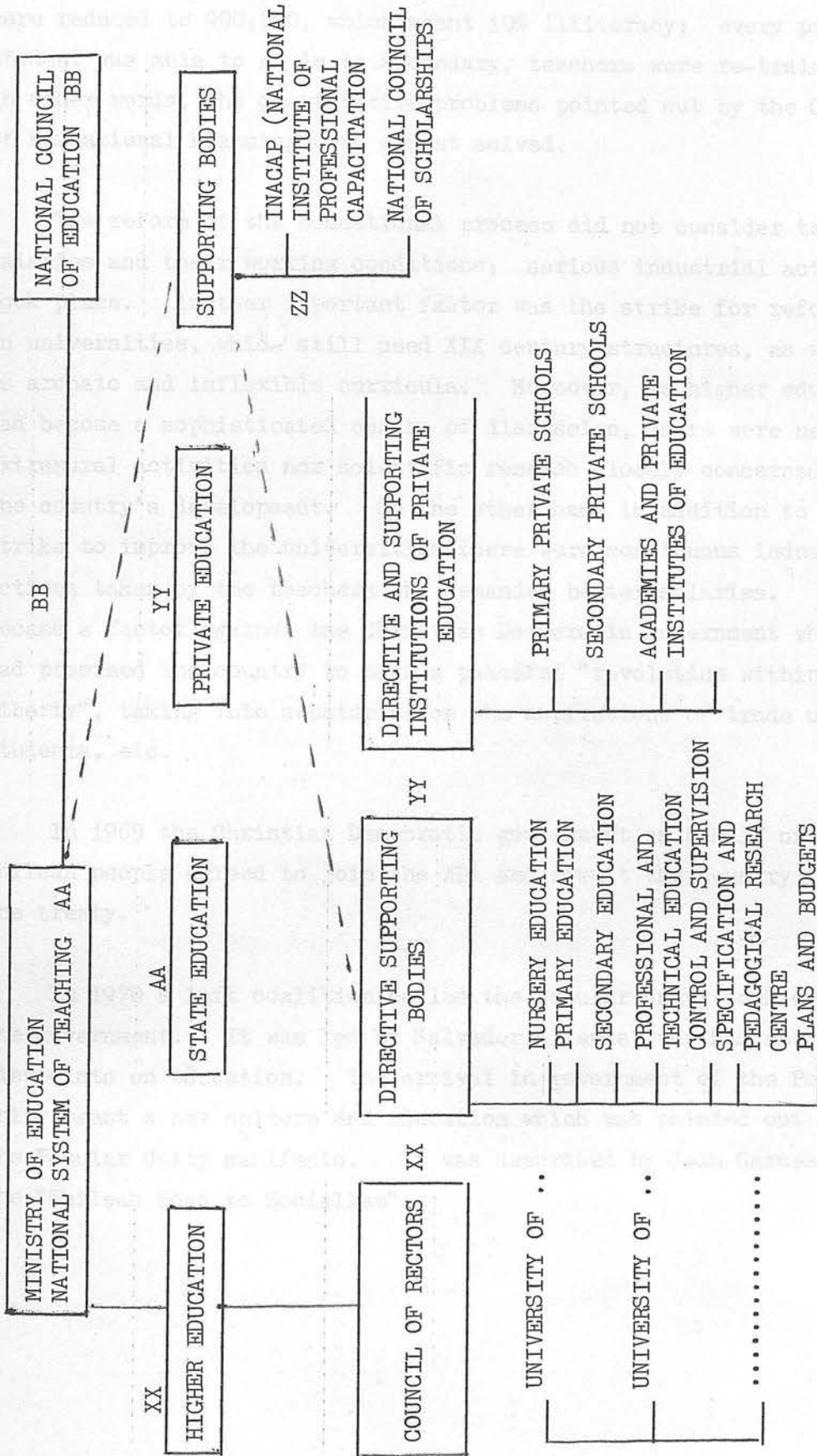


In order to diversify the system, a new educational structure comprising four levels was established. The first level was nursery, the second the basic or primary, which was common for all school children from 6/7 years to 14/15 years of age. The third was secondary education level, which was divided into two sections, the scientific humanistic one and the technical one which was divided into four specializations, agriculture, commerce, services and specialist technicians. At the end of primary or basic education children received a certificate and an orientation guideline that was supposed to lead them to choose the right section in secondary education. The first grade of secondary education is common for every section which allows students to transfer from one section to another for re-orientation. At the end of secondary education a certificate is given to students, with equal administrative rights and with equal rights to claim higher education. In this way the technical section of secondary education has an advantage because there they get a technical degree and are also allowed to apply for higher education, but despite this advantage people insist in pushing their children towards the humanistic and scientific section in order to pursue a "liberal" profession afterwards at the university.

The educational reform developed and increased other aspects of education. For instance, since 1967 teachers of basic or primary education are trained in higher education centres. For the re-training of teachers the Centro de Perfeccionamiento y Experimentaciones Pedagógicas del Ministerio de Educación was set up. This is a Pedagogical and Research Training Institute. Up to 1971 this centre had re-trained nearly 71% of the teachers in service, which meant some 50,000 of them. Also in 1967 a National Advisory Service was set up whose aims are to advise and re-orientate students in their future studies.

(12) The criteria for assessing students were modified and "automatic promotion" was established for the four starting grades of primary

TABLE 4 ORGANIC DIAGRAM OF CHILEAN EDUCATION



- AA TOTAL AND DIRECT CONTROL OF THE SYSTEM
- BB TO ESTABLISH THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND CONTROL ITS APPLICATION
- YY IT CONTROLS PROGRAMS, INFRASTRUCTURE, ACADEMIC BODIES ETC
- XX IT DEFINES POLICIES, BUDGETS AND ACADEMIC COORDINATION
- ZZ IT ESTABLISHES POLICIES OF ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL

The educational reform of 1965 meant an advance for Chilean education especially comparing the expansion of the educational system, primary served 95% of the school population; illiterates were reduced to 900,000, which meant 10% illiteracy; every primary student was able to go in to secondary, teachers were re-trained. In other words, the quantitative problems pointed out by the Commission of Educational Planning were almost solved.

The reform of the educational process did not consider teachers' salaries and their working conditions; serious industrial action took place. Another important factor was the strike for reforms in universities, which still used XIX century structures, as well as archaic and inflexible curricula. Moreover, as higher education had become a sophisticated centre of discussion, there were neither extramural activities nor scientific research closely concerned with the country's development. On the other hand in addition to the strike to improve the universities there were continuous industrial actions taken by the teachers who demanded better salaries. This became a factor against the Christian Democratic government which had promised the country to make a peaceful "revolution within liberty", taking into consideration the aspirations of trade unions, students, etc.

In 1969 the Christian Democratic government on behalf of the Chilean people agreed to join the ABA and commit the country to the treaty.

In 1970 a left coalition called the Popular Unity took over the government. It was led by Salvador Allende, who had new viewpoints on education. The arrival in government of the Popular Unity meant a new culture and education which was pointed out in the Popular Unity manifesto. It was described by Joan Garcés in the "Chilean Road to Socialism";

(13) Garcés, J.
"The Chilean Road to Socialism: Salvador Allende"
Fenguin
Harmondsworth, Middlesex
1975, p.43.

"The new culture will not arise by decree, it will emerge from the struggle for brotherhood against individualism, from respect for human labour instead of condescension, from a sense of national values instead of cultural colonization; from the access which the mass of the people will gain to art and literature and the media instead of remaining exploited by them, the new State will draw the masses towards intellectual and artistic activities by means of a radically altered system of education and a national system of popular culture."(13)

All these views were later ratified by ABA in the Lima Declaration (1971) and in the Caracas Consensus (1973).

In October 1971, the First National Congress of Education was held with the participation of SUTE (Teachers' Union), the Central Unica de Trabajadores (Chilean TUC) and the community in general. The agreement arrived in that congress focussed the concept of national democratization and de-centralization of the educational services as well as the creation of the Escuela Nacional Unificada (United National School) as a new way of aiming at lifelong education. The philosophical concept of education of the Popular Government can be summarized in the desire to develop an educational system through the United National School that would be characterized by its:

- (a) Unity, because it would link theory with practice, education with life within a continuous process according to the phyco-biological development of the student from the nursery to higher education.
- (b) Diversification because it would be concerned with a national planning in agreement with every region of the country.
- (c) Democracy and pluralism, because it would end educational discrimination favouring the formation of students who were critical of the reality of their country.

(13) Garces, J.
"The Chilean Road to Socialism; Salvador Allende"
Penguin
Harmondsworth, Middlesex
1975, p.45.

- (d) Productivity and integration with the community, because it would develop a creative mentality participating with the community in the development of a new culture.
- (e) Planned scientific and technical because it would develop in agreement with national reality and spread over all the country the new advances of science and technology.

A United National School, meant a national system of education able to fulfil all the educational requirements of the Chilean people. To solve the severe educational crisis, it was considered as the basis for building socialism during the process of transition towards it. The aims of this educational project were to involve the community in it, to de-centralize and administrate the educational system for planning and develop on regional and local levels. These were seen as the necessary measures in order to diversify education geographically.

The project also aimed at (a) creating a national system of teaching, where everybody could have equal opportunities and receive the same education, (b) the progressive elimination of the classic division of work (into intellectual and practical sectors) through the combination of theory and practice, (c) breaking away narrow concepts of technical education which makes man a piece of the machinery, (d) the breaking away from the elitism within the universities because everybody should be able to go into higher education. On the other hand, this new concept was the expression of the growing participation of the Chilean people within a left wing government coalition which they had just elected.

The First National Congress of Education pointed out that in order to set up the new system, it was necessary to create Regional and Local Councils and also Council of Teacher Unions, Students' Unions and Parents' Associations in every school. An amplification

of the National Council of Education was recommended. It was pointed out that these councils guaranteed with fully normative attributions but without surpassing the national, regional or local framework of national educational planning. The idea was to create this council as an experiment aiming at achieving community participation and also as a way of facilitating coordination of the new educational policies with those of an economic and cultural character.

The structure of the above mentioned Councils was as follows: one Regional Council in every provincial capital and one Local Council in every municipality of the country. The Regional Council of Education should be headed by the Regional Coordinator and the Provincial and Local Council respectively. Moreover the Council was integrated by the community as a whole. In order to achieve the participation of the school community (teachers, students and parents) it was necessary to modify the administrative structure of the schools so that in theory a headmaster would be legally responsible for putting into practice the new policies in the school. A Community School Council should be set up and would be involved in every aspect of education, also a Council of Teachers that would be involved in the technical and pedagogic aspects and a Board of Directors that would help the headmaster to run the school. In Adult Education Centres, the Community Council should be represented by teachers, students and youth organizations.

The decree of democratization of education became the key support for a new concept of education, but it was rejected by the Contraloría General de la República a State body for fiscal and overall control which was in the hands of the opposition. It was argued that the Councils, which would be set up in order to seek popular participation, were illegal and unconstitutional, because they were against other constitutional decrees. However, this matter was a political rather than a legal matter. The

opposition to the government used the educational philosophy of the government as a weapon to defeat it. The educational approach of the government was also concerned with the interpretation that the opposition parties and people who were against the socialist government had of the concept of "freedom of teaching" set up by the Conservatives in alliance with the Church in the early period of the republic. Their ideas can be summarized quoting "Educacion Particular en Chile" whose authors considered that:

"the freedom of teaching is opposed to the educational monopoly; its existence is guaranteed by private education which is legally accepted by the constitution of the State"

and added

"the last constitutional reform changed the working of the article number 10, in point 7."(14)

They quoted the whole article pointing out the three principal statements on the matter under discussion. The first one about private education, which would receive a State subsidy, the second one, that the national system of education should be pluralistic, democratic and without the influence of political parties, and the third one, that the academic and administrative staff should be appointed by the people or institution that set up the school. In essence, these statements are well known by every Chilean involved in education, but it is also well known that private education has only served the upper and middle class and it has accentuated educational discrimination. It was clear that the Popular Unity had no intention of closing down private education, because it had no financial resources to cover the 24% of the provision of education that is covered by private schools. The Catholic University Students' Union published a book called "La Escuela Nacional Unificada, el Control de las Conciencias". In the book they concluded that:

(14) Fontaine, J.; Illanes, R.; Cruz, R.
"Educación Particular en Chile"
Chapter II, p.38.

"to establish the United National School is unconstitutional because it is clear that the project proposed lifelong education within a society which is in transition towards socialism and that means a clear ideological orientation that the government is trying to put into practice. In this way the project is breaking the constitution and for that reason it should be banned by every Chilean."(15)

In other words, the struggle to set up the United National School and also the failure to do so became a feature of daily life in Chile during the last months of Allende's government. In order to obtain the rejection of the project and subsequently the defeat of the government, students of private education went on strike. This action, added to others such as the international blockade, the maintaining of vital sectors on strike such as the transport workers strike, (with money coming from abroad), the attempt to push the army to overthrow the government, ended with the defeat of the Popular Unity government which was replaced by a Military Junta whose educational philosophy is based on the authoritarian militarism, maintaining the educational structure that could not be changed by the Popular Government. Despite the discussion, about the required reforms and the opposition to it, the growth of the educational system was noticeable during the three years in government of the left coalition as we can see in the following tables: (16)(17)(18)

- (15) Fontaine, A.; García Huidobro, C. y otros
"E.N.U. El Control de las Conciencias", p.35
Universidad Católica
Santiago 1973.
- (16) Ministerio de Educación
Instituto de Investigaciones Estadísticas
Universidad de Chile
Santiago-Chile 1973.
- (17) Ministerio de Educación
Instituto de Investigaciones Estadísticas, ibid.
- (18) Ministerio de Educación
Instituto de Investigaciones Estadísticas, ibid.

TABLE 5 STATE AND PRIVATE EDUCATION. ENROLMENT IN NURSERY, PRIMARY, SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION 1970-1973

LEVELS	SYSTEMS	YEARS				RATE OF INCREASE		
		1970	1971	1972	1973	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73
TOTALS	TOTAL	2487657	2741359	2883628	3013455	10.2	5.2	4.5
	STATE	1909666	2132567	2256305	2386660	11.7	5.8	5.8
	PRIVATE	577991	608792	626323	626795	5.3	3.0	(-0.1)
NURSERY	TOTAL	60360	68700	77875	79363	13.8	13.4	1.9
	STATE	43178	48499	53118	57488	12.3	9.5	8.2
	PRIVATE	17182	20201	24757	21875	17.6	22.6	(-11.6)
PRIMARY	TOTAL	2043032	2200160	2263529	2322730	7.7	2.9	2.6
	STATE	1578608	1722609	1783672	1850794	9.1	3.5	3.8
	PRIVATE	464424	471551	479857	471936	2.8	0.5	(-1.7)
PRIMARY REGULAR	TOTAL	2039185	2194713	2257399	2314283	7.6	2.9	2.5
	STATE	1574934	1717347	1777684	1842610	9.0	3.5	2.7
	PRIVATE	464251	477366	479715	471715	2.8	0.5	(-1.7)
PRIMARY SPECIAL	TOTAL	3847	5477	6130	8447	41.6	12.5	37.8
	STATE	3674	5262	5598	8184	43.2	13.8	36.7
	PRIVATE	173	185	142	263	6.9	(-23.2)	85.2
SECOND- ARY	TOTAL	302064	366099	408024	445866	21.6	11.5	9.3
	STATE	232180	288459	325815	362878	24.2	13.0	11.4
	PRIVATE	69884	77640	82209	82984	11.1	5.9	0.9
HUM. SCIENT.	TOTAL	202506	238651	261205	282721	17.8	9.5	8.2
	STATE	151128	179226	196539	217012	18.6	9.7	10.4
	PRIVATE	51378	59425	64666	65709	15.7	8.8	1.6
TECHN. PROF.	TOTAL	99558	127448	146819	163141	28.0	15.2	11.1
	STATE	81052	109233	129276	145866	34.8	18.3	12.8
	PRIVATE	18506	18215	15543	17275	(-1.6)	(-3.7)	(-1.5)
COMM- ERCIAL	TOTAL	44799	52723	58556	62638	17.1	11.1	7.0
	STATE	39266	48412	54893	59359	23.3	13.4	8.1
	PRIVATE	5533	4311	3663	3279	(-22.1)	(-15.0)	(-10.5)
INDUS- TRIAL	TOTAL	33744	49075	59991	69416	45.4	22.2	15.7
	STATE	27210	42816	53856	63317	57.4	25.8	17.6
	PRIVATE	6534	6259	6135	6099	(-4.2)	(-2.0)	(-0.6)
TECHNI- CAL	TOTAL	17637	21720	23538	25618	23.2	8.4	8.8
	STATE	12791	15864	17578	19571	24.0	10.8	11.4
	PRIVATE	4846	5856	5963	6047	20.8	1.8	1.4
AGRICUL- TURAL	TOTAL	3378	3930	4734	5469	16.3	20.5	15.5
	STATE	1785	2141	2952	3619	19.9	37.9	22.6
	PRIVATE	1593	1789	1782	1850	12.3	(-0.4)	3.8
HIGHER	TOTAL	82201	106400	134200	165500	29.4	26.1	23.3
	STATE	55700	73000	93700	115500	31.1	28.4	23.3
	PRIVATE	26501	334000	40500	50000	26.0	21.3	23.5

* ADULT EDUCATION IS NOT INCLUDED



TABLE 7
ANNUAL PERCENTAGE INCREASE OF
ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION
BY SECTIONS 1970-1973

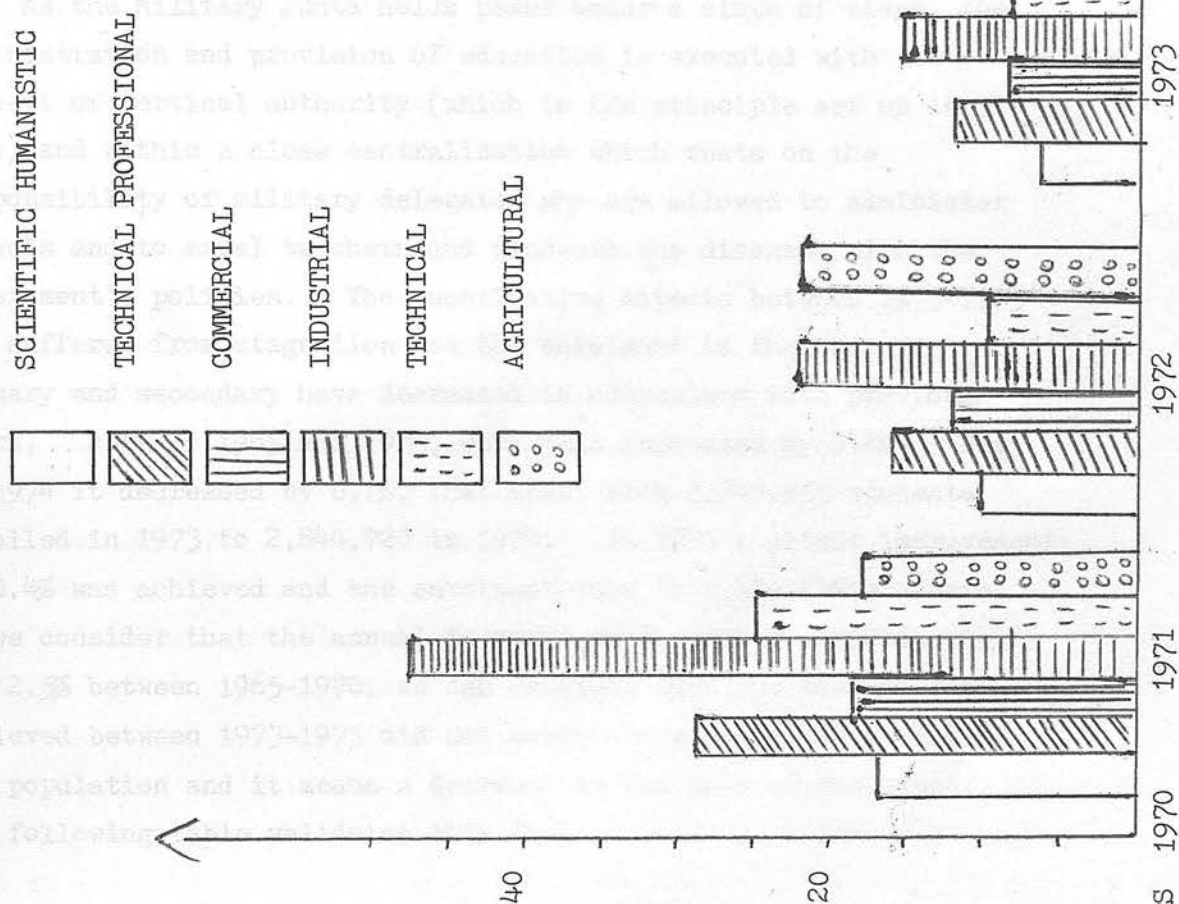
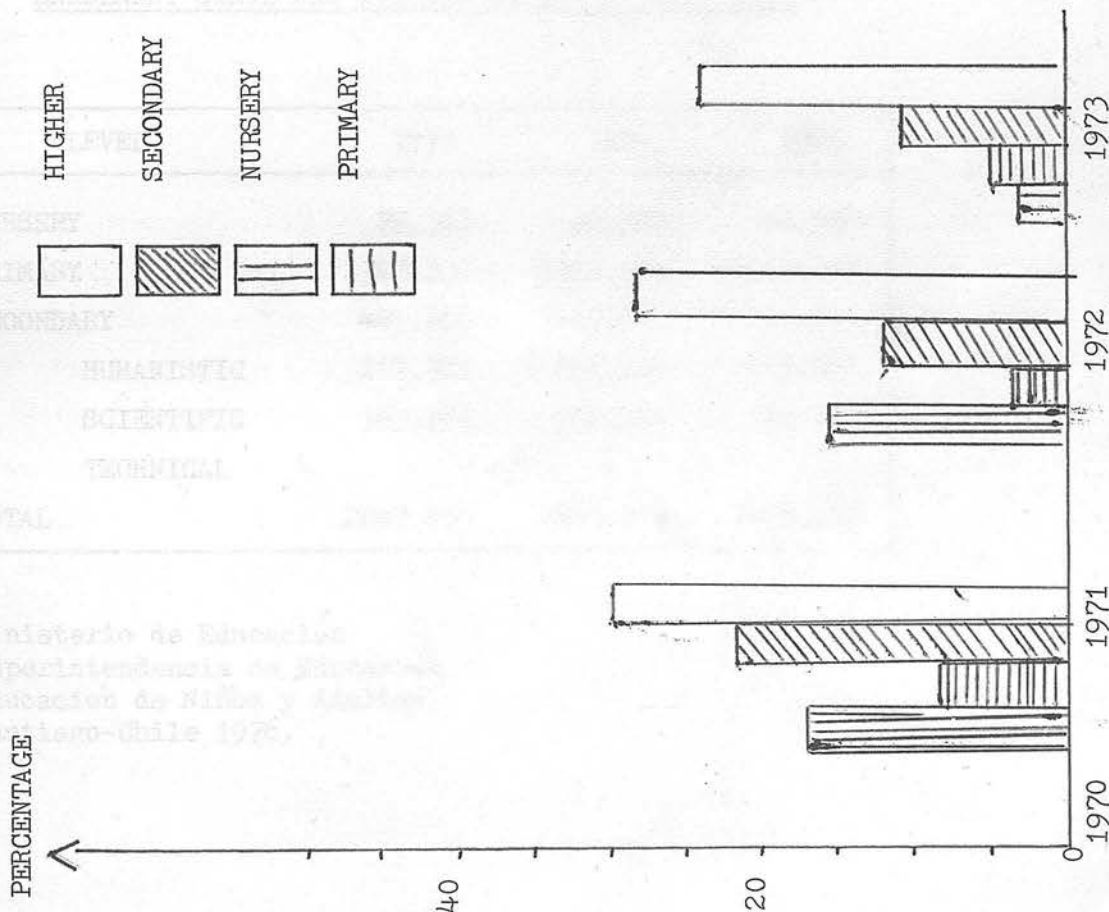


TABLE 6
ANNUAL PERCENTAGE INCREASE OF ENROLMENT
NURSERY, PRIMARY, SECONDARY AND HIGHER
EDUCATION 1970-1973



As the Military Junta holds power under a state of siege, the administration and provision of education is executed with the concept of vertical authority (which is the principle set up in the army) and within a close centralization which rests on the responsibility of military delegates who are allowed to administer schools and to expel teachers and students who disagree with the government's policies. The quantitative aspects between 1973-1975 had suffered from stagnation and the enrolment in the nursery, primary and secondary have decreased in comparison with previous years. Between 1965 and 1973, enrolment increased by 6.2%. But in 1974 it decreased by 0.1%, that meant from 2,847,955 students enrolled in 1973 to 2,844,720 in 1974. In 1975 a slight improvement of 0.4% was achieved and the enrolment rose to 2,856,276 students. If we consider that the annual increase of the school population was 2.5% between 1965-1970, we can conclude that the minimal increase achieved between 1973-1975 did not cover the demographic growth of the population and it means a decrease in the rate of enrolment. The following table validates this fact.

TABLE 8

ENROLMENT STATE AND PRIVATE EDUCATION 1973-1975⁽¹⁹⁾

LEVEL	1973	1974	1975
NURSERY	79,363	90,300	92,954
PRIMARY	2322,730	2311,374	2114,411
SECONDARY	445,862	443,040	448,911
HUMANISTIC	282,721	282,282	285,806
SCIENTIFIC	163,141	160,764	163,105
TECHNICAL	-	-	-
TOTAL	2847,955	2844,720	2856,276

(19) Ministerio de Educación
Superintendencia de Educación
Educación de Niños y Adultos
Santiago-Chile 1976.

The analysis of the educational enrolment by levels allows us to conclude that primary education, which has been the priority of the Chilean government since XVIII century did not reach the enrolment of 1973 in comparative figures. The same occurred in secondary and higher education. The raising of university fees and the general socioeconomic crisis of the Chilean society are the causes. The total higher education enrolment decreased from 145,663 in 1973 to 144,165 in 1974. The number of places in the first years of higher education decreased from 47,214 in 1973 to 42,555 in 1974, to 41,044 in 1975 and to 34,542 in 1976, according to government statistics. This meant a reduction of 26.8% of the higher education vacancies between 1973-1976.

Nationalism has arisen as the fundamental aspect of the Military Junta's educational philosophy. The history curriculum has always given importance to national historical facts, but now there has been an increase in the number of class sessions for history and geography taught in the way that story tellers use, with an exaggerated list of names and dates, isolated from historical analysis. Decree number 29 of the Ministry of Education established regulations for elevating patriotic values and almost all national school holidays celebrate a military event of the last century. Through the development of an exacerbated nationalism the Military Junta seeks to justify and consolidate its deeds as government, emphasizing at the same time the Chilean geopolitical needs well expressed in the Junta political and economical manifesto.⁽²⁰⁾ The Junta's stubborn nationalistic educational, political and economical policies are against all the internationalist treaties signed by previous governments. What is more, they are an attempt to break with all the principles established on them. As far as the ABA is concerned, the Chilean government deliberately acts against it, by not accomplishing for instance the revision of the school history programmes. However, the Junta makes the country remain

(21) Ministerio de Educación

(20) Pinochet Augusto
"Discurso Pronunciado el 11 de Septiembre de 1975"
Diario El Mercurio
Santiago 1975.

in ABA and cooperates with it in other areas, because it uses it as a platform to fight the political isolation exercised by the international community.

Apolitical humanism is another focus of education. Under this statement the Military Junta has struck a blow at the previous concept of education which is considered Marxist proselytism. As far as the media and its commitment to education is concerned they have become a way of paying homage to the Armed Forces.

The following table shows us the educational enrolment during the years 1975-1976. (21)

	1976	GROWTH %	1975	1976	ENROLMENT	CHANGE
TOTAL ENROLMENT	30212	-0.7	25075	25158	21051	0.8
UNIVERSITY	611	5.5	9500	18058	16749	10.7
UNIVERSITY	7865	3.4	6506	7992	11986	18.5
UNIVERSITY	199	-9.0	2103	3006	927	-3.0
UNIVERSITY	5228	-1.1	19504	19735	3992	3.0
UNIVERSITY	2279	4.2	66068	68345	13472	3.0
UNIVERSITY	2536	7.3	79116	23075	2037	7.4
UNIVERSITY	2127	-1.5	177710	16530	-1080	-0.4
UNIVERSITY	4018	-5.6	71381	6583	-463	-5.3
UNIVERSITY	1021	1.2	70651	7042	-129	-2.0
UNIVERSITY	1921	6.8	2000	2077	68	3.9
UNIVERSITY	1451	-30.6	2000	1110	-890	-59.3
UNIVERSITY	196	51.3	90	500	196	56.3

(21) Ministerio de Educación
Informe de las Secretarías Ministeriales de Educación
Santiago-Chile 1975.

TABLE 2 ENROLMENT IN NURSERY, PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION. CHILDREN AND ADULTS. YEARS 1975-1976

	TOTAL			STATE			PRIVATE			
	ENROLMENT		GROWTH	ENROLMENT		GROWTH	ENROLMENT		GROWTH	
	1975	1976	%	1975	1976	%	1975	1976	%	
TOTAL ENROL- MENT WHOLE COUNTRY	3065152	3043440	-21712	2530767	2551858	21091	534385	491582	-42803	-8.0
NURSERY	124697	131608	6911	98149	108698	10549	26548	22910	-3638	-13.7
MINISTRY	92954	100802	7848	66406	77892	11486	26548	22910	-3638	-13.7
CHILDREN GARDENS COUNTRY	31743	30806	-937	31743	30806	-937	-	-	-	-
PRIMARY EDUCATION	2404682	2353384	-51298	1981402	1978311	-3091	423280	375073	-48207	-11.4
SECONDARY EDUCATION	535225	557904	22479	460868	464305	13437	84557	93599	9042	10.7
HUMANISTIC	344908	370214	25306	278158	298675	20517	66750	71539	4789	7.2
PROFESSIONAL	190517	187690	-2827	172710	165630	-7080	17807	22060	4253	23.9
COMMERCIAL	74679	70361	-4318	71281	66648	-4633	3398	3713	315	9.3
INDUSTRIAL	82903	83924	1021	76651	74142	-1509	7252	9782	2530	34.9
TECHNICAL	28158	30079	1921	23069	23737	668	5089	6342	1253	24.6
AGRICULTURAL	4777	3326	-1451	2709	1103	-1606	2068	2223	155	7.5
OTHER	348	544	196	348	544	196	-	-	-	-

The deterioration of the educational services and the decay in the provision of education are closely related with the monetarist economic policies of the Junta. A reduction in the allocation of financial resources as well as the statement that education ought to be paid for by the parents are also relevant features in Chilean education today. Moreover, the appointment of military delegates in schools and universities, the militarization of the teaching, the banning of the teacher unions, the progressive increase of drop outs and the exodus of lecturers, scientific and technical staff from universities are principal features in the Chilean socio-educational world.

The development of Chilean education has always been linked with the political development of the nation. The lack of political turmoil in the past century and largely in the present one has influenced the structure of the educational system. Its political constitution has guaranteed in theory a free and compulsory education (of course, to fulfil this aim has been impossible due mainly to economic underdevelopment). However, because of her democratic past, Chilean education has been more developed than the rest of the ABA countries. At least Chilean educational records seem to be better than the other Andean nations according to international comparison made by institutions such as UNESCO, ILO etc. The organization and administration of the educational system has been modelled on the French and German ones and it has been favoured by several conditions that the rest of the ABA countries do not enjoy. First of all, the population⁽²²⁾ is linguistically homogeneous, so that language problems have not arisen. Secondly, Chile is a long and flat strip of land, and despite the enormous geographical distances, communications are less of a problem than in the other mountainous ABA countries. The Chilean economy unlike most ABA nations has been centred around

(22) Chilean pre-hispanic inhabitants were almost exterminated by the Spaniards and the Chilean Army in the early republic. Today they constitute a minority (whose culture has been broken to pieces) absorbed by the Western ways of living.

industry and not in agriculture. This has allowed the development of a working class movement that since its beginning has struggled for better education. The fact that educational development in Chile has been greater than the other countries, does not exempt this country of all the problems related to poor and precarious education, like illiteracy, drop out, absenteeism, irrelevant curriculum and so on. Without doubt, and bearing in mind all Chilean educational deficiencies, Chile was in a position to make a great contribution towards the harmonization of the Andean educational systems, and perhaps to contribute immensely in problems like planning, organization and administration in general. However, the Military Junta's economic and educational policies have made Chile unpopular within the Andean region, mainly because their policies are against the spirit of the integrationist treaties. Although, Chile remains in them to fight international isolation. Therefore, it is unlikely that Chile will make of the ABA's principles and doctrines, the cornerstone of its educational philosophy.

The Spanish arrival in 1533 started a period of westernization of the local civilization. The actual Peruvian population began its mixture in those days with the intermarriages between Indians and whites. Later, the negroes were incorporated through a process of slavery. In the early stage of colonial education, the half breeds, who were the offspring of the Indians and whites received Spanish education. By 1551 the Town Hall of Lima got the necessary resources to found a school for teaching half breeds and Indians. With the permission of the Viceregency more schools were opened so that by 1600 some twelve schools were in operation. (1) By the end of the XVII century, primary education was still being provided by the Church, and some lay schools had also been founded. Higher education started in 1551 with the founding of the University of San Marcos. Later on in the same century, other universities in the various provinces were founded.

(1) See: Duffie W. Bailey
Latin American Civilization: Colonial Period
Osgood Books Inc.
New York 1967.

CHAPTER III

PERU

Perú typifies most of the educational problems affecting the Andean nations. In the highlands there is a large non Spanish speaking Indian population, which has a high illiteracy rate. Meanwhile, the coast (that owns a high economic development and provides the best educational services) is affected by several other educational problems such as drop outs, lack of suitable education (for those living in marginal areas of towns and cities) teachers' strikes, lack of schools, bureaucracy and so on. The first part of the chapter summarizes the background of the Peruvian education, while the second concentrates on the present educational reform and its possible contribution to the harmonization of the ABA countries educational systems.

1. THE PERUVIAN EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT SINCE THE COLONY TO 1940

The Spanish arrival in 1533 started a period of westernization of the Inca civilization. The actual Peruvian population began its mixture in those days with the intermarriage between Indians and whites. Later, the negroes were incorporated through a process of slavery. In the early stage of colonial education, the half breeds, who were the offspring of the indians and whites received Spanish education. By 1551 the Town Hall of Lima got the necessary resources to found a school for teaching half breeds and indians. With the permission of the Viceroyalty more schools were opened so that by 1600 some twelve schools were in operation.⁽¹⁾ By the end of the XVII century, primary education was still being provided by the Church, but some lay schools had also been founded. Higher education started in 1551 with the founding of the University of San Marcos. Later on in the same century, other universities in the various provinces were founded.

(1) See: Diffie W. Bailey
Latin American Civilization; Colonial Period
Octagon Books Inc.
New York 1967.

Secondary education started in the second half of XVI century with the arrival of the Jesuits. They founded several schools, the majority of them being financed by donations. The period of study lasted eight years. There was marked social stratification as the students were classified according to the social status of their families. Under the administration of Charles III, the Jesuits were expelled from the Viceroyalty and like other ABA countries education had a set back. Meanwhile, the University of San Marcos became the centre of a generation of students who wanted to change the colonial life in the country. Among these were Baquijano y Carrillo and Hipólito Unanue. Baquijano y Carrillo was the leader of a movement that introduced reforms to do away with the education that had a scholastic and dogmatic orientation. Hipólito Unanue re-organized the Faculty of Medicine in the University of San Marcos and initiated a period of scientific renovation in Perú that at the end of the XVII century and beginning of the XVIII showed the introduction of new and liberal ideas that led Perú and the rest of the Spanish colonies to get their independence from Spain.

The achievement of Peruvian independence implied several changes in culture and education which could provide the new citizens with the necessary resources to partake in the creation of the republic. Between 1821 and 1823 several institutions were founded by the Liberator José de San Martín with the aim of setting up the nation and for educating the public. Such institutions were the Sociedad Patriótica, the Biblioteca Nacional, the Escuela Normal for training teachers and the Military Academy. Simon Bolivar also contributed to the cultural and educational development of the new nation by founding several institutions as the Escuela Central de Humanidades, the journal of the Ateneo Peruano, the University of Trujillo and the Sociedad Económica de Amantes del País.⁽²⁾ The Escuela Normal was founded in 1822 and was run by English teachers under the

(2) Barnaby, A. Thomas
"Latin American History"
The MacMillan Co.
New York 1956.

Lancastrian System.⁽³⁾ Several fee schools started to work throughout the country in the same year. Despite the financial troubles caused by the war of independence, the nation kept on supporting education, so that by the end of the war in 1826, 1,300 students were attending schools. According to the Constitution of 1823, education was not compulsory, but a republican necessity and the right of every citizen. So, the State endorsed this view by founding schools, libraries and so on. This Constitution also recognized the freedom to teach, which was understood as democratic aspiration. The Constitution of 1828 added the statement that the State guaranteed free primary education for every citizen. This aspiration, however, has not yet been fulfilled through the history of republican Peru. The Constitution of 1828 created the Department of Primary Instruction to administer and supervise primary education and the growing number of schools. Under the government of President Costilla education was re-organized and the Reglamento de Instrucción Pública was proclaimed in 1850. A public educational statute, that comprised specifications for the three levels of education. With these levels in mind, the roles of educational institutions such as schools, colleges and universities, the financial and legal situation of teachers and the duties of the State were classified.

It meant the total re-organization of the formal educational structure. Primary education was provided in two cycles, in schools of first and second class; secondary was provided in minor and major colleges and higher education was reformed, implementing a new scientific facet to the traditional ones. During his second government, Castilla was helped by men of liberal ideas that influenced him in issuing another educational statute in 1855. This statute introduced some modifications while maintaining the previous division of education. The teaching activity was

- (3) Lancastrian System: a method of organizing for mass instruction. Originated by J. Lancaster an English Quaker schoolmaster, based on the use of abler pupils as monitors who, after learning the lesson from the master, taught a group of fellow students. Dictionary of Education, edited by the University of Cincinnati MacGraw Hill Book Co. USA 1973.

recognized as a profession and also as a public career. In 1895, President Pierola delivered a Proyecto de Ley Orgánica de Instrucción, a project for re-organizing education. Under his government the provision of primary education increased and technical education was introduced at secondary level. The Proyecto de Ley Organica de Instrucción became law in 1901 and education remained divided into primary, provided in schools of first and second degree, secondary provided in colleges and lyceums and higher education in universities and special institutes. Six Escuelas Normales were created. Higher education was conceived as autonomous but under the inspection of the Superior Council of Instruccion. Pierola had a very critical viewpoint of education. Before introducing his reforms, addressing Congress in 1897, he said:

"Primary education is completely disproportionate to the huge budget it has been assigned. The secondary education causes serious concern. For a long time I have not been in direct contact with our schools but I have in front of me its poor fruits."(4)

This criticism was a summary of the state of Peruvian education, where a great majority of Indians were living and working in extremely poor conditions in rural areas deprived of any access to education.

President Pardo realized that educational reforms were necessary and that an increase in the percentage of people receiving primary education was required. Pardo followed his father's educational policies introducing taxes to finance the educational budget. Under his government, adult education started formally. In 1905 two evening schools for workers and a secondary school for females were organized. The teachers created their union and several educational magazines and journals were published. Pardo brought German educational missions to re-organize secondary education. In order to encourage students to study abroad a scholarship system was introduced.

(4) Ponz Muzzo G.
"Política del Estado Peruano" quoting El Mensaje del Presidente Pierola al Congreso Peruano en 1897", p.16
Editorial Inca
Lima 1964.

In 1907, the first social opinions of a new generation of intellectuals led by Jose de la Riva Agüero was voiced. It accused education of being a factory of poorly trained bureaucratic professionals. It is thought that the lack of pragmatic orientation led education to be inefficient. Higher education was unable to continue the educational process initiated in primary and secondary. The education they received was dull, and there was a lack of dialogue between teachers and students. Consequently a critical generation of students was created. Pardo's second government continued the development of education. Some 700 school buildings were erected throughout the country. The Student Union of San Marcos University was founded and the Catholic University was set up by the religious order of Sacred Hearts.

In 1910 the government of Leguía named a Commission in charge of reforming education. Three years later a study that advocated six years of primary education and four of secondary was presented. The creation of the Pedagogic Faculty in the University of San Marcos was also proposed, aiming at teaching training. During Leguía's second term in office an Organic Law of Teaching (1920) and the University Statute (1928) were issued. The Organic Law of Teaching involved four main topics related to:

- (a) administration of education and its provision across the country
- (b) primary education and professional teaching. The latter was compulsory, and in two cycles of two and three years respectively. It regulated also the teaching of Spanish to the Indians, and professional education provided the skills for becoming a rural, industrial or domestic teacher.
- (c) Secondary education had two cycles of two and three years respectively. It had a longer curriculum and was provided by the State and private institutions. A special statute

legislated private education.

- (d) Higher education continued to be provided by the State institutions (with the exception of Catholic University) but the new statute allowed individuals and institutions to open universities.

Between 1923 and 1930, essays of one of the most brilliant Peruvian and Latin American thinkers, José Carlos Mariátegui were published. In his essay "Proceso a la Instrucción Pública", he made a critical summary of Peruvian education during the first one hundred years of independence. He assumed that:

"in the process of public instruction as in other aspects of our life, it is possible to see the superposition of foreign elements. This problem comes from the very heart of Peru, after the conquest. We are not people who assimilate ideas and men from other nations impregnating them with our sentiments and landscape. We are people that coexist, without understanding each other. Indians and conquerors. Peru is the republic of the conquerors more than of the Indians. National education was not born from a national spirit, it has a colonial spirit. When in the Public Instruction Programmes the State refers to the indians, it does not refer to them as Peruvians, as everybody else. They are considered as an inferior race. The republic is not different from the viceroyalty."

Furthermore he added:

"The balance of the first century of the republic closes with a great deficiency of public education. The problem of indian illiteracy still remain. The State has not diffused education over the whole territory. The disproportion between material means and the size is enormous. For the implementation of a modest programme of popular education, there is a great lack of teachers. At primary education it is less than 20%. The result at Escuelas Normales does not allow many illusions about the possibilities of solving the problem in the short term. The career of a teacher is a miserable one. The problem of indian illiteracy is greater and goes beyond the narrow concept of a pedagogical plan. Every day it is possible to prove that the teaching of illiterates is not educational at all. The first real step towards their liberation must be the abolition of their serfdom."(5)

- (5) Mariátegui, J. C. "Proceso a la Instrucción Pública" Published in "Siete Ensayos de la Realidad Peruana", p.90 Empresa Editora Amauta Lima 1965.

The overthrowing of Leguia's government was followed by a period of anarchy that ended with the political assassination of General Sanchez Cerro, the president of a military junta that succeeded Leguia. The political chaos was reflected in poor education and when Manuel Prado assumed the government in 1939, there was a lack of schools and teachers across the country. It can be assumed that in rural towns, education rarely existed. The following figures used by Roberto McLean y Estenos are taken from 1940's census and present us with a view of the educational situation.

TABLE 1

EDUCATIONAL SITUATION IN 1940⁽⁶⁾

DEPARTMENTS	SCHOOL POPULATION	WITH INSTRUCTION	WITHOUT INSTRUCTION	% WITHOUT INSTRUCTION	TEACHERS	SCHOOLS
Coast						
Tumbes	7.016	3.276	3.740	53%	62	49
Lima	172.802	128.632	44.170	25%	1552	523
Moquegua	8.291	3.065	5.226	63%	73	50
Highland						
Arequipa	61.513	34.942	26.571	43%	631	339
Apurimac	85.782	8.812	49.970	85%	231	195
Puno	131.039	15,397	115.642	88%	330	222
Jungle						
Madre de Dios	1.180	732	448	38%	20	15
Amazonas	15.078	6.277	8.801	58%	163	126
Loreto	42.929	19,082	28.847	55%	352	187

To improve this poor educational record, Manuel Prado started an educational expansion policy. More than two thousand primary schools were erected; an Institute of Educational Research was created; vocational education was given first priority. But perhaps his most valuable contribution was a new law of education issued in 1941. The law tried to eliminate the bureaucracy that

(6) MacLean y Estenos R.
 "Sociología Educativa del Perú"
 Universidad de San Marcos
 Lima 1942.

in the Peruvian educational system was chaotic. Unfortunately, despite that efforts as in other ABA countries the bureaucracy still posed a problem. It also wanted to do away with the professional liberalism which was a characteristic of Peruvian higher education. However, this was difficult to put into practice, because it is a problem beyond the scope of educational reforms. It is a problem that calls for a change in attitudes.

2. THE DEVELOPMENT OF PERUVIAN EDUCATION SINCE 1940 UNTIL THE MILITARY TOOK OVER THE PRESENT GOVERNMENT

The educational process in Peru has received a considerable impetus during the last four decades and its general development has been as follows:

(a) Pre-primary or nursery education, began in Lima in 1930 under the influence of Montessori's philosophy and was associated with charity and the Roman Catholic Church. In theory it was supposed to be linked to school curriculum, but in some cases, because of the lack of resources both human and financial, it became a place where children were kept while their parents worked. By 1969, some 400 pre-primary State schools, most of which were located in urban areas, met this educational requirement.

(b) Primary education was offered in a variety of schools closely associated with Peru's social stratification. For example in the highlands the Indians attended rural schools; the jungle Indians attended bilingual schools, the half breeds attended urban primary and private schools, and the whites attended private schools only. In 1965 primary education flourished as a consequence of government policies and of the external aid channelled through the Alliance for Progress. In 1963 some 1,680,000 students were enrolled in primary education, but by 1968, there were 2,385,000, the expansion was 41.8%. This phenomenon encouraged the expansion of secondary and higher education in the following years. However, secondary and higher education were not prepared to absorb this increased demand. Only white and "mestizo" children were fortunate to finish primary education and go to secondary level. In 1960 the drop out

rate was 32% for the whole country, but the highest rates were in the highlands and jungle regions, where factors such as students, the need to work, family economic problems, malnutrition and imobility to attend school were and are the common causes of drop outs. Poor teacher training was another failure of the Peruvian education until this present government established re-training courses. Peruvian teachers are grouped in three different categories after salaries and certificates. The first category includes those who had university and Escuela Normal training. The second one is for those who have just finished secondary education but do not have pedagogical specialization, and the third those who may have finished their primary education, but in most cases are teaching in the highlands or the jungle. Each category has subcategories depending on the number of years of service and experience.

(c) Secondary education continued to be modelled on European models during the last forty years preparing an elite of middle and upper classes to go on to higher education. In 1941 secondary education was divided into academic and technical sections, each with separate budgets, staff administration, curriculum and school buildings. The academic section continued the traditional pre-university function. Technical education began to develop the industrial, commercial and agricultural schools in order to train enough manpower required by the expanding economy of the country. In recent years technical education has generally increased its enrolment in the various programmes offered.

(d) Higher education, between 1940 and 1968, had a big demand in consequence of the expansion in every other educational level. In 1960 the National Interuniversity Planning Department warned the public that in 1970 only 40,000 of the 110,000 university candidates would be able to secure admission to a first year university programme. The inadequacy of university education and the poor secondary preparation of the other 70,000 could not secure them a place to continue their studies. They could not work either since the academic secondary education did and does

not prepare students for working. On the other hand, the occupational field could not absorb them, whether they were prepared or not. But this was not the only problem of Peruvian education in those days or nowadays. There are problems with the structure of the university and its relation with the country and with the community. For a long time lecturers and students have been trying to change the situation and reform the university, but they have been faced with strong opposition from groups that held the power for maintaining the status quo. There were periods when the university was closed for more than a year. Peruvian universities as all ABA countries universities, do not have adequate planning neither do they offer equal opportunity to all; they are selective, elitistic and competitive.

THE SOCIAL FRAMEWORK OF PERUVIAN EDUCATION AND ITS ORGANIZATION

Since the last world war, Peru has experienced a great pressure for change in its economic and social spheres. Rapid population growth, a large scale internal migration from the highlands and the jungle to the coast, a school-aged population increasing at a more rapid rate than the general population, have reached the point of saturation in presently developed areas.

Peru remains sharply divided as to the merits and demerits of the many social types that populate the nation. However, the white and mestizos have always been classified as the Peruvian upper and middle strata respectively. The lower classes are formed by two distinct groups (a) the Indians, both in the highlands and jungle, who are the marginal group cut off from the western economical and social life and (b) the Cholo who are the Indians that have adapted in some way to Peruvian modern society. In Peruvian social stratification, every social strata has come to be historically linked with a different social educational subsystem. The following table structured by Rolland G. Paulston shows us this phenomenon.

(7) Paulston Rolland "Society School and Progress in Peru"
Pergamon Press, p.94
Oxford 1971.

TABLE 2

PERUVIAN SOCIOCULTURAL AND EDUCATIONAL STRATIFICATION (7)

SUB-CULTURE	LOCATION IN SOCIAL HIERARCHY	LOCATION	LANGUAGES SPOKEN	OCCUPATION ATTENDED	SCHOOL USUALLY	USUAL LENGTH OF SCHOOLING
BLANCO	UPPER	URBAN LIMA ABROAD	SPANISH AND OTHER EUROPEAN	OWNERS	ELITE PRIVATE SCHOOL (LIMA-ABROAD)	UNIVERSITY LEVEL STUDY IN LIMA AND ABROAD
ENTRANCE HIGHLY RESTRICTED USING SOCIOECONOMIC, CULTURAL AND GENETIC CRITERIA						
MESTIZO	MIDDLE (LOWER MIDDLE THROUGH UPPER MIDDLE)	URBAN PROV. AND LIMA	MOSTLY SPANISH	MANAGER PROFESSIONAL BUREAU-CRATS SKILLED WORKERS	LESSER PRIVATE SCHOOL IN LARGE CITIES	HIGH SCHOOL AND STUDY AT UNIVERSITY LEVEL (NAT. SCHOOL IN LIMA OR PROV. CITIES)
ACCESS OPEN BUT RESTRICTED AND CONTESTS CULTURAL CRITERIA						
CHOLO	LOWER (LOWER THROUGH UPPER LOWER)	URBAN RURAL (MIGRATORY)	INDIGENOUS QUECHUA AIMARA SPANISH	UNSKILLED WORKERS VENDORS SOLDIERS ETC.	PUBLIC SCHOOLS	PRIMARY AND SOME SECONDARY IN LARGE CITIES
SOCIAL MOBILITY BLOCKED, ACCULTURATION ENCOURAGED AND REWARDED IN URBAN SETTING, RESTRICTED AND RURAL						
INDIAN	MARGINAL	RURAL	INDIGENOUS QUECHUA OR AIMARA (MALES SOME SPANISH	AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS SMALL FARMERS	NUCLEAR INDIAN SCHOOL OF THE SIERRA BI-LINGUAL JUNGLE SCHOOLS	SEVERAL YEARS PRIMARY OR UNSCHOOLED

(7) Paulston Polland "Society School and Progress in Peru" Pergamon Press, p.94 Oxford 1971.

Since its beginning, Peruvian education has been highly centralized. The leading official is the Minister of Education who has the responsibility of controlling the whole system. Despite regional, sectoral and zonal offices, several attempts have failed to de-centralize Peruvian education. During the last decades the amount allocated to the national budget has been increased. This has allowed an increase in the development of the educational system but it is thought that the quality of education has declined. Teachers in overcrowded classrooms and lack of resources of all kinds are the main characteristics of educational organization, to which is added a great bureaucratic system.

The main aim of Peruvian education is the unification of a heterogenous social and cultural country. This aim has not been fulfilled as the whole educational process has been since its origin divorced of the country's idiosyncrasy. Instead Peruvian education and its administrative system have tried to implant western educational values in the youth of the nation. This clearly reflects the tradition of Peruvian history embodied in the prolonged colonization of the educational system. A system that has become increasingly dysfunctional in terms of growing demands for increasing social justice and national development. As in every ABA country, Peru has established planning services, but there has been a gap between planning and execution. Between 1949 and 1953 with Prado and Odria as presidents, the government with North American support projected long term educational plans. A special programme for building schools was set up and through the Grandes Unidades Escolares, a group of schools providing primary, secondary and technical education were completed.

In 1964, Fernando Belaunde was elected president. He made an organic framework for educational planning, but there was a lack of cooperation among institutions involved in education. Nevertheless a middle range plan was settled in 1964. It covered several fields of the educational process, but as always the emphasis was on building

schools. In October 1968, a Military Junta overthrew Presidente Belaunde and reformed the provision of education in Peru.

THE PRESENT EDUCATIONAL REFORM

At the end of 1968, the Armed Forces took power once again in Perú, this time under the leadership of Juan Velasco A., and a group of officials that has been governing the country since that date. They proclaimed their government as non capitalist and non communist, but as a humanitarian government within the framework of Western Christian ideology. Since its early days, the new government has tried to become popular, but since the military have a past history of suppressing the Peruvian people, especially over APRA, the people's party, it has been very difficult for them to reach at the grass roots of the Peruvians. Even the creation of SINAMOS (National System of Supporting the Social Mobilization) a body in charge of community development and government propaganda, has done little to improve popular support. Politically, the government has been supported by the Christian Democrats and the Communists, but the ultra left has opposed them in every corner of the country, especially in the universities and in the SUTEP (Sindicato Unico de Trabajadores de la Educacion) the teachers' unions whose leaders have often been repressed or sent into exile. The rightists have also opposed the government. They have tried to produce a division of the Military Junta since the beginning, pushing the Navy and the Air Force, the more conservative sectors of the Armed Forces to oppose a government led by the Army which has always been more popular.

A series of economic reforms have been achieved. A programme of nationalization was introduced which includes oil, mining, the banks and the fishing industry. An Agrarian Reform was put into practice as well as an Educational Reform.

The Educational Reform was planned by the Ministry of Education experts and was put into practice without consulting teachers or

parents. Two aspects of the educational system were pinpointed (a) the high drop out rate and educational wastage and (b) the growing rate of illiteracy that in some ways was a failure of the educational system. As a result of the socioeconomic situation the majority of Peruvians never go to school or they arrive late. The few who have found a place are unable to adapt to a new world of concepts, techniques and values made for children of other social groups or for urban people. Since colonial times the highland and jungle Indians have been deprived of education, but during the last twenty years they have been given the chance of getting some education. As in other ABA countries, the Peruvian educational system failed to provide equal educational opportunity to all and to solve impeding socioeducational problems like drop out, absenteeism, illiteracy, etc. Theoretically, the Educational Reform was meant to remedy the situation and provide solutions to the existing problems. It sought to fulfil three great aims which could be formulated as follows: (a) education for work and development, (b) education for socioeconomic changes, responsible for shaping new and favourable attitudes in the people in order to bring about changes in the socioeconomic structure, (c) education for Peruvian values. Education should not ignore the serious problem of alienation, poverty and disintegration which affect Peruvian society. Goals were divided into short term and long term. Of the short term goals, the implementation of the new system in 1971 and the coordination with other social reforms appeared to be the more important, whereas reducing the rate of illiteracy and training teachers and administrative staff were considered fundamental. In the long run, the educational reform sought to erradicate illiteracy and provide basic education for all the population. It also hoped to provide educational opportunity for all. The new educational system consists of levels, modes and cycles as it is shown in the following table.

this table there are notes such as pop-based ed, etc. regular education, special education, etc. (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g) (h) (i) (j) (k) (l) (m) (n) (o) (p) (q) (r) (s) (t) (u) (v) (w) (x) (y) (z) (aa) (ab) (ac) (ad) (ae) (af) (ag) (ah) (ai) (aj) (ak) (al) (am) (an) (ao) (ap) (aq) (ar) (as) (at) (au) (av) (aw) (ax) (ay) (az) (ba) (bb) (bc) (bd) (be) (bf) (bg) (bh) (bi) (bj) (bk) (bl) (bm) (bn) (bo) (bp) (bq) (br) (bs) (bt) (bu) (bv) (bw) (bx) (by) (bz) (ca) (cb) (cc) (cd) (ce) (cf) (cg) (ch) (ci) (cj) (ck) (cl) (cm) (cn) (co) (cp) (cq) (cr) (cs) (ct) (cu) (cv) (cw) (cx) (cy) (cz) (da) (db) (dc) (dd) (de) (df) (dg) (dh) (di) (dj) (dk) (dl) (dm) (dn) (do) (dp) (dq) (dr) (ds) (dt) (du) (dv) (dw) (dx) (dy) (dz) (ea) (eb) (ec) (ed) (ee) (ef) (eg) (eh) (ei) (ej) (ek) (el) (em) (en) (eo) (ep) (eq) (er) (es) (et) (eu) (ev) (ew) (ex) (ey) (ez) (fa) (fb) (fc) (fd) (fe) (ff) (fg) (fh) (fi) (fj) (fk) (fl) (fm) (fn) (fo) (fp) (fq) (fr) (fs) (ft) (fu) (fv) (fw) (fx) (fy) (fz) (ga) (gb) (gc) (gd) (ge) (gf) (gg) (gh) (gi) (gj) (gk) (gl) (gm) (gn) (go) (gp) (gq) (gr) (gs) (gt) (gu) (gv) (gw) (gx) (gy) (gz) (ha) (hb) (hc) (hd) (he) (hf) (hg) (hh) (hi) (hj) (hk) (hl) (hm) (hn) (ho) (hp) (hq) (hr) (hs) (ht) (hu) (hv) (hw) (hx) (hy) (hz) (ia) (ib) (ic) (id) (ie) (if) (ig) (ih) (ii) (ij) (ik) (il) (im) (in) (io) (ip) (iq) (ir) (is) (it) (iu) (iv) (iw) (ix) (iy) (iz) (ja) (jb) (jc) (jd) (je) (jf) (jg) (jh) (ji) (jj) (jk) (jl) (jm) (jn) (jo) (jp) (jq) (jr) (js) (jt) (ju) (jv) (jw) (jx) (jy) (jz) (ka) (kb) (kc) (kd) (ke) (kf) (kg) (kh) (ki) (kj) (kk) (kl) (km) (kn) (ko) (kp) (kq) (kr) (ks) (kt) (ku) (kv) (kw) (kx) (ky) (kz) (la) (lb) (lc) (ld) (le) (lf) (lg) (lh) (li) (lj) (lk) (ll) (lm) (ln) (lo) (lp) (lq) (lr) (ls) (lt) (lu) (lv) (lw) (lx) (ly) (lz) (ma) (mb) (mc) (md) (me) (mf) (mg) (mh) (mi) (mj) (mk) (ml) (mm) (mn) (mo) (mp) (mq) (mr) (ms) (mt) (mu) (mv) (mw) (mx) (my) (mz) (na) (nb) (nc) (nd) (ne) (nf) (ng) (nh) (ni) (nj) (nk) (nl) (nm) (nn) (no) (np) (nq) (nr) (ns) (nt) (nu) (nv) (nw) (nx) (ny) (nz) (oa) (ob) (oc) (od) (oe) (of) (og) (oh) (oi) (oj) (ok) (ol) (om) (on) (oo) (op) (oq) (or) (os) (ot) (ou) (ov) (ow) (ox) (oy) (oz) (pa) (pb) (pc) (pd) (pe) (pf) (pg) (ph) (pi) (pj) (pk) (pl) (pm) (pn) (po) (pp) (pq) (pr) (ps) (pt) (pu) (pv) (pw) (px) (py) (pz) (qa) (qb) (qc) (qd) (qe) (qf) (qg) (qh) (qi) (qj) (qk) (ql) (qm) (qn) (qo) (qp) (qq) (qr) (qs) (qt) (qu) (qv) (qw) (qx) (qy) (qz) (ra) (rb) (rc) (rd) (re) (rf) (rg) (rh) (ri) (rj) (rk) (rl) (rm) (rn) (ro) (rp) (rq) (rr) (rs) (rt) (ru) (rv) (rw) (rx) (ry) (rz) (sa) (sb) (sc) (sd) (se) (sf) (sg) (sh) (si) (sj) (sk) (sl) (sm) (sn) (so) (sp) (sq) (sr) (ss) (st) (su) (sv) (sw) (sx) (sy) (sz) (ta) (tb) (tc) (td) (te) (tf) (tg) (th) (ti) (tj) (tk) (tl) (tm) (tn) (to) (tp) (tq) (tr) (ts) (tt) (tu) (tv) (tw) (tx) (ty) (tz) (ua) (ub) (uc) (ud) (ue) (uf) (ug) (uh) (ui) (uj) (uk) (ul) (um) (un) (uo) (up) (uq) (ur) (us) (ut) (uu) (uv) (uw) (ux) (uy) (uz) (va) (vb) (vc) (vd) (ve) (vf) (vg) (vh) (vi) (vj) (vk) (vl) (vm) (vn) (vo) (vp) (vq) (vr) (vs) (vt) (vu) (vv) (vw) (vx) (vy) (vz) (wa) (wb) (wc) (wd) (we) (wf) (wg) (wh) (wi) (wj) (wk) (wl) (wm) (wn) (wo) (wp) (wq) (wr) (ws) (wt) (wu) (wv) (ww) (wx) (wy) (wz) (xa) (xb) (xc) (xd) (xe) (xf) (xg) (xh) (xi) (xj) (xk) (xl) (xm) (xn) (xo) (xp) (xq) (xr) (xs) (xt) (xu) (xv) (xw) (xx) (xy) (xz) (ya) (yb) (yc) (yd) (ye) (yf) (yg) (yh) (yi) (yj) (yk) (yl) (ym) (yn) (yo) (yp) (yq) (yr) (ys) (yt) (yu) (yv) (yw) (yx) (yy) (yz) (za) (zb) (zc) (zd) (ze) (zf) (zg) (zh) (zi) (zj) (zk) (zl) (zm) (zn) (zo) (zp) (zq) (zr) (zs) (zt) (zu) (zv) (zw) (zx) (zy) (zz)

(b) - Retorno de la Educación Primaria
Educativa General
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Peru 1971

TABLE 3

NEW EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM: STRUCTURE⁽⁸⁾

LEVELS	TYPES	CYCLES
INITIAL EDUCATION	-	-
BASIC EDUCATION	REGULAR	1-2-3
	LABOUR	
	SPECIAL EDUCATION	
	PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION	
	EXTRAORDINARY EDUCATION	
HIGHER EDUCATION	REGULAR	1-2-3
	PROFESSIONAL FOR YOUNG AND ADULTS OUT OF THE REGULAR SYSTEM	

According to the Peruvian Educational Reform, the division of the system into levels, modes and cycles meets the requirements of the population better, and provides the necessary variety of possibilities in the professional field. The three levels are based on stages of personal development. Initial education is based on the need of providing education to children from their early years. Basic education is prolonged to nine years so that most Peruvians would be adequately prepared for work and life. This cycle is divided into 4, 2 and 3 degrees, based on psychological criteria and learning progression. To develop the new system the inadequacies of the old one were considered. The system has various educational modes forming a coordinated set. There is a central mode of formal education that is the trunk of the system. Besides this mode there are modes such as non-formal education, labour education, special education, etc. Every mode has several varieties

(8) Reforma de la Educación Peruana
Informe General
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú 1973.

related to the socioeconomic and regional needs. In addition to the three levels, the system may be extended to allow other forms of education.

Initial education is aimed at providing children up to 5 years old with the necessary stimuli and experiences to develop their personal capabilities. It also aimed at training the community in the basic norms of family education. In setting up educational programmes, Initial Education did so in accordance with other sectors such as health, housing, social security and the community in general.

Basic education is defined as the axis of the educational system. It consists of nine degrees grouped into three cycles for children between six and fifteen years old. There are four years in the first cycle, two in the second one and three in the third. Every cycle is a unit in itself and allows the acquisition of minimal knowledge, attitudes and abilities. Basic education aims at securing the biological and physiological development necessary for acquiring basic scientific, technical and humanistic knowledge. According to the Educational Reform the main characteristics of Basic education are the following:

- (a) it is compulsory for children between 6 and 15 years old,
- (b) it tries to develop in the student a critical consciousness, and awareness of human solidarity and capacity for working in groups. Through Basic education the student undergoes a process of learning while being supervised by teachers
- (c) assessment will refer to two fundamental aspects, curriculum and student assimilation, teachers must constantly evaluate the structure and content of the programme and revise it as the need arises
- (d) promotion will be made degree by degree and it will be a flexible system. This allows advanced

students to move up and also allows slow learners to have an additional period before they are promoted to a higher degree.

Basic education takes into consideration the geographical, socioeconomic and cultural differences. This is done through plans and programmes of studies which are set by the Programa Nacional de Temas Centrales. These are a national curriculum guidelines that apply up and down the country.

Higher education involves three distinct cycles of study. The first one leads to the Professional Baccalaureat, the second to a Professional degree and the third to a Masters or a Doctorate degree. The first cycle is for the graduate of Basic education level. It focusses on the vocational orientation received in the last years. The needs of the country dictate the enrolment in the various fields. Two types of students qualify for this cycle: those who hope to study and work at the same time and those who do not have to work. The educational content is either general, focussing on language, mathematics, natural sciences, social sciences or professional centred on careers. This cycle is given by institutions called Escuelas Superiores de Educación Profesional (ESEP) which are financed by the State. The ESEP's have their own administration and organization. They operate in a similar manner to universities.

The third cycle concerns the university. It is fundamental in the educational process and is an indispensable instrument for economic and social change. It includes specialized studies as well as postgraduate courses undertaken on semestral basis. All the Peruvian universities comply with the System of Peruvian University, a set of laws and statements that rule Higher education. The governing body of any Peruvian university consists of the National University Assembly and the National Council of the Peruvian University. The National University Assembly is a body

which checks that the university meets the particular needs of the country. It also supervises the planning and development of the university. The composition of the university itself has a president elected by the assembly. Lecturers and students have their own representatives as well. The National University Assembly elect the Executive Council and both committees constitute the National Council of the Peruvian University. The function of the National Council of the Peruvian University is to direct, to plan and supervise. The role of the Permanent Office of the National Council extends to planning, financing, evaluation, lecturer training, and student welfare. The academic organization of the university deals with teaching research and social activities. This organization consists of two departments, the Academic Department and the Academic Centre. The Academic Department coordinates the teaching and research of the various university departments. The Academic Centre involves both lecturers and students in a specific career. The Central body of the university includes the University Assembly, the Rector and the Executive Council of the University. The University Assembly is the highest institution in the university where lecturers, students and administrative staff are represented. The Rector and the Executive Council are elected by the University Assembly. The third cycle involves studies which lead to the Master or Doctorate in Philosophy. It aims to offer specialized training at higher levels and to develop research. This cycle is for those who have completed the second cycle of Higher education. The following picture shows us the organizational structure of Peruvian education from initial to higher education.⁽⁹⁾

(9) National Planning of Development 1971-1975 Vol.
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú 1975.

TABLE 4
NEW SYSTEM STRUCTURE

Ph.D.		II CYCLE	
UNIVERSITY. INAE (NATIONAL INSTITUTE HIGHER STUDIES)		II CYCLE	
MASTER UNIVERSITY LICENCIATE	OTHER SCHOOLS	II CYCLE	HIGHER LEVEL
ESEP (S.S.P.E.)		I CYCLE	
BACCALAUREATE			15 years old
9th SCHOOL YEAR		III CYCLE	
8th SCHOOL YEAR		III CYCLE	
7th SCHOOL YEAR		III CYCLE	
6th SCHOOL YEAR		II CYCLE	
5th SCHOOL YEAR		II CYCLE	BASIC LEVEL
4th SCHOOL YEAR			
3rd SCHOOL YEAR		I CYCLE	
2nd SCHOOL YEAR		I CYCLE	
1st SCHOOL YEAR		I CYCLE	6 5 years old
NURSERIES			3 years old
CRECHES			0 years old

Initial Level

Basic Labour education is a programme for adults that for different reasons are incapable of taking advantage of the regular educational opportunities. Its main purpose is to raise the educational standards in adults. It is also concerned with making the Peruvian people aware of their own condition, enabling them to work on projects related to their socioeconomic situation and facilitating professional readaptation. Basic Labour education tries to accomplish the following:

- (a) to simplify the educational process for the student combining formal teaching and self-teaching,
- (b) to promote the attitude and habits necessary for lifelong education.

It is geared towards those above 15 years of age who did not receive basic education. The two areas of Basic Labour education are general education and work related activities. These areas vary from one region to the other because they are based on the particular needs of the population.

Extraordinary Professional Qualification provides workers with various degrees of qualifications to meet the individual needs. It aims at qualified manpower for industry and to training both the young and the mature people in different skills. These educational programmes are given at Training Centres as well as in industries and enterprises.

Special education is meant to serve people with either social, physical or psychological problems. It aims at rehabilitating and incorporating the handicapped into the community. It is not limited to any age and begins when problems have been detected. It has a similar structure to other types of education.

THE EDUCATIONAL COMMUNAL NUCLEI

Perhaps one of the best theoretical educational approaches in

the ABA countries is the organization of educational services through an Educational Communal Nuclei that the Peruvians are trying to implement with their reform. Prior to the educational reform, education was centred on the school, secondly there was no coordination of the various schools and the various levels of the educational process. Both these inadequacies were remedied with the introduction of the Educational Reform. The Educational Nuclei system is an old educational approach that was introduced in Peru after the second world war by the Peruvian-North American Cooperative Educational Service (SECPANE) but the project lost strength with the withdrawal of SECPANE in 1961. In 1962 the government phased out the project but ten years later, it was reintroduced by the present Military Junta.

The current Peruvian Educational Law Reform is trying to organize the educational process according to the nuclearization system. The Educational Communal Nuclei is seen as:

"the basic community organization for the coordination and management of educational services used by education within a specific geographical area for the promotion of community life."(10)

The main principles of this system are:

- (a) Communal participation, it considers the educational process as a social function which implies the right and the obligation of the community to take part directly or individually in education mainly through initiatives and day to day problem solving.
- (b) Sectorial actions; since the resources of the country are limited, the cooperation of every sector is required. Through the services of the Educational Communal Nuclei the duplication of efforts is avoided and the exchange of experiences and the participation of the community is made feasible.

(10) El Núcleo Educativo Comunal
Dirección de Programación de la Educación
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú 1973.

(c) The rationing of resources: the nuclear system aims at rationing human, financial and material resources. It also aspires to the best use of communal educational potential facilitating the planning, administration, supervision and control of the educational process. It encourages local participation and sharing of responsibilities and functions.

The nuclearization is conceived within the process of educational reform as an approach to the Peruvian reality, with the purpose of coordinating activities. It also meant to reinforce the educational actions in every educational centre, allowing the family and the communal institutions to take part. Summarizing, nuclearization tries to integrate the community within a process that overcomes classroom limitations, through the best use of the resources in every geographical area. This does not minimize the role of the school, which remains as the key element in the educative system. It means integrating the school in the community's social and natural environments. Progress towards this definitive integration necessitates that the Educational Communal Nuclei be flexible, accessible, and that it provides formal and non-formal educational opportunities to all sectors and all age groups. It also necessitates that its laboratories, workshops and libraries, not to mention the advice and assistance of its personnel, be at the disposal of the community. It is at least equally important for the community to make facilities available for the purpose of education. Each educational Communal Nuclei lies within a demarcated territory, determined by considerations of geographical, economic, demographic and social homogeneity and including such potentially valuable components as industries, museums, commercial organizations, sports clubs, neighbouring associations, cinemas, youth clubs, hospitals etc., in addition to all educational institutions and facilities. In the same way the promotion of intersectoral activities would help in the coordination of programmes in areas such as health, agriculture, labour etc.

ORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL COMMUNAL NUCLEI

Each Educational Communal Nuclei has a Central Director of the nuclei and comprises a variable number of five to fifteen educational centres. Each Educational Communal Nuclei has a demarcated geographical territory with a population of 2,000 to 4,000 inhabitants. In the rural areas where the population disperses, the educational centres which depend on the Central Director will be numerous, for it is attempted to create an educational centre for every 100 peasant families. In the urban areas of more than 2,000 inhabitants, two or more Central Directors of the Nuclei should exist. For every ten or more Educational Communal Nuclei should be necessary the existence of Subzonal coordination, which should be founded in populations of more than 3,000 inhabitants. The system works on the basis of the integration of the educational centres into networks of continuous integration. In synthesis, the idea is to try to join the isolated and dispersed schools to create a net of educational services. Teachers who work in every Educational Communal Nuclei will form the Teachers Community of the Nuclei, members of the families, local trade unions, local institutions and local authorities would be represented equally in the Communal Educational Council. The Communal Educational Council would play an important role in community participation, specially in areas such as the highlands, where communication is a problem. It represents a further step towards de-centralization. Moreover, the Communal Educational Council membership is drawn from local inhabitants who are aware of the prevailing conditions. The Director of the Communal Educational Nuclei also benefits from the advice of the Teachers Community of the Nuclei made up with teachers with specialization in curricula, educational extension, students' welfare, as well as in advising on technical and educational matters. On the basis of an educational plan and the situational diagnosis, the Teachers Community of the Nuclei submits an operational plan to the Zonal Planning Office describing the work of the Nuclei during the year, indicating the problems encountered and possible solutions

to those problems. Most of the educational centres which make up the nuclei have their own director and teaching staff and the advisory body which serves much the same purpose as the Communal Educational Council at the Base Centre. Leaving aside the single-teacher school still found in remote rural areas such as the jungle, the nuclei as a whole would offer Initial Education, Vocational Training, Educational Extension Works and to a limited extent, special programmes for the handicapped with the promotion of rural areas and bilingual instruction. Where necessary all these programmes would be in conjunction with non-formal educational activities and would make the Communal Educational Nuclei a new form of education aimed at developing the country.

ADVANTAGES OF THE NUCLEARIZATION ACCORDING TO THE EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The educational policies stated by the government of the Armed Forces considered that the nuclearization system is only possible as an instrument for developing the country within a new concept of education. This means a radical criticism of the existing educational system and at the same time putting education back into the hands of the community. This statement agrees to the principle of "educacion no escolarizada" (which is the combination of school education with programmes of non-formal education, serving students enrolled in the school as well as the people in the community, through the Communal Educational Nuclei). It is thought that the nuclearization should produce the following advantages:

- (a) The territorial demarcation of the Communal Educational Nuclei should overcome the concept of "school population" because the function of the Communal Educational Nuclei should be to give educational service to the whole population. At the same time it should allow the integration of dispersed schools which are unproductive due to their isolation.
- (b) The participation of the communal institutions

would minimize public expenditure in education, while extending educational services and increasing the use of human and material resources.

The diagram below shows us the comparison of educational possibilities between the old educational system and the nuclear one.

TABLE 5

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE OLD EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND THE NUCLEAR ONE⁽¹¹⁾

CONDITIONS OF THE OLD SYSTEM OF EDUCATION	AIMS OF THE NUCLEAR SYSTEM
a) The school is isolated from the national reality monopolizing the "knowledge" and working in old buildings in poor conditions.	a) Communal Educational Nuclei concerned with using available resources with educational potential to meet the needs of the Peruvian society.
b) It gives education to students enrolled in academic and elitist programmes.	b) Education is extended to the whole population.
c) There is little cooperation between the educational institutions and the community.	c) A net of Educational Centres is established for giving Communal Education.
d) Teachers are poorly trained, have low wages and work in several places without motivation for improving their profession.	d) Teachers have a social function in addition to their specializations. They receive better salaries and can follow better careers.
e) The centralization of the educational system render inoperative.	e) The State supports the participation of the community in education.
f) Educational model is inefficient because of its obsolete technology and huge cost.	f) Mass education is viewed with perspectives, through proper allocations of expenditures to available resources.

(11) El Núcleo Educativo Comunal, *ibid.*, Dirección de Programación de la Educación Ministerio de Educación Lima-Perú 1973.

REQUIREMENTS AND PRIORITIES FOR ACHIEVING EDUCATIONAL REFORM

According to the Minister of Education and other bodies involved, the Peruvian Educational Reform could not be achieved without a new administrative system and without retraining teachers. The educational bureaucracy was reformed between 1970 and 1972, but the Peruvian educational system was still highly centralized in Lima. Although it has a theoretical administrative regionalization, the decision making body and all the sector bodies, including those responsible for curriculum planning for the highlands and jungle regions are still located in the capital. The complete retraining of teachers took five years from 1971 to 1975. It was based on the ideology and educational belief of the new government. It is through teacher retraining that the reform was brought about. New ideas as the lifelong education concept were introduced. Emphasis was placed on nationalistic values, the solidarity in the Third World and the ideological position of the government. Lifelong education is tried to be implemented through the Basic Labour education and through Educational Extension. Basic Labour education involves non-school activities for adults which would allow them to continue the educational process. It is thought that Basic Labour education would reduce the educational deficit. As enrolment in regular education increases, the need for Basic Labour education will be reduced permitting the development of lifelong education for adults in the widest sense. In theory Educational Extension is a set of actions inside and outside the school system, which provides lifelong education through different means as mass media, conferences and seminars.

The educational reform is just one of the components of a large plan of changes introduced by the Peruvian government. The amalgamation of the educational and social sector within a national plan of development has been very difficult because unlike the economic sector, little is known about the quantitative relation between the educational service and the rate of development of the

economy. The more important purposes of the National Plan of Development are: (a) to accelerate the development of the country, (b) to increase production, (c) to transfer rural property to the peasants and (d) to increase work opportunities. The National Plan was involved in formulating intermediate steps in the educational sector. It is necessary to point out that in the middle range plan in the education sector, the aims, the purposes and the policies require longer terms than those considered in the National Development Plan, because the building up of the new educational system would take eight years.

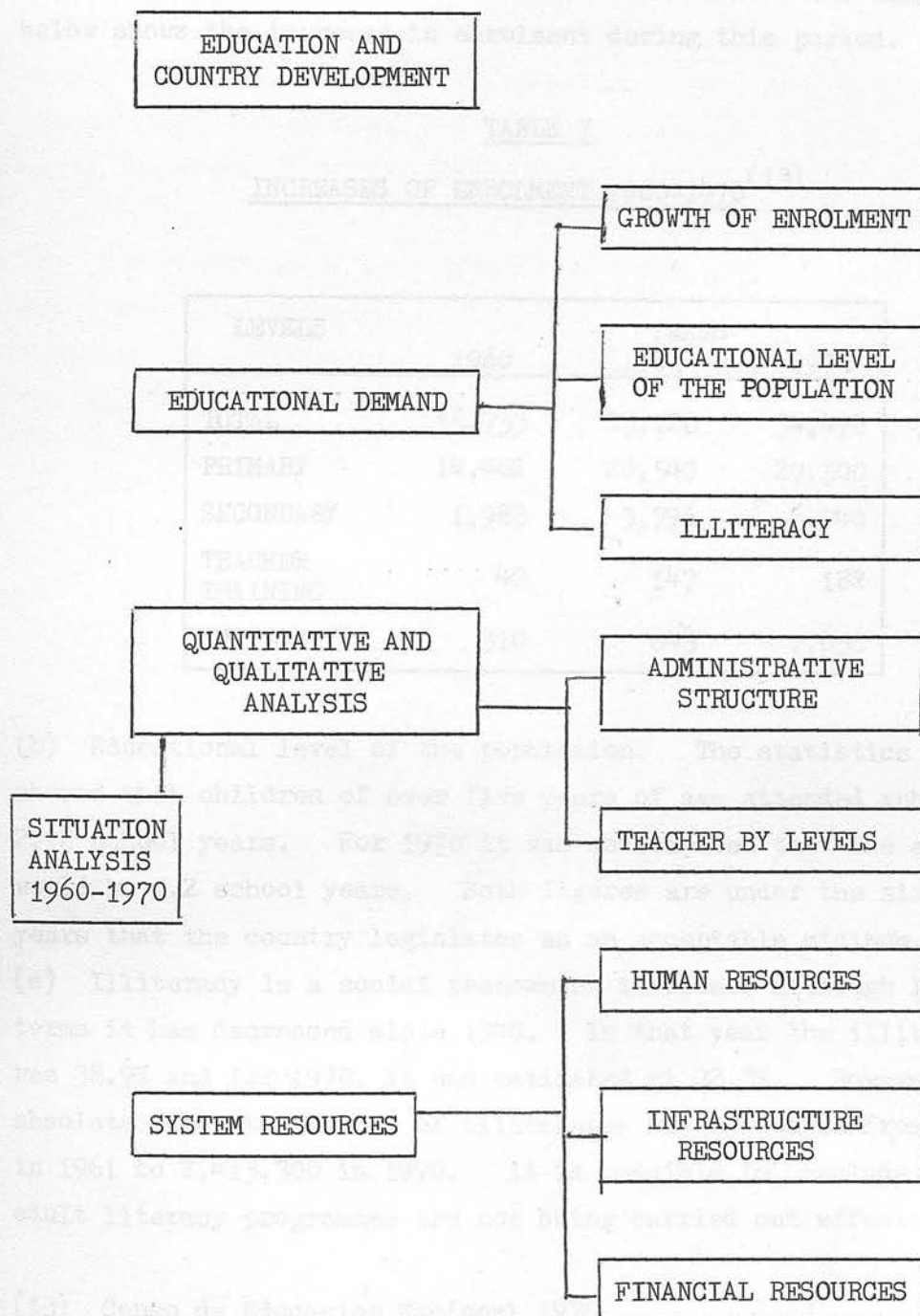
The National Plan of Education set for the first period 1971-1975 provides a framework for a two years short range plan. The plan is concerned with rates of enrolment, the future of school leavers, newcomers to the system and the improvement of the educational service as a whole. Their key tasks are: (a) to re-train the teachers, (b) to nationalize the allocation of the resources required by the system and (c) to expand the facilities. The planning process in Peru depends on social demand and manpower forecasting techniques. The latter is difficult to apply in a de-centralized economy, much less a developing country such as Peru lacking in reliable technical information provided by private enterprises. The analysis of the educational situation was made taking into account the development of Peruvian education, the demand for educational services and the resources and productivity of the system.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLAN

The analysis of the educational situation covers eleven years between 1960-1971. It deals with: (I) education and national development, (II) demand on education which includes (a) growth of enrolment, (b) educational level of the population and (c) illiteracy, (III) quantitative and qualitative analysis of (a) administrative structure, and (b) teaching by levels. (IV) system

resources: (a) human resources, (b) infrastructure and (c) financial resources. The following diagram shows the formulation of the Plan.

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTION OF THE PLAN⁽¹²⁾



(12) Plan Nacional de Educación 1971-1975
Vol. III
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú

I. Education and development of the country. The plan starts by analysing the old, conservative, anachronist and selective educational system. Changes were recommended.

II. Demand for education. (a) Growth of enrolments, this permits the determination of the number needed in the development of the system. The annual average increase in enrolment between 1960-1970 was 187,400 of whom 83% were in State education. The diagram below shows the increase in enrolment during this period.

TABLE 7

INCREASES OF ENROLMENT 1960-1970⁽¹³⁾

LEVELS	YEARS		
	1960	1965	1970
TOTAL	16,733	25,128	34,478
PRIMARY	14,402	20,540	27,500
SECONDARY	1,983	3,796	6,740
TEACHER TRAINING	40	147	182
UNIVERSITY	310	645	1,056

(b) Educational level of the population. The statistics for 1965 showed that children of over five years of age attended school for 2.92 school years. For 1970 it was anticipated that the average would be 3.2 school years. Both figures are under the six compulsory years that the country legislates as an acceptable minimum.

(c) Illiteracy is a social phenomenon increased although in relative terms it has decreased since 1940. In that year the illiteracy rate was 38.9% and for 1970, it was estimated at 32.3%. However in absolute terms the number of illiterates has increased from 2,185,600 in 1961 to 2,415,300 in 1970. It is possible to conclude that the adult literacy programmes are not being carried out effectively.

(13) Censo de Educación Nacional 1970
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú 1970.

III. Quantitative and qualitative analysis of the system.

(a) The administrative structure does not meet the needs of the educational system. Since 1963 administration has been reformed. Previously, the administration was regional. In 1970 zonal offices were introduced. In general terms, the administrative structure proved inadequate.

(b) Teachers structure by types and levels. An analysis of the amalgamation between different levels was made and it was concluded that there was insufficient diversification and flexibility to enable the system to adjust to individual needs or the needs of the country. Each level had a rigid structure which did not allow the transfer of any pupil from one level to another.

IV. The resources of the educational system, an analysis of the human resources provides us with information about the number of teachers and administrative staff working in the educational process. The following diagram shows the figures for 1970.

LEVELS	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALES	MALE	FEMALES	
FIRST	13,720	22,115	12,550	6,897	32,807
SECOND	6,507	7,173	12,500	11,988	27,168
THIRD	2,770	3,000	1,200	1,200	6,970
FOURTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
FIFTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
SIXTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
SEVENTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
EIGHTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
NINTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
TENTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
ELEVENTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
TWELFTH	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
TOTAL	25,177	32,115	27,550	21,897	76,739

TABLE 9

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF BY SEX AND FOR TYPES OF TEACHING ⁽¹⁵⁾

LEVEL	ADMINISTRATIVE			SERVICE		
	TOTAL	MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL	MALES	FEMALES
PRIMARY	1,658	254	1,404	2,182	1,203	979
SECONDARY COMMON	4,736	2,368	2,368	4,257	3,667	590
SECONDARY TECHNICAL	967	546	421	811	719	92
TOTAL	7,361	3,168	4,193	7,250	5,589	1,661

In primary education 52.2% of the teachers fall into the first category of qualified teachers, 5.9% fall into the second category who do have teachers certificates but have other certificates or professional degrees, 3.7% fall into the third category of teachers who do not have either a certificate or professional degree and lastly 1.1% fall into the non-specific category. In secondary the percentages for the various categories were 54.4%; 12.8%; 23.3% and 2.5% respectively. In technical secondary education the percentages were 42.8%; 20.4%; 34% and 1.9% respectively. There was a noticeable imbalance between administrative staff and teachers. In primary education in 1970, there were 38.6 teachers for every administrative staff. There were 4.6 in secondary education and 6.5 in technical secondary education.

(b) Infrastructure. There is a lack of adequate schooling for the school population enrolled or about to be enrolled. The following table taken from the 1970 educational census indicates the number of schools by level and types of education.

GOALS AND PURPOSES OF THE PLAN

(15) Censo de Educación Nacional 1970 *ibid.*
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú 1970.

(15) Censo Nacional de Educación 1970 *ibid.*
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú 1970.

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS BY LEVELS AND TYPES OF TEACHING LEVELS (16)

	<u>SCHOOLS</u>
PRIMARY	
DAY COURSES	19,423
AFTERNOON AND NIGHT COURSES	611
TOTAL	20,034
SECONDARY	
DAY COURSES	1,229
AFTERNOON AND NIGHT COURSES	222
TOTAL	1,451
SECONDARY TECHNICAL	
DAY COURSES	303
AFTERNOON AND NIGHT COURSES	105
TOTAL	414
MIDDLE EDUCATION	17
ARTISTIC EDUCATION	28
TEACHER TRAINING	90
CRAFT SCHOOLS	126

It must be added that there is a lack of pedagogical equipment and most of the schools are poorly or inadequately equipped.

(c) Financial resources. In 1970 public expenditure in education represented 3.8% of G.N.P. From the point of view of investment, the expenditure was the smallest being only 4.2%. This figure covers expenditure required by school building, administration and infrastructure. The rest of the budget was spent on salaries and administration.

GOALS AND PURPOSES OF THE PLAN

The aims and purposes are the same as those stated in the educational reform, but the goal of the plan sought to fulfill three

(16) Censo Nacional de Educación 1970 ibid.
Ministerio de Educación
Lima-Perú 1970.

key aspects: (a) enrolment, (b) conversion of the old system into the new and (c) teachers training. Considering the level of Initial education and the Regular system of education, the plan proposes to increase enrolment of students between 5-20 years old from 55.3% in 1971 to 65.7% in 1980. The conversion to the new system is to be gradual. During this transition the old and new systems had to be accounted for. The former is expected to disappear gradually. In 1971, the educational system had 127,900 teachers. In 1975 there were 158,700 and in 1980 there were to be 198,000. During this ten year period, thousands of jobs needed to be created for meeting the requirements of the educational reform.

ACHIEVEMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL REFORM AFTER FIVE YEARS OF ITS IMPLEMENTATION

The reform has been applied step by step, despite political opposition and despite the struggle put up by the SUTEP. The SUTEP used the implementation of the reform in their case against the government. They claimed that the government is capitalist and a disguise for nationalism. The Peruvian educational process has expanded considerably during the last five years. For instance in 1972 the Peruvians received an average of 3.7 school years. After the introduction of the reform the figure was increased to 4.1 in 1976. But the diminishing of the rate of illiteracy has been slow. By 1972 the illiteracy rate was 27.7% (2,189,100 people over 15 years old). It was hoped that in 1976 the percentage would be reduced to 23.2%. The expansion of the educational process is expressed in the following comparison: in 1972, 790 of 1000 children between 6-14 years old were in schools; in 1977, 915 of 1000 of the same age groups were attending educational services. The total educational enrolment in 1972 was 3,723,800 students. In 1977, it reached 5,108,402 which means that 277,000 new students were incorporated into the educational system yearly. The following table shows the total enrolment through different levels and types of education.

Directorio de Estadística
Boletín de Estadística 1977
S.I. No. 1265
Lima-Perú.

TABLE 11

TOTAL ENROLMENT IN PERUVIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM
(IN THOUSANDS) (17)

YEARS 1972-1977

LEVELS	1972		1977	
	TOTAL	3,723,8	TOTAL	5,108,4
FORMAL EDUCATION		<u>3,587,1</u>		<u>4,778,2</u>
INITIAL EDUCATION		91.7		198.1
PRIMARY EDUCATION		2.509.2		3.095.9
BASIC LABOUR EDUCATION		131.5		119.0
SECONDARY EDUCATION		<u>789.8</u>		<u>1.216.5</u>
COMMON SECONDARY		646.5		946.5
TECHNICAL SECONDARY		143.3		270.0
1st CYCLE HIGHER EDUCATION		-		15.1
TEACHER TRAINING		11.3		6.0
HIGHER TECHNICAL EDUCATION		7.0		17.8
EXTRAORDINARY EDUCATION		43.2		93.6
SPECIAL EDUCATION		3.4		16.2
NON FORMAL PROGRAMMES		<u>-</u>		<u>117.5</u>
INITIAL EDUCATION		-		92.7
BASIC LABOUR EDUCATION		-		24.8
EDUCATION PROVIDED		<u>136.7</u>		<u>212.7</u>
PROVIDED BY OTHER AGENCIES				
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION		131.3		204.2
ARTISTIC EDUCATION		5.4		8.5
PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORTS RECREATION		-		0.2

(17) Oficina Sectorial de Planificación
Ley Anual de Presupuesto 1977
D.L. No. 1765
Lima-Perú.

After five years educational efforts were focussed on accelerating the process of re-structuring the new educational system and on re-training teachers and administrative staff in order to achieve the aims and goals of the reform. The following is an account of what was achieved at the various levels.

- (a) Initial education, cradles, kindergartens, and nurseries were organized in 803 Community Educational Nucleus. Initial Education was extended to the whole country.
- (b) Basic education, the first two degrees of the first cycle were extended to all the school population in the 803 Communal Educational Nucleus throughout the country. The third and fourth degree of cycle I were incorporated in 480 Communal Education Nucleus and the sixth degree in 137 of them. The curriculum for the first, second and third cycles of Basic Regular education was modified.
- (c) Basic Labour Education, the main actions achieved were the introduction of the first and second cycles and the sixth and seventh degrees of the third cycle to all the educational centres in the country; secondly the application of the eighth and ninth degrees (third cycle) to the educational centres of 184 and 106 Communal Educational Nucleus respectively; and third, the implementation of 130 non-school programmes involving some 12,000 people.
- (d) Higher education, twenty-four ESEP were inaugurated in sixteen cities of the country offering some fifteen professional fields to secondary school leavers.
- (e) Special education for students with learning problems, 189 courses were initiated in 1975, this figure was expected to increase to 204 in 1976.
- (f) Professional Extraordinary Qualification, since 1975, emphasis has been on the restructuration of the traditional programmes of industrial, agricultural and artisan training in the reformed system.

(g) Educational Extension, the main concern has been the promotion of prolonged educational activities to all. For this purpose museums and libraries were founded, nutrition and health programmes were started.

Progress in the field of illiteracy was reached through the Programme of Integral Reading and Writing. However the problem is still one of the most serious in education. The worst situation is in the rural areas, where people have to deal with bilingualism. In conjunction with the agrarian reform certain programmes have been set up to remedy the situation. It is hoped that the new approach to organize and work the land through cooperatives would help in overcoming illiteracy. Teachers have been retrained in Peru and presently 80% of them are qualified. 90% of the teachers were retrained by correspondence. There has been a re-categorization of the teachers as well, this meant salary adjustments within the framework of their new career.

It seems that the Peruvian educational reform is the most advanced technical approach to education in the ABA countries. Perhaps nuclearization is the most efficient way of achieving administrative de-centralization, thus allowing the community to participate in solving its own educational problems. The introduction of non school activities through educational extension, in addition to the introduction of lifelong education seem to ensure a successful and popular educational approach. It is hoped that Labour education would offer new opportunities to those who discontinued their studies at an early stage, thus minimizing educational wastage. The expansion of the educational services as well as the improvement of their quality through experimental projects, educational research and continuous assessment of the educational system are important steps towards a more realistic education. The educational reform is by no means perfect. It has its own weak points. For instance the administrative process is still inadequate; most of the issues that are actually decided

in the Zonal Office of Education can be faster decided on the Communal Educational Nuclei and with great efficiency. Another criticism is that the bureaucracy of the Ministry of Education and its plans for rationalization of efforts and their distribution are increasing the number of pupils and diminishing the allocation of teachers. The common criticism among teachers is that the Military government has continued acting through a conservative administration. This has hindered a greater popular participation such as the participation of parents and local authorities in the Communal Educational Nuclei. The educational reform since its beginning did not examine the problem of teachers adequately. It stated that anybody who practises the profession must show vocation, efficiency, dedication and special attention to the community.

Teachers were not given as many responsibilities as they were supposed to. Their salaries increased and their working condition was improved little. The government repression has been an answer to the Teacher's Union that has used the repressing power of the government as a way to get at the Military Junta. The Teacher's Union is basically according to the Military Junta either APRA who are traditionally political adversaries of the Army, or young marxist teachers with totalitarian concepts of government, but it seems to be the case that the educational reform was conceived in a ministerial office without consulting one of the more important elements in the learning-teaching process: the teachers.

Higher education policies have been the subject of criticism from every Peruvian intellectual. A lengthy and complicated university-statute has not been able to implement measures for regulating higher education yet. An important criticism stated the acceptance of "desanollistas"⁽¹⁸⁾ policies regarding the urgent necessity of changes in the socioeconomic structure. Within the university campus lecturers and students alike wish to do away with

(18) Desanollista: Under the word "desanollista" we understand all those theories which try to explain the problem of under-development through the same theoretical pattern used in the analysis of developed countries. The "desanollismo" does not take into account the complex phenomena of economic, political, technological and cultural dependence.

the social structure. The new educational law has led the university to be under State tuition. Consequently, the university does not have the chance of taking part in planning its organization or in making its own decisions.

There are also criticisms, saying that the educational law reform was created after a diagnosis of the country's needs but after that the authorities lost their contact with reality. The goals set by the law are general and the planning team using those goals as guidelines are misled because the needs arising from the Peruvian reality are different. Since the setting up of the educational law reform, education has become the focus of the political struggle in Peru. The political parties exist as institutions but they are not allowed to take part in government. However, the opposition takes place in the educational process where party members work. Most of the teachers and their associations have become an institution of the left. On the other hand the rightists are trying to push the conservative sectors of the Armed Forces, to re-instate political reform, which would take back the country to a democracy similar to the one that existed years ago. The rightists claim that the educational reform is an attempt to introduce totalitarianism of economic, political, technical and cultural dependence in the country. The struggle regarding education in the political arena has become very sloganistic, the left arguing that it is just another pro-capitalist approach, that does not solve the Peruvian educational problems and the right saying that it is totalitarian used by the government to seek popular support.

The nationalistic ideology of the military regime involved Peru in the ABA, becoming the most passionate defender in the polemic around it. The ABA became a platform from where Peru could voice its claims of being a non-communist and non capitalist revolution, that would involve the population in decision making through cooperative enterprise combined with student anti-imperialist and attacks on the oligarchy; above all it was claimed that the class

conflict could be overcome by dissolving the difference between capital and labour via workers participation in ownership and by State control over the basis of the production system.

The deterioration of the economic situation in 1975, that ended with street riots, shortage of foods and the worsening labour relation and business resistance to the implications of further ownership reforms give rise to split within the Armed Forces. General Velasco was forced to resign in favour of General Bermudez who later would call for democratic elections. So, the revolution that once promised to end a discriminatory education against lower class social stratas, to end with illiteracy, drop out, etc. had little success.

1. THE BACKGROUND OF VENEZUELAN EDUCATION

Formal Venezuelan education started in Caracas in 1560 by the initiative of the Church and was concerned with the teaching of grammar, morals and Latin. The first formal school was opened in Caracas in 1795 and in 1821 the Real Pontificia Universidad de Santiago Less de Caracas was founded. (1) The project for founding the Seminario Trilingüe was made by 1897. This institution later became the base of the present Universidad Central de Caracas. As

(1) Ezer, José Idelfonso
"Documento para la historia de la Educación en Venezuela"
Biblioteca Nacional de Historia
Imprenta Italgólica
Caracas 1968

CHAPTER IV

VENEZUELA

Until the discovery of large quantities of oil in the early twenties, Venezuela socioeconomic and political life resembled that of the other Andean countries. The economy was based on agriculture and the nation was governed mostly by tyrannical dictatorships. 20th century economic development has allowed Venezuela to expand her educational system very rapidly, although the educational service has not yet reached univerzality. Rapid economic growth has been one of the main Venezuelan characteristics and thanks to her oil, Venezuela is one of the wealthiest Latin American nations. Structurally, however, the Venezuelan economy exhibits many anomalies, juxtaposing conditions of extreme backwardness with elements of great sophistication. Education seems to be one of the Venezuelan socioeconomic spheres affected by the backwardness phenomenon. Education resting on classical erudiction, typify an educational service that does not vary much from the other Andean nations. However, the availability of economic resources, and the excellent disposition and involvement of Venezuela in ABA makes of this country a good example of Andean education. The chapter that follows comprises the description of the background of Venezuelan education, as well as its development in the present century.

1. THE BACKGROUND OF VENEZUELAN EDUCATION

Formal Venezuelan education started in Coro in 1560 by the initiative of the Church and was concerned with the teaching of grammar, morals and Latin. The first formal school was opened in Caracas in 1592 and in 1621 the Real Pontificia Universidad de Santiago Leon de Caracas was founded.⁽¹⁾ The petition for founding the Seminario Tridentino was made by 1697. This institution later became the base of the present Universidad Central de Caracas. As

(1) See: Leal Idelfonso
"Documentos para la Historia de la Educación en Venezuela"
Biblioteca Nacional de Historia
Imprenta Italgrafica
Caracas 1968

education was extended in 1768, another school for girls called Colegio de Educandos Jesús, María y José was created. As in every Spanish colony, the Jesuits played a role in education and they founded several schools in Caracas and Maracaibo.

At the end of the colonial period, education was influenced by the new philosophical ideas coming from Europe. But during the war of independence, this progress was stopped by the events of the war. One of the first independent acts related to education was the transformation of the Colegio de Merida into the Universidad of San Buenaventura executed by the Patriotic Junta in 1810. In 1924 after the initiative of the town hall of Caracas, English teachers were invited to teach in Venezuela in order to implement the Lancaster Educational System,⁽²⁾ but the attempt failed because the town hall could not afford the expenses of this new educational effort. In 1826, State education improved according to a law of re-organization of education, which classified schools as elementary schools providing education in parish, districts, towns, etc. and republic schools providing education through colleges and universities. The Dirección General de Instrucción Pública was created and made in charge of administering education. The period between 1810 and 1870 was characterized by the foundation of several schools and colleges and by the implementation of educational decrees such as the one proclaimed in 1830, that extended primary education to all the Venezuelan provinces, in an attempt to make primary education compulsory. In 1838, the Dirección de Instrucción Primaria was founded and in 1843 the first Código de Instrucción was promulgated. This was an attempt to organize, under the law, the whole educational system, because at that time education was still provided in a chaotic way. The code pointed out that the institutions that should provide education, schools, colleges, universities and institutes were put under State control through the Dirección de Instrucción Primaria. The Dirección General de Instrucción Pública was abolished in 1854 and the educational process was undertaken by the Ministerio del Interior. Education was made

(2) Lancaster Educational System, *ibid.*, Chapter III.

compulsory by a decree proclaimed on 27th June 1870. Freedom of teaching was also established in the same decree stating that it was a civil right. In order to fulfil the requirements established in the decree published on 27th June 1870 the Dirección de Instrucción Pública was set up that became the Ministry of Education in 1881. In those days important changes took place, such as the creation of the Fiscalía de Instrucción Pública, which was a body in charge of supervising and controlling education. The setting up of schools and colleges continued and between 1874 and 1879, eight schools for girls in various cities across the country were set up. In order to improve teacher training, eight Escuelas Normales were created between 1876 and 1886, in Valencia, Caracas, Barquisimeto and Cumana, and in the same period the Instituto Nacional de Artes was inaugurated. El Colegio de Ingenieros for the training of the engineers required by the country was also created. Mariners and sailors started to improve their education in the Escuela Náutica, that was founded in 1881.

Under the government of Manuel Blanco the Ministry of Education was organized and several policies to administer education and to control private education were undertaken. The arrival of Guzman Blanco to the Venezuelan government in 1870 started a new fundamental period in the country's economy, and obviously in education that was favoured with the setting up of schools, with increases in budget improvement, in teacher training, etc. The Venezuelan educational system was definitely organized by the decree of 1870, which was a significant step forwards in the cultural development of the country. It signalled the starting point of Venezuelan education. But really the decree met difficulties in fulfilling its aims and purposes because of political instability and other social problems such as the lack of communications, the almost general illiteracy and the shortage of teachers. This meant that the whole educational process that the decree created, could not be put into the government hands. A balance of Venezuelan education between 1870 and 1886 can be made from the tables from P. Dupont under the government of Guzman

Historia de Venezuela, tomo 1, las primeras décadas del siglo XIX
et las púas púas tur de 1870
Págs. 187-9.

(4) P. Dupont 111.

Blanco. The statistics could not be all exact because of the lack of reliable information in those days. However this data can be useful in pointing out general trends.

TABLE 1

POPULAR INSTRUCTION BETWEEN 1830 AND 1886⁽³⁾

YEARS	FEDERAL SCHOOLS	PUPILS	MUNICIPAL & PRIVATE SCHOOLS	PUPILS	TOTAL SCHOOLS	TOTAL PUPILS
1830-31			200	7500	200	7500
1872-73	141	7064	251	8017	392	15081
1876-77	782	31610	563	24190	1345	55800
1885-86	1312	80900	645	18556	1957	99466

TABLE 2

EDUCATION BY NUMBER OF INHABITANTS BETWEEN 1870-1866⁽⁴⁾

YEARS	SCHOOLS	PUPILS	INHABITANTS	PUPILS EVERY 100 INHABITANTS	PUPILS OF 5 YEARS OLD TO 15 EVERY 1000 INHABITANTS
1870-72	300	10000	4590	0.55	56
1874-75	877	31389	2116	1.70	165
1877-81	1684	61013	1233	2.94	294
1885-86	1957	99466	1533	4.52	452

It can be concluded from both tables that despite the government efforts, the educational requirement could not be met. It was thought that in those years Venezuela had 219,000 children between 5 and 15 years old. In order to provide education for all of them

- (3) P. Dupont
 "Notice politique, statistique, commerciale, etc sur les etats unis de Venezuela contenant les renseignements les plus utiles et les plus precis sur ce pays"
 Paris 1889.
- (4) P. Dupont *ibid.*

4,200 schools were required. As we can see from the above tables, the total number of federal, municipal and private schools was 1,957, which was 50% of the school requirement. Obviously, the shortage was biggest in the provinces and rural areas. By 1886, the general educational situation in Venezuela according to Angel Grisanti was as follows:

TABLE 3

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL SITUATION IN 1886
(EXCLUDING CARACAS) (5)

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS	PRIMARY & SECONDARY TEACHERS	PUPILS	PUPILS EVERY SCHOOL	BY PUPILS BY TEACHERS	PUPILS BY 1000 INHABITANTS	PUPILS FROM 5 TO 15	ANNUAL BUDGET
PRIMARY 1957	2,279	99,446	50	43	45	452	3,259,619
HIGHER 68	594	4,380	64	7	2	20	3,819,016
TOTAL 2025	2,873	103,826	114	50	47	472	4,078,635

Regarding educational investment it can be concluded that every school cost 2,056,71 Bolívares (Venezuelan currency) and the cost per student was 4,010 Bolívares. This seems to be a high cost for a growing nation. For every 1,085 inhabitants, there was a school which would seem to be enough but this excludes the 80,000 Indians who populated the Goagira, Orinoco and Amazonas territories. Obviously, for these people education was not provided at all. Moreover, the picture excluded Caracas which was and is the largest populated centre, where the provision for and concentration of educational resources are placed. From 1889 to the end of the century the relevant events were the decrees proclaimed in 1893 and 1894, which settled the statement for running federal schools and the compulsory curriculum for every school that comprised reading, writing, geography, Venezuelan history, maths and some

(5) Grisanti, Angel
Resumen Histórico de la Instrucción Pública de Venezuela
pp.114-115
Editorial Iqueriua
Bogota 1950.

physical education for both sexes and some agricultural teaching for rural schools. In 1898, the Consejo Superior de Instrucción Pública was founded to advise the Education Ministry.

2. VENEZUELAN EDUCATION IN THE PRESENT CENTURY

At the beginning of the present century there was a re-organization of education in Venezuela. Between 1900 and 1903 decrees were promulgated which divided education into public and private sectors the former being under state control. This decree institutionalized education with a national body, through the appointment of civil servants, in charge of administering and controlling education throughout the country. In 1905 a new educational decree allowed co-education. In 1910 under the government of Juan Vicente Gómez new educational modifications were introduced such as the teaching of religion (at request of parents), and the abolition of corporal punishment. Teacher training was improved and students were required to acquire experience through teaching practices before being granted with the teacher's degree. Under the strong dictatorship of Gómez, between 1912 and 1915 several educational modifications were introduced, the most important being the Educational Reforms of 1914 and 1924. The latter is also important for the act favouring educational integration, that was discussed during the Congreso Bolivariano, by the countries that are nowadays principal members of ABA. At that meeting an agreement was signed for Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Perú and Bolivia in order to recognize certificates and degrees obtained in any university of the signatory countries. Because of problems of political and international order the agreement never worked. The Congreso Bolivariano was organized in order to ease the relations among the countries liberated by Simon Bolivar that were affected for frontier disputes. The agreements of the Congress never were accomplished and they passed to history as another failed attempt to achieve integration in the Andean region.

The Educational Reform of 1914 was based on the concept of "freedom of teaching". Its basic premise was that the supervision and control of private education by the State was against the democratic spirit of Venezuelan education. In other words this law

"brought modifications. Any person in possession of civil rights, was allowed to teach whatever he wanted without any license from the government and without being submitted to any rule or statement related to programmes, plans and so on. The State would only supervise those aspects just related to hygiene and health. The only requirement established was that in getting certificates, the State would examine the Candidate through the Education Minister."(6)

In 1924, the Organic Instruction Law was promulgated. It involved several modifications as the Statute for Lyceums and Colleges, the prohibition to forcing to teach Venezuelan history and the setting up of Teacher Councils for every school and lyceum. During the last twenty years of Gomez's dictatorship decrees and resolutions were proclaimed, but they failed to structure a harmonious Venezuelan educational system.

The educational situation by 1936 was very poor and very badly administered. It was in line with the anarchy and chaos that reigned in a country ruled by one of the strongest and bloodiest dictatorships that the Venezuelans have ever known. Education was still a privilege for small minorities. Large social groups were discriminated against in the educational process and in the access to social welfare. Plans and programmes that in the government of Guzman Blanco were steps forwards in education were banned. Education, which has received a strong impulse in 1870, decreased little by little, to become by the end of the dictatorship, a badly organised service providing a feeble and weak education. According to the Education Ministry statistics, in 1935 Venezuela had 689,288

(6) Gonzalez, B. R.
"Análisis del Proceso Histórico de la Educación Urbana
1870-1932 y de la Educación Rural 1932-1957" p.65.
Facultad de Educación
Universidad Central de Venezuela 1962.

children of school age but only 137,126 (19%) were enrolled in primary school. To serve that school population only 2,161 schools were established. The number of teachers working in them was just 1,594.⁽⁷⁾ Moreover the standard of teaching was poor and teacher training was reduced to three Escuelas Normales. The number of these centres decreases with the same rhythm as education. In addition to these problems which were the worst ones, should be added the lack of orientation and aims of education, a problem that had existed in education since colonial times. Neither organization nor aims were a response to a determined doctrine, a situation which was found to be in a country whose growth was developed within revolutions and continuous coups d'etat. Elitism was the characteristic of the content in the educational system. However the change of government in 1936 initiated a movement that became a great stimuli and impulse to develop Venezuelan education. Efforts were made in two directions: the first related to the quantitative aspects in order to extend the educational services. Between 1936-1945 thousands of schools were created and the number of teachers also increased. In 1945 Venezuela had 5,420 primary schools (5,119 State and 301 private). That meant 150% more than in 1935. The number of teachers increased from 1,594 in 1937 to 9,786 in 1945 an increase of 514%. This increase affected enrolment in primary education: 137,126 pupils in 1935 to 338,907 in 1947 an increase of 147%.⁽⁸⁾ Within the general increase of education two facts seem to be relevant, the growth of Escuelas Normales and also the increase in technical education which in practice seemed to be non-existent in the thirties. The second relevant fact of this new educational development was related to the qualitative aspects of teaching that was improved by the introduction of new teaching and methodological techniques, and also the improvement of school equipment.

(7) Ministerio de Educación de Venezuela
Memoria 1940
Caracas-Venezuela 1940.

(8) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Venezuela
Anuario Estadístico 1951
Caracas-Venezuela.

The Pedagogical Institute of the Central University of Caracas, was founded by educational missions coming from abroad specially from Chile. The founding of the Pedagogical Institute signalled a new starting point in the training of secondary teachers. Experimental schools and lyceums were set up and the quality of education was changed step by step. Secondary education was diversified towards technical education in an attempt to begin the training of technicians and engineers which were considered a key aspect in developing the country. Concern was also shown for illiteracy programmes and adult education courses. The philosophical aspect of the educational reforms of 1936 and the subsequent years were oriented by men who were formed in the liberal tradition. Also by the arrival of Chilean educationalists who brought to Venezuela the traditional and liberal secularism that in Chile had achieved the character of pedagogical doctrine. In this way State education was reinforced.

Consequently enrolment increased considerably from 1943 to 1945.

The Educational Law of 1940 that was partially reformed in 1943-1945, expressed the criteria of giving everyone the opportunity to study but under State control. The Educational Law of 1940 defined education as an integral process of teaching comprising the psychobiological and moral development of the Venezuelan citizens. In general terms this educational law tried to raise the cultural level of the Venezuelan nation and to develop the capacity of individuals within a framework of national solidarity. This law made compulsory educational aid for every Venezuelan enterprise whose staff had illiterates. It pointed out the necessity of setting educational activities inside the factories in order to fight illiteracy. Higher education was also modified. The appointment of university authorities was made through elections in which students and academic staff took part. Perhaps, one of the great achievements of this law was the demand for certificates and diplomas to fulfil teachers' requirements. This regulation came about as a consequence of the increase in teacher training establishments and the founding of the Pedagogical Institute. It

Antonio Rodríguez, M.I.
Caracas-Venezuela.

(20) Ministerio de Educación de Venezuela
Antonio Rodríguez, M.I.
Caracas-Venezuela.

was a step towards ending the empirical teaching that was a characteristic of Venezuelan education. However, the law pointed out some instructions for filling teachers' posts with non certificated teachers in those places where it would be impossible to allocate a certificated one.

The democratic times that Venezuela lived in those days allowed the foundation of the Sociedad Venezolana de Maestros de Instrucción Primaria, the Primary Teacher's Union. In fact the union was founded in 1932, but because political persecutions by Gomez's government could not carry out its work as expected, it was re-founded in a pedagogical congress in 1936.

In 1945 the President of the country Isaias Medina Angarita was overthrown by a coup d'etat, led by Romulo Betancourt, who saw the improvement of education as vital to develop the country. Consequently enrolment increased considerably from 1945 to 1948. According to the Anuario Estadístico of 1951⁽⁹⁾ in 1945 enrolment in primary was 338,907 which increased to 485,668 in 1948. In other words there was a 43% increase in enrolment. The school population in 1945 was served by 9,786 teachers working in 5,420 schools, which was an increase of 25% in the number of teachers since 1948 and 61% in the number of schools. The following table shows the enrolment figures for this period.

TABLE 4

STUDENT ENROLMENT⁽¹⁰⁾

YEARS	SECONDARY	NORMAL	TECHNICAL	HIGHER
1945-1946	13,333	2,781	3,701	3,281
1948-1949	22,308	4,255	4,881	5,800

(9) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Venezuela
Anuario Estadístico, ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela.

(10) Ministerio de Educación de Venezuela
Anuario Estadístico, ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela.

The above figures show an increase in enrolment of 67%, 53%, 31% and 77% respectively. Meanwhile, an intensive illiteracy programme was carried out throughout the country. By 1946 according to the Oficina Nacional de Planeamiento Integral de la Educación 15,000 adults had learnt to read and write. This was in addition to 100,000 more Venezuelan adults who had learnt to read and write under other educational institutions.

In 1947 a new Venezuelan Constitution was approved and in 1948 a new Organic Educational Law was passed. This new educational policy put education in the hands of the State once again, although private educational institutions still had some freedom to teach their own viewpoints. This educational law divided education into formal and non formal. The educational system from pre-school to higher education was united and links between formal and non formal education were established. However, this law could not be put into practice because the civil and military government led by Romulo Gallegos was overthrown by a Military Junta in 1948. Nevertheless the civil-military government which involved people belonging to Acción Democrática (Democratic Action Party) and the military improved the educational service. The educational budget increased constantly in their three years in office, there was a higher enrolment and more school building construction.

In May 1955 a new Educational Law was passed out but was not basically different from the existing decrees, codes, statutes and laws that characterised Venezuelan education. It stated the traditional aims of education and classified once again the educational institutions into State and private. It pointed out that military education should be introduced at secondary level. The politicians of those days saw this as the means by which the Junta was seeking military and political support in order to stay in power. The regime made some educational progress mainly in building educational infrastructure. According to Oficina de Planeamiento Integral de la Educación⁽¹¹⁾ enrolment decreased

(11) Ministerio de Educación
Oficina de Planeamiento Integral de la Educación
Boletín No. 6.
Caracas-Venezuela.

drastically compared to the advances of the previous governments. In 1958, the year that the dictatorship was overthrown, there were 1,220,710 Venezuelans of school age of whom only 751,561 attended schools. The number of teachers serving that population was 6,676, and the number of schools 20,914. A considerable drop out rate, and a great lack of attendance reduced the above figures even further. According to the Memoria de Educacion⁽¹²⁾ in the school year 1957-1958 the average school attendance was 601,663 pupils, which means that for every 100 pupils 20 were out. Taking into account the continuity of studies within the system, 108,563 enrolled in 1957. By the 6th grade in 1958 there were 22,885 only which meant a drop of 21%. However, private education as a whole increased considerably. It was closely linked with the upper social groups and with the Roman Catholic Church, that held the majority of the private colleges. Generally speaking, State education that served the major groups decreased whereas private education increased as is shown in the following table.

TABLE 5

PRIVATE EDUCATION NUMBER OF SCHOOLS,
TEACHERS AND STUDENTS BY LEVELS(13)

YEARS	PRIMARY	SECONDARY	HIGHER
		<u>SCHOOLS</u>	
1948-1949	272	49	-
1957-1958	1070	238	2
		<u>TEACHERS</u>	
1948-1949	1653	575	-
1957-1958	6002	2315	246
		<u>STUDENTS</u>	
1948-1949	43308	5280	-
1957-1958	43133	25099	2082

(12) Ministerio de Educación
Memoria 1959
Caracas-Venezuela.

(13) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Memoria de Educación 1962
Caracas-Venezuela.

In private education there was an increase in schools of 293% and in students 209%. At secondary level there was an increase of 385% of private colleges and 375% in student enrolment. Two private universities joined Venezuelan higher education with a total of 2,082 students.

The Military Junta was overthrown on the 23rd January 1958 and Venezuelan education that had previously received a quantitative impulse did so again under the democratic government of Romulo Betancourt. By 1961-1962, 1,298,427 of a total of 1,565,450⁽¹⁴⁾ of school age children were enrolled in primary education. In fact this was an initial success for a country that had just emerged from a reactionary regime. According to the Memoria de Educacion 1963⁽¹⁵⁾ the average absence from school was 20%, which although high still is an achievement, if one considers the ten years set back suffered by education under Pérez Jimenez's regime. In 1961 out of 100 students enrolled in 1956, only 33.4% got the sixth degree. Despite all efforts the new government was unable to provide a solution for this problem. Moreover the drop out rate was higher between 1958 and the school year 1961-1962. In 1958, 262,072 children were enrolled in the 1st degree out of whom only 77,597 got the fifth degree. In other words the drop out rate was 70.4%.⁽¹⁶⁾ According to Boletín No. 6 de la Oficina Integral de Planeamiento de la Educación⁽¹⁷⁾ between 1941 and 1961 only 2.20% of those enrolled in first grade got into higher education. In 1961-1962, Venezuela had 36,287 teachers of whom

(14) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Memoria de Educación 1962 ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela.

(15) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Memoria de Educación 1963
Caracas-Venezuela.

(16) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Memoria de Educación 1962 ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela.

(17) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Oficina de Planeamiento Integral de la Educación
Boletín No. 6 ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela.

51% were qualified. These teachers served a student population of 1,298,427, that was an average of 35.7 students per teacher. It seems to be that in those days Venezuela was getting an adequate number of teachers and that was gradually increased to meet the needs of the student population. It was obviously necessary either to reduce enrolment per school or increase the number of teachers or retrain teachers without qualifications in order to improve education qualitatively. Consequently, it reflected the same problems. Education starting with first primary degree was regarded as a tunnel leading to university. There was little concern for the drop out rate and continuity in education was lacking for those who dropped out of the system at any level be it primary or secondary. They had no chance of developing their abilities because the whole educational system was not closely linked with practical life. Technical situation that was thought to be one way of remedying the situation was not enough to meet the needs of the country. This was due to lack of planning, and to the overwhelming number of students who joined the traditional secondary level upon their parents' wishes. The quality of education was also reflected in poor achievement of students as is shown in the index of class repetition and delayed exams. The following table shows such figures for the school year 1961-1962.

TABLE 6
STUDENT REPETITION⁽¹⁸⁾

YEAR	STUDENT ENROLLED	TOTAL	% REPETITION
1961-1962			
PRIMARY	1,277,022	243,622	19.1
SECONDARY	122,311	9,297	7.6
NORMAL	32,434	2,104	6.5
TECHNICAL*	42,306	2,159	5.1

*Industrial and Commercial only

(18) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Memoria de Educación 1963 ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela.

There were two causes for this failure: first the socio-economic situation of the country and secondly the inadequacies of the educational system itself. Apart from the quantitative and qualitative problems the educational investment by the new government was enormous in comparison with the investment of the dictatorial regime of Pérez Jimenez. According to the Memoria de Educacion 1963⁽¹⁹⁾ the educational budget was 9.7% of the national one, which was considerably higher than in previous years. To this were added other allocations in order to impose non formal educational activities. Following Betancourt's democratic government, Raúl Leoni who was elected in 1963, managed to improve education and to have a reasonably good record in the economic sector. Educational development in the years of Venezuelan democracy can be summarised as follows.

TABLE 7
EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT 1958-1967⁽²⁰⁾

YEARS	1958	1967	INCREASE
BUDGET	748,107,000	1,489,668,000	99.1%
PRIMARY EDUCATION			
STUDENTS	775,586	1,380,500	78%
TEACHERS	19,247	38,395	99.5%
SCHOOLS BUILT	1,533	4,006	161.3%
SECONDARY EDUCATION			
STUDENTS	76,684	314,017	309.5%
TEACHERS	3,109	11,580	272.5%
SCHOOLS BUILT	57	190	233.3%
HIGHER EDUCATION			
STUDENTS	14,474	54,840	278.9%
LECTURERS IN SERVICE	1,825	5,945	225.8%

(19) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Memoria de Educación 1963 ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela.

(20) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Dirección Técnica
"Más y Mejor Educación"
Caracas-Venezuela.

The beginning of new democratic life that started with the overthrow of Pérez Jiménez meant a national Venezuela growing in all spheres. But in spite of the great expansion of the educational system the quality of education was not improved in the same sense as Gladys de Acosta pointed out in her book "Investigaciones sobre Materiales de la Escuela Venezolana",

"this was due to the lack of psychological and pedagogical preparation of teachers, the lack of criteria in student assessment, the poor link between formal and non-formal education as well as the lack of links between school and home."(21)

But her most important criticism was directed towards the poor educational planning, and its inability to plan a way of solving the gap between the educational system and society. The arrival of democracy and its winds of good intentions for increasing the opportunities in education also touched the illiteracy rate that declined enormously. The successes were related to the use of programmes on the new political, economic and social conditions that Venezuela had enjoyed since 1968. The illiteracy programmes were linked with training in several jobs which were related to agriculture. Illiteracy was one of the greatest problems of Venezuela as the development of the country demanded trained manpower, and a low rate of illiteracy, if any at all. The decline in the rate of illiteracy from 1926-1958 can be seen in the following table.

- (21) De Acosta Gladys
"Investigación sobre Materiales de la Escuela Venezolana",
pp.159-160
Universidad Central de Venezuela
Facultad de Educación
Caracas-Venezuela 1965.

Directorio de Educación Primaria y Secundaria
División de Alumnos

"El Analfabetismo en Venezuela en 1960", p.4
Caracas-Venezuela 1960.

TABLE 8

ILLITERACY RATE FROM 1926-1958⁽²²⁾

YEAR	TOTAL POPULATION	POPULATION MORE THAN 10 YEAR OLD	ILLITERATES	%*	%**
1926	2,693,541	-		74.6	
1936	3,364,347	2,419,211	1,508,238	44.8	66.3
1941	3,850,771	2,750,132	1,580,666	41.0	57.5
1950	5,034,838	3,499,772	1,706,508	33.9	48.8
1958	6,319,809	4,272,184	2,426,463	38.4	56.8

* Illiteracy index calculated over the whole population

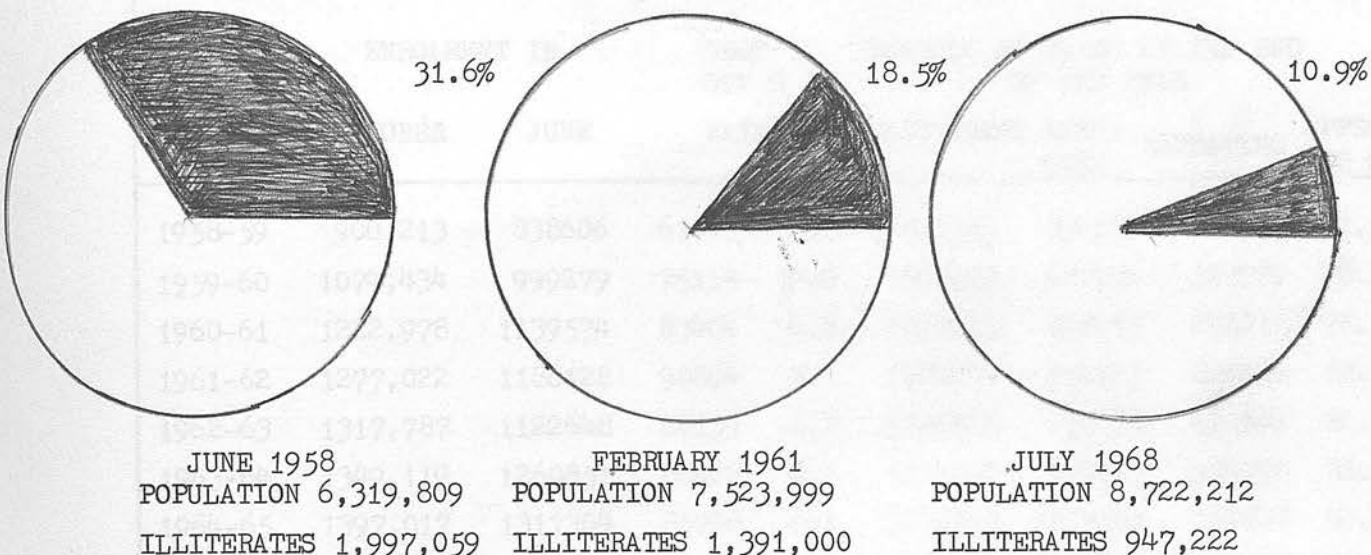
** Illiteracy index calculated over the population older than 10 years.

Based on the above figures the government of Betancourt started its literacy programme. This was continued by Leoni until 1968, under a massive and intensive campaign activated by great publicity. The results shown in the following table were beyond the expectations of the government.

(22) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
 Dirección de Educación Primaria y Normal
 División de Adultos
 "El Analfabetismo es Demotado en Venezuela", p.4
 Caracas-Venezuela 1966.

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERACY IN VENEZUELA
ILLITERATES OVER 15 YEARS OLD(23)



The Betancourt and Leoni governments also achieved success in other educational sectors where education had been inadequate. The following table shows the advances in education during the first ten years of democracy in Venezuela, in the primary sector.

(23) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Dirección de Educación Primaria y Normal
División de Adultos
"El Analfabetismo es Derrotado en Venezuela", *ibid.*

TABLE 10

DEVELOPMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION FROM 1958-1967⁽²⁴⁾

YEARS	ENROLMENT IN		DROP OUT % RATE	RESULTS OF EXAMS AT THE END OF THE YEAR				
	OCTOBER	JUNE		ASSESSMENT	APPR- OVED	REPEATING	APPRO- VED %	
1958-59	900,213	838606	61607	6.8	761795	592155	169540	77.7
1959-60	1074,434	999279	75115	7.0	881083	687296	193787	78.8
1960-61	1222,978	1139574	83404	6.8	1016633	808415	208218	79.5
1961-62	1277,022	1186128	90894	7.1	1062789	854127	208662	80.4
1962-63	1317,787	1122648	88139	6.7	1121815	919853	201962	82.0
1963-64	1349,119	1260851	88268	6.5	1161207	961417	199790	82.8
1964-65	1397,017	1311309	85708	6.1	1219503	1029696	189807	84.4
1965-66	1453,310	1368147	85163	5.9	1289455	1138877	150578	88.3
1966-67	1510,373	1423710	86663	5.7	1390200	1267200	122338	91.2

As we can see according to the official statistics there was a continuous improvement in the enrolment and a constant decline in the drop out rate. There were similar results in the percentage of students approved (91.2% approved and 8.8% of students repeating). It can be said that the mentioned governments achieved the target of providing educational opportunity to almost every Venezuelan child between 7 and 14 years old. In spite of the drop out and repeating rate, there was a great advance.

Because the Democratic Action Party that supported Betancourt and Leoni was exhausted from being a power fourteen years and above all a deep division inside it allowed Rafael Caldera to become

(24) Ministerio de Educación Nacional
 Dirección de Educación Primaria y Normal
 División de Adultos
 "El Analfabetismo es Derrotado en Venezuela", *ibid.*

president (1968) and to initiate a programme of social reforms inspired by the Christian Democratic ideology. Rafael Caldera and his party (COPEI) (Venezuelan Christian Democratic Party) initiated a series of reforms such as the Educational Reform that was considered as one of the achievements of his government. They reformed education in order to fulfil the following educational requirements:

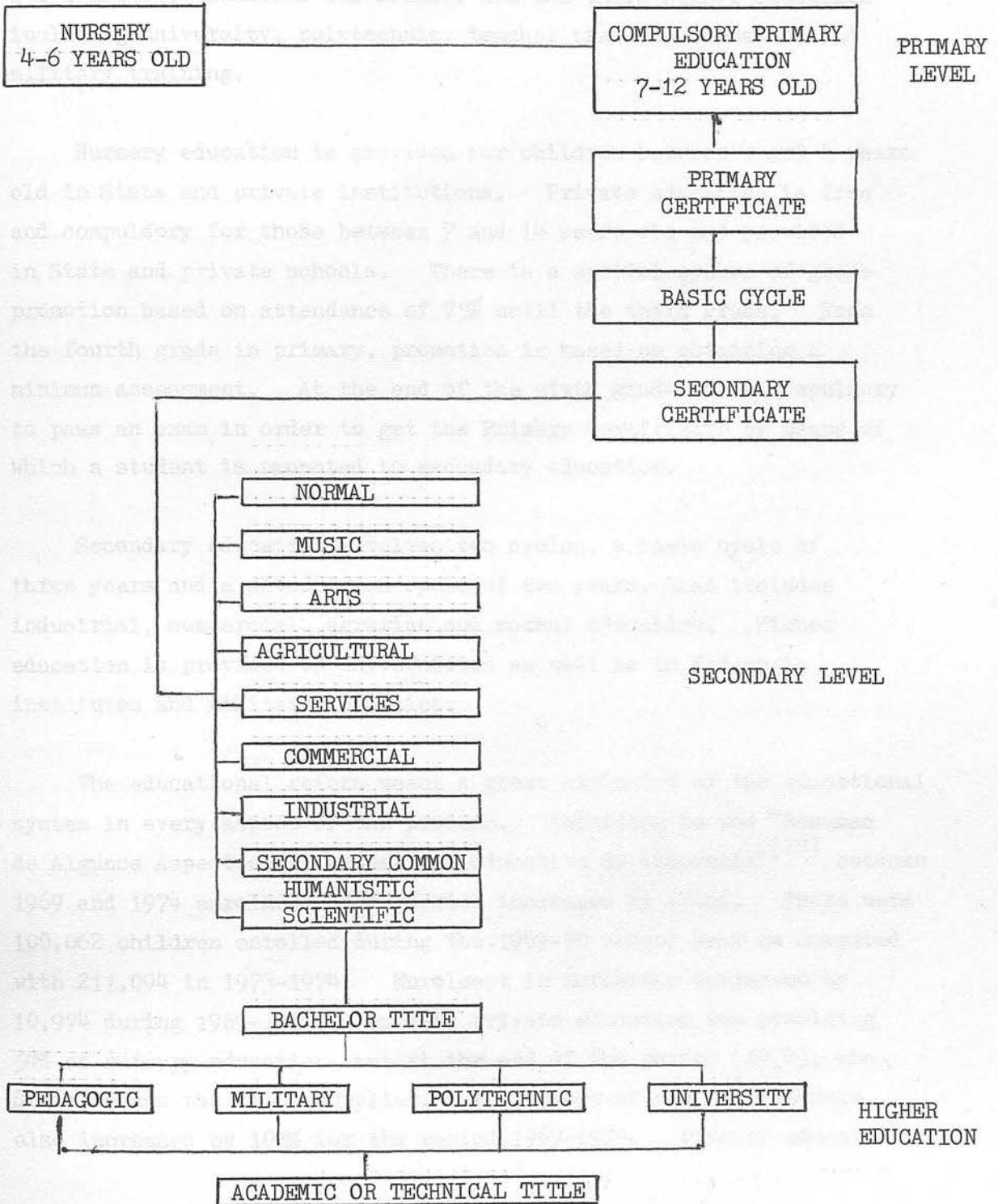
1. Education as a key to economic development.
2. Education as a weapon to generate social transformations.
3. Education as an alternative to the autonomous development, that means a Venezuelan education in order to achieve development through the country's efforts.
4. Education based on the principle of lifelong education.
5. Education as a main sector to be developed that means as a national enterprise in continuous development.
6. Education as an instrument for developing national values.(25)

These aims were used as the basis for educational planning. Priority was given to those educational projects related to expanding education and to educational research. The new framework of the Venezuelan educational system was structured as follows.

(25) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Departamento de Documentación e Información Pedagógica
"La Educación Actual en Venezuela; Situaciones y Perspectivas"
Caracas-Venezuela 1972.

(26) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Oficina Sectorial de Filología, Lingüística y Gramática
"Resumen de Algunas Asociaciones de la Realidad Lingüística de Venezuela"
Caracas 1970.

TABLE 11
STRUCTURE OF VENEZUELAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM (26)



(26) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
 Oficina Sectorial de Planificación y Presupuesto
 "Resumen de Algunos Aspectos de la Realidad Educativa de Venezuela"
 Caracas 1970.

The Venezuelan educational system is divided into three levels, primary, secondary and higher education. The first level comprises nursery education and primary, the second, secondary education and its branches, technical and normal, and the third higher education including university, polytechnic, teacher training education and military training.

Nursery education is provided for children between 4 and 6 years old in State and private institutions. Private education is free and compulsory for those between 7 and 14 years old and provided in State and private schools. There is a special system of grade promotion based on attendance of 75% until the third grade. From the fourth grade in primary, promotion is based on obtaining a minimum assessment. At the end of the sixth grade it is compulsory to pass an exam in order to get the Primary Certificate by means of which a student is promoted to secondary education.

Secondary education involves two cycles, a basic cycle of three years and a diversified cycle of two years, that includes industrial, commercial, agrarian and normal education. Higher education is provided in universities as well as in Pedagogic institutes and military academies.

The educational reform meant a great expansion of the educational system in every aspect of the process. According to the "Resumen de Algunos Aspectos de la Realidad Educativa de Venezuela"⁽²⁷⁾ between 1969 and 1974 enrolment in nurseries increased by 17.6%. There were 100,062 children enrolled during the 1969-70 school year as compared with 211,094 in 1973-1974. Enrolment in nurseries increased by 10,974 during 1969-1974. By 1969 private education was providing 54% of nursery education, but at the end of the period (1974), the State became the major supplier. The number of nursery teachers also increased by 105% for the period 1969-1974. Primary education

(27) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Venezuela
Oficina Sectorial de Planificación y Presupuesto
"Resumen de Algunos Aspectos de la Realidad Educativa de
Venezuela", p.7
Caracas-Venezuela 1975

grew 14.39% during the same period. In the period 1969-1970; 65,118 children younger than 7 years old passed to secondary compared to 117,281 in 1973-1974. This means an increase of 81.3%. Enrolment of 7 to 13 years old presented an increase of 13.39%, i.e. from 1,501,791 in the school year 1969-1971 to 1,702,935 during 1973-1974 (89.28% of the child population served) to 1,702,935 during 1973-1974 (98.50% of the child population served). On the other hand children younger than 13 years old in the population decreased during 1969-1974 by 10.33% that is from 115,038 in 1969-1970 (6.84%) to 103,824 (5.35%) in 1973-1974. The Venezuelan child population of 7 to 13 years old has increased during 1969-1974 by 250,000 students that is 13.4%. In 1969 the student population of this age group was 1,940,032 and in 1973-1974; 2,200,746. During the school year of 1973-1974 there were 445,792 children between 7 and 13 years old that did not receive any kind of educational service. The drop out rate during 1972-1973 was 8.6% compared with rates of previous years indicating a minimal progress. Dropping out still occurred mostly during second and third year of primary education and tended to diminish in the fifth. The modifications introduced by the educational reform diminished the rates of repeating classes. However, there are signs of failures in the fourth and fifth degree of primary where exams and assessment were required for promotion. This phenomenon limited the qualitative improvement of primary. As a consequence of the expansion, the number of teachers also increased and during 1969-1974; 9,092 teachers were incorporated into the system, which is an increase of 21.6%. The number of students for every teacher averaged at 38-40.

Enrolment in the basic cycle of secondary education increased by 160,023 students during the period 1969-1974. The enrolment in the diversified cycle was 137,378 students. For 1969-1970 enrolment in fourth, fifth and sixth degree of secondary education was 73,625. That means an increase of 67,353 (86.50%) new students. The distribution according to age of students during 1973-1974 for

the diversified and common cycle was as follows:

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO AGE OF STUDENTS
SECONDARY COMMON CYCLE AND DIVERSIFIED(28)

COMMON CYCLE		
AGE GROUP	STUDENTS	%
LESS THAN 14 YEARS OLD	151,131	33.82
14 TO 16	246,015	55.05
17 AND MORE THAN THAT	49,687	11.11
TOTAL	446,833	99.98
DIVERSIFIED CYCLE		
AGE GROUP		
LESS THAN 17 YEARS OLD	50,882	37.03
17 TO 19	70,815	51.54
20 AND MORE THAN THAT	15,681	11.45
TOTAL	137,378	99.98

According to the "Resumen de Algunos Aspectos de la Realidad Educativa de Venezuela"⁽²⁹⁾ in June 1973, there were 814,976 students between 14 and 16 years of age. From this total 246,015 were in the basic common cycle, 99,366 were in primary and 50,724 in the diversified cycle. The total served by the educational system was 396,105 (48.60%) of the students between 14 and 16 years old. 418,871 students of this age group did not receive education.

(28) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Dirección de Planeamiento
Departamento de Documentación e Información Pedagógica, p.14
Caracas-Venezuela 1975.

(29) Ministerio Nacional de Educación
Oficina Sectorial de Planificación y Presupuesto
"Resumen de Algunos Aspectos de la Realidad Educativa
Venezuela" ibid.
Caracas-Venezuela 1975.

In June 1973 there were 814,976 students between 17 and 19 years old of whom 70,815 were in the diversified cycle. A grand total of 45,792 students of this group were in the basic cycle and 698,389 did not receive any education at all. The enrolment in the diversified cycle shows a tendency towards the traditional secondary education, because almost three quarters of the student population in that cycle were concentrated in the humanistic and scientific secondary education. For the school year 1973-1974 the distribution of students in the secondary level was as follows: secondary common was 70.1% (Sciences 56.7%; Humanistic 13.4%), Technical 23% and Normal 7%.

TABLE 13
DISTRIBUTION OF SECONDARY STUDENTS SCHOOL YEAR 1973-1974 (30)

<u>SECONDARY EDUCATION</u>	<u>ENROLMENT</u>
COMMON	
SCIENCES	77,849
HUMANISTIC	18,422
TECHNICAL	
INDUSTRIAL	14,557
COMMERCE	11,939
SERVICES	3,000
AGRICULTURE	2,011
NORMAL	
ARTS	
ARTISTIC EDUCATION	110
TOTAL	137,378

The number of teachers working in the school year 1973-1974 in Venezuela secondary education was 28,851.

(30) Ministerio Nacional de Educacion
 Dirección de Planeamiento
 Perez O. Enrique
 "Nuevos Aportes a la Reforma Educativa"
 Caracas-Venezuela 1974.

Since the period starting in 1968 until the present, Venezuelan higher education was provided in the Universidades Nacionales Autonomas and in Universidades Experimentales depending on the Ministry of Education. According to Roger Godoy C. the enrolment for the university year 1967-1968 was 58,201 students and its distribution was as follows.

TABLE 14

DISTRIBUTION OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS YEAR 1967-1968⁽³¹⁾

STATE UNIVERSITIES	75.14%
EXPERIMENTAL UNIVERSITIES	5.69%
INSTITUTES OF HIGHER EDUCATION	6.30%
PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES	12.87%

The figures increased to 109,065 in 1971-1972. The distribution in percentage following the divisions of the table was 67.45%; 11.38%; 5.38% and 15.79% respectively. In the university year 1973-1974 the whole enrolment in higher education reached 159,269 students, 91.33% of whom enrolled in universities. The State universities (Central, Carabobo, de los Andes y Zulia) had 73.27% of the university enrolment. The Universidad Central de Venezuela, the main institution of higher education had 31.54% of the university students. In the qualitative aspect in one way or another higher education in Venezuela has prepared the necessary manpower to improving the socioeconomic conditions of the country. According to Godoy C. Roger, in the period between 1961-1970; 48,119 persons graduated, being 50% of those that graduated in the previous decade 1960-1970. The liberal and traditional careers constituted the major percentage, Law 18.9%; Engineering 15.2%; Medicine 23.8%; Social Sciences 14.9%.

(31) Godoy C. Roger
"Educación y Recursos Humanos en Venezuela, un aporte al estudio de los Recursos Humanos de Nivel Superior"
Universidad Central de Venezuela
Facultad de Ciencias Económicas
Caracas-Venezuela 1976.

In 1973 the Democratic Action Party and its presidential candidate Carlos A. Perez, were back in office after winning the election over the Christian Democratic Party (COPEI). The new government started a new programme called "The Educational Revolution". As in previous educational programmes there was a necessity for fulfilling two fundamental objectives: the democratizing of education in order to incorporate the entire school age population in the system and the modernization of all levels of studies to adapt them to scientific and technological goals. The educational programme criticized the Venezuelan Educational Reform of 1969, that led to the creation of basic and diversified cycles. The basic cycle linked traditionally secondary education with technical education in the first three years. Students ready to enter the diversified cycle were classified according to their vocational interest. It was supposed that such reforms would lead students to studies other than the traditional secondary one. However, this was not the case because more than 70% of the students went to traditional secondary education. Thus the programme failed to achieve its objectives. Although there were difficulties in financing the modifications introduced in secondary education and its administration, the educational reform of 1969 meant an extension of the educational services and changes that in one way or another led to link Venezuelan education with the requirement of the people through the creation of higher educational institutes in provinces and the re-structuring of educational services on the whole.

After three years of the "Revolucion Educativa" programme there was an impressive increase in attendance, according to the "Memoria y Cuenta que el Ministro de Educacion presenta al Congreso Nacional de la Republica de Venezuela en sus Sesiones de 1977."⁽³²⁾ Enrolment in nursery education increased considerably, by 493.4% from 1967-1968

(32) Ministerio Nacional de Educacion
Memoria y Cuenta que el Ministro de Educacion presenta al Congreso Nacional de la Republica de Venezuela en sus Sesiones de 1977
Caracas-Venezuela 1977.

to 1974-1975. It reached 727.7% in the school year 1975-1976. The State served 78.8% of the nursery enrolment. The number of teachers and school buildings also increased as the percentage variation registered as base the school year 1967-1968 is 554.7% for the year 1974-1975 and 705.8% for the school year 1975-1976. Nursery education generally is provided in the same building as primary education. However, there was an increase of 491.6% in school building percentual variation taking as base from 1967-1968 to 719.7% in 1975-1976. There was an increase in primary education as well. The variation index between the school year 1966-1967 (base year) and the 1974-1975 one is 131.3%. The same comparison with the school year 1975-1976 is 139.1%. The increase of enrolment in the 1975-1976 school year was 118,290 students. The State provide most of the primary education. Private primary education reached 11.1%.

The rate of repeating in Venezuelan primary education in the school year 1966-1967 was 11.9%, descending to 9.6% in 1974-1975 and 9.4% in 1976. The school retention as a measure of the number of students enrolled in the first degree and the number of those who appear enrolled in the following degrees for the period 1960-1965 was as follows: out of every 100 students enrolled in the first degree, 28 reached the first degree. In the period 1970-1975 the figure rose to 61 and for the period 1970-1976 to 64. The number of teachers increased 12.3% in the school year 1975-1976 compared to the previous year. In 1975-1976, 83.19% of the teachers were trained in primary education. The number of schools built was increased by 761 which represents a 6.9% increase. Secondary education was modified since the school year 1969-1970, as it was mentioned and the enrolment in secondary education provided in the day (as there is secondary education provided for adults during the evening) increased by 37,928 in the school year 1975-1976 in comparison with the year 1974-1975, this meant a 6% increase. State secondary education absorbed 82.1% of the total enrolment in the school year 1975-1976. The rate of repeating classes

increased in the period 1975-1976 and was 10.8%. In the previous year it was 10.7%. However, the drop out rate decreased from 5.1% in the period 1974-1975 to 2.5% in the school year 1975-1976. The number of teachers also increased by 11.4% and the schools built by 2.6% in comparison with the year 1974-1975.

Since the starting of its actual democratic process (1958) Venezuelan Adult Education had been provided entirely by the Ministry of Education, through different programmes. Private institutions, departments and offices of other ministeries have also collaborated in the remedial task of teaching reading and writing. A large number of people have followed their unfinished primary and secondary education in the evening. The following table shows the development of adult education since the school year 1958-1959.

TABLE 15

SCHOOL POPULATION SERVED BY THE ADULT EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS
SCHOOL YEARS 1958-1959 TO 1974-1975(33)

YEARS	TOTAL	ILLITERACY	PRIMARY	SPECIAL	MEDIA
1958-1959	378772	309689	50936	4240	13907
1960-1961	354672	239615	70871	11444	32742
1962-1963	289616	146759	87616	15974	39267
1964-1965	264095	112380	82810	22194	46711
1966-1967	257225	86061	84442	32450	54292
1968-1969	224725	36355	81380	41794	65216
1970-1971	234659	36562	82992	38215	77890
1972-1973	252004	29908	85324	37146	99626
1974-1975	308996	34799	98762	45459	129976

(33) Ministerio Nacional de Educacion
La Revolución Educativa 1974-1975
Caracas-Venezuela 1975.

From the above picture one can conclude that the illiteracy rate has been decreasing progressively almost nine times since the school year 1958-1959. This is another great improvement.

Summing up, the educational service has moved forwards considerably during the last twenty years, but it is still unable to bridge the gap between the educational system and the requirements of the society. Above all, Venezuelan education has not been able to be diversified in a way that could help the needs of a growing industrialized country. Venezuelan education has been the reflection of a society that up to 1958 was governed by dictatorships which never held education as top priority. The emergence of democracy and the chances of achieving fast economic development thanks to the exploitation of oil and other natural resources, have made education an issue that requires to be re-assessed and improved every time. As far as ABA is concerned, Venezuelan educational problems do not differ much from the other Andean countries, but it counts to her favour, an enormous availability of economic resources which might place Venezuelan education in a better position. Venezuela's financial contribution towards ABA is bigger than the other countries, although it participates with the same rights. Since the signing of the agreement Venezuela has seen ABA as one of the means to put into practice, the integrationist ideas once stated by Bolivar.

(1) See Chapter I.

(2) See: (a) Los Santos, Francisco
"La Estructura de Dependencia"
Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas y Sociales
Lima-Perú 1975.-
(b) André Gunder Frank
"Capitalism and Underdevelopment in Latin America"
Penguin Books
Harmondsworth 1971.

CHAPTER V

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS OF THE ANDEAN REGION
AND THEIR FEASIBILITY OF INTEGRATION

We have discussed in the previous chapters the educational development of three of the ABA member countries and it seems important to examine in the present one, the most common and relevant problems of Andean education. ABA agreed that the recognition of primary and secondary education, on the reciprocal conditions of entry to universities, on a common educational statistics system and on the re-examination of the history programmes⁽¹⁾ leading actions towards the harmonization of the educational systems. But there are educational problems which are more important than those stated by ABA and that need to be considered as priority in any Andean attempt to harmonize the educational systems. For that reason an examination of these problems and its possible contribution to a better understanding of Andean education is necessary.

Most of the academic works on the South American educational world show at a glance that education takes place within societies whose main characteristic is their economic underdevelopment. In this sense all of the ABA countries share the symptoms that in one way or another typify developing nations. There is a great problem of economic, technological and cultural dependency,⁽²⁾ aggravated by problems of monoproduction (that is to say the production of primary goods or raw materials purely for export) and monomarket (meaning dependency on the exportation of its monoproduction, and importation of multiple manufactured goods from industrialized countries, a rule solely from one, which becomes the economic and

(1) See Chapter I.

(2) See: (a) Dos Santos Theotonio
"La Estructura de Dependencia"
Instituto de Investigación y Desarrollo de la Educación
Lima-Perú 1975.

(b) Andre Gunder Frank
"Capitalism and Underdevelopment in Latin America"
Penguin Books
Harmondsworth 1971.

political metropolis). Andean nations' income per capita is low and a large external debt (always rising because of the shortage of foreign currency, unfavourable commercial transactions, payments for fleets, insurances, loans and so on) is another characteristic of the ABA's countries economy. In addition to each of these economic problems and originating from them are the poor sanitary conditions which lead to high incidence of illness and death. In addition to the aforementioned problems, the rapid population growth is accentuated by the migration of Indians from the highlands to the coastal cities. All this augmenting the already serious lack of accomodation, jobs, hospitals and so on. Within these very generally described socioeconomic conditions, the Andean educational systems provide their service. The main aspects of this service can be summarized as follows:

- (a) a badly related situation between the educational system and society and between the systems themselves,
- (b) a failure to provide suitable education for the marginal social sectors of society as well as to match education with employment and
- (c) a similar educational structure.

1. THE POOR LINKS BETWEEN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS AND SOCIETY

There seems to be a general feeling among South American educationalists that the process of formal education fulfils the demands of some parts of Andean society. It appears that the educational systems are providing the Andean citizens with an education that is unable to meet the development needs of their societies. However, despite the problems and failures that could be brought against, education has played a very important cultural role through the years. There have been important advances regarding the extension of education, the improvement in the field of teacher training, the development of nursery and technical education and so on. It would be logical to consider as a success

the great expansion of educational opportunities during the last thirty years. But this very expansion has been characterized by a lack of planning and sensitive administration. In other words, hundreds of thousands of new students have gone into a system that is unable to offer them any expectations other than to receive an education that will be of little help in equipping them to face the problems of adult life. The increase in educational provision becomes important when it is compared with the growth of the population and the ages associated with the educational process. The response of the educational systems to this increase of the population (which was 2.7% for the Andean area in 1975)⁽³⁾ has been intensive and dynamic in quantitative terms. Having become aware of the problem of a large population explosion and limited resources, the Andean governments have concentrated their educational services mainly in urban areas. Considering as an example the case of Bolivia and Ecuador, there was an explosion of educational programmes from 1960 to 1970. This can be shown in the following tables.

TABLE 1

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN BOLIVIA⁽⁴⁾

	<u>ENROLLED PUPILS</u>		
	<u>1960</u>	<u>1965</u>	<u>1970</u>
1	114,998	153,901	178,459
2	77,783	99,221	127,794
3	56,893	76,538	91,619
4	40,229	54,911	74,614
5	30,206	42,589	60,991
6	21,996	32,259	44,990
TOTAL	341,966	459,511	584,527

(3) Centro Latino de Demografía
Boletín Demográfico de Población Urbana y Rural
Año 1970-1980-1990-2000. Año IX No. 18
Santiago-Chile 1976.

(4) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Colombia
"Países Signatarias del CAB"
Bogotá 1974, p.46.

TABLE 2

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ECUADOR⁽⁵⁾

ENROLMENT

	1960		1965		1970	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
1	108,567	100,243	113,815	126,737	147,735	138,328
2	61,806	56,523	82,811	76,929	98,347	93,514
3	49,584	44,196	63,376	60,552	83,320	77,812
4	35,605	30,345	51,095	44,814	70,957	65,142
5	34,529	20,336	36,521	31,218	57,082	51,082
6	19,414	15,595	29,165	24,396	49,522	43,981
Total	229,561	276,238	402,083	364,646	506,304	469,925
GRAND TOTAL	496,805		766,729		976,229	

From the above tables, it can be concluded that the provision of primary education in Bolivia and Ecuador between 1960 and 1970 increased 24% and 49% respectively. Secondary and higher education also increased considerably. Figures concerning Chile, Peru and Venezuela are given in Chapters II, III and IV respectively. To the enrolment increase was added an increase in the number of teachers who began to work in their respective countries in order to satisfy that great educational demand. For example, the number of teachers for Colombia and Venezuela between 1965 and 1975 was as follows.

(5) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Colombia (ibid.)
"Países Signatarios del CAB"
Bogotá 1974, p.98.

(6) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Colombia
Estadísticas de la Oficina de Planeación
Bogotá 1973, p.27.

(7) Ministerio de Educación de Venezuela
Escuela de Estadística del Centro de Investigaciones Económicas
de la Dirección de Planeación. Informe N°
Caracas 1971, p.17.

TABLE 3

COLOMBIA: PRIMARY EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE BETWEEN 1960-1970
NUMBER OF TEACHERS (6)

	1960		1965		1970	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
PUBLIC EDUCATION	6,982	26,765	10,457	38,990	13,190	40,212
PRIVATE EDUCATION	3,570	7,593	4,505	2,928	5,855	12,793
TOTAL	10,552	34,358	14,962	48,288	19,045	60,005
GRAND TOTAL	44,910		57,250		81,051	

TABLE 4

VENEZUELA: PRIMARY EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE BETWEEN 1960-1970
NUMBER OF TEACHERS (7)

	1960		1965		1970	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
PUBLIC EDUCATION	5,189	23,623	5,566	28,780	6,045	37,185
PRIVATE EDUCATION	1,517	4,371	1,581	5,696	1,160	6,432
TOTAL	6,706	27,994	7,147	35,476	7,205	43,617
GRAND TOTAL	34,700		42,623		50,882	

The increase in the number of teachers in primary education in Colombia and Venezuela was 44.8% and 31.9% respectively. The considerable increase in the educational systems of the Andean countries was the result of new policies as well as an increase in the allocation of financial resources. Both public and private and also thanks to the international aid which is one of the ways thereby Andean countries can implement their educational projects.

(6) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Colombia
Estadísticas de la Oficina de Planeamiento
Bogotá 1972, p.28.

(7) Ministerio de Educación de Venezuela
Sección de Estadística del Opto de Investigaciones Educativas
de la Dirección de Planeamiento. Informe 1971
Caracas 1971, p.13.

The State constitution of every Andean country considers education within the statements on Human Rights; furthermore, education is considered compulsory, free and the opportunity of teaching and being taught is a basic individual right. However, in spite of these ideals propositions, and the fact that the expansion of primary educational programmes for every child of the member countries of the ABA is still one of their main purposes, they are far from achieving this aim. The problem of lack of opportunity is an old one and it cannot be solved through different development projects of international aid, such as the "Alliance for Progress", that established among its aims and purposes to erradicate illiteracy and to secure a minimum six years of education for the children of Latin America. To the problem of lack of adequate primary education is added the problem of school drop out. For instance, the Peruvian educational system has spent 4.8% of its G.N.P. in graduating twelve secondary students out of every hundred that started primary education in 1967.⁽⁸⁾ Almost all the children who attended primary school do not come back after their first year of studies, and their learning abilities are affected by malnutrition and other social problems concerned with underdevelopment. Relating the malnutrition problem to education, F. Monckeberg pointed out that

"60% of the Chilean children of seven years of age (which is the school starting age) have symptoms of subnutrition. 40% of pre-school students in the marginal sectors around Santiago score less than 80 on intelligence tests, the average being between 90 and 100. This low score is due to malnutrition and the deprived educational, cultural and insanitary conditions of their families."⁽⁹⁾

Thus most of them become potential drop outs and usually do not achieve a good degree of elementary education that would allow them

(8) Ministerio de Educación
Ley de Reforma Educativa
Lima-Perú 1972.

(9) Monckeberg, F.
"Desnutrición y Desarrollo Socioeconómico"
Revista Mensaje No. 182, p.44
Santiago-Chile 1976.

to reach a sufficient basic level in reading and writing. Consequently, functional illiteracy or the illiteracy often due to no reading and writing is greater than the record obtained for people that never went to school. The cumulative effect of total or partial elementary education in a greater sector of the population is reflected in those who have passed the educational age and are incorporated into the active population. This problem is accentuated in the female sector of the population, especially in rural areas in the highlands of the Andean region in which women play a very important role in the process of planting the seeds and harvesting. Most of the main economic and productive activities, which in the case of Andean countries are related very much to agriculture, are in the hands of this poorly educated active population. This is the generalised situation; a factor which is a result of the conditions of underdevelopment, but at the same time a factor which serves to perpetuate it. Efforts made in the past and in the present to improve the standard of living, to improve the employment situation, to improve the health conditions and so on, are hindered by the low educational level of the population. A clear example of this is pointed out by P. Harrison,

"Cultural and economic obstacles are equally powerful barriers against the penetration by a formal health service. With an average annual income of only US \$44 per head, Puno is one of the poorest regions in Peru and local people cannot readily afford the cost of doctor's fees. Nearly two thirds of them speak no Spanish at all, which is the language of the doctors and hospitals. They patronized traditional healers instead, who use incantations, occasional sacrifices, cocaine to deaden pain and herbal remedies; some are effective, some useless or even harmful. Superstition prevails in local views on the origin and treatment of disease; they see illness as caused by evil humours and even diarrhoea is attributed as due to catching cold. Traditionally midwives seem more concerned with such ritual as burning rubbish on the threshold or putting crosses of straw on the mother's stomach than with cleanliness. More than a third of them use broken glass, stones or knives to cut the placenta, contributing (along with poor health) to the maternal death rate of 8.7 per 1,000 live births."(10)

- (10) Harrison, P. "Elected by the Community", article written in World Health. The Magazine of the World Organization. August, September 1977, p.18. Geneve-Switzerland.

Illiteracy is a result of the economic development of the countries and it is a negative factor against economic production whose technical requirements are increasingly greater. One of the biggest causes of illiteracy in Andean countries is the language problem. A large illiterate population does not speak Spanish at all, such as the Peruvian Indians in the highlands who speak Quechua or Jungle languages in the Amazonian region, the Bolivian Indians who speak Aymara or the Ecuadonian Indians who speak Quechua with different intonations. So, for a person and literacy teams setting up programmes in those regions the problem of communication is a real one. The number of inhabitants in the Andean region that remain illiterate and the percentage of the population over 15 years old for countries in the area is as follows: Bolivia 60%; Colombia 22%; Chile 11.7%; Ecuador 28%; Peru 27%; and Venezuela 24.1%.⁽¹¹⁾ During the last twenty years, these countries have developed a series of programmes and adult education courses to eradicate illiteracy and it has been recognized that the process of teaching reading and writing is linked with other processes of change and social participation which are orientated towards better conditions of living. Thus, it is not a problem of increasing the number of schools and teachers, but rather one which depends on political drive and on the socioeconomic situation of the country. Summing up, it could be assumed that there is a vice versa mis-matched process. On the one hand, the educational system is not providing society with an education that it demands for its citizens, and on the other, society is contributing greatly to the failure of the educational system as it does not provide the resources human, economic and material to produce a good service from the system.

2. THE FAILURE TO PROVIDE A SUITABLE EDUCATION FOR MARGINAL SECTORS AND THE FAILURE TO MATCH EDUCATION WITH EMPLOYMENT

All the Andean educational systems mention as their main aim the development of human personality, the ability of men to live as

(11) UNESCO
Education Statistic Latest Year Available
January 1977
Division of Statistic on Education
Paris 1977.

individuals within society; the formation of citizens for the democratic way of life, the creation and conservation of culture; the incorporation of the masses into the society and the building and re-affirmation of nationhood. However, these aims of equal opportunities in education for everybody in their lifetime have not been fulfilled. The crisis in the provision of education and in the quality of it, take form mainly in (a) failure to provide a suitable education for the marginal sectors of society and (b) a failure to match education with employment.

(I) THE FAILURE TO PROVIDE SUITABLE EDUCATION FOR THE LARGE SECTORS OF THE ANDEAN POPULATION

The expansion and improvement of education are unequally distributed and there are certain social strata which have benefited from the economic, technical, cultural and educational progress of the Andean societies; but also there are large sectors of the population which because of their geographical position, their ethnic origin or their low socioeconomic status have received an inferior education both in terms of amount and in terms of quality. This means the provision of education given in rural areas is poor in comparison to that in urban ones. The present illiteracy rates in rural areas are higher than in the urban places. In addition to this, the teachers have a lower level of training. As a consequence of this, the active population working in agriculture has a lower educational level and also has a lower income per capita. For example this can be seen in Venezuela where

"the great bulk of the population is split between the centres of modern activities and the areas where those of primitive type are concentrated. The differences between the productivity levels and hence incomes of these two large groups are very great - the average income in large cities is two and three quarters higher than in rural areas - and this is the major aspect of the great inequality in the distribution of income in the country." (12)

- (12) United Nations
Economic Commission for Latin America
Income Distribution in Latin America, p.107
New York 1977.

Rural education is reduced to a deficient primary education that is characterized by the lack of non-formal activities in order to support it. Generally, it aims to incorporate peasants to the structure of urban society through an education modelled in urban patterns. A clear example of this problem is pointed out by Brumberg in his essay "Colombia: a Multimedia Rural Educational Program".

"Rural Colombia lags far behind urban areas in education. The average length of schooling of the rural population in 1964 was only 1.7 years compared to 5.1 years for urban dwellers. In part, these figures are due to selective migration: the better educated rural inhabitants have a greater tendency to migrate to cities than those with little or no education. But the low average of schooling also reflects the abysmal condition of rural schools. Few rural schools provided a full five years primary course and as of 1964; 64% provided only one or two years schooling under poorly trained and often unqualified teachers. Only 3% of those who enter rural primary schools complete the five years course compared to 46% of urban children."(13)

Even though the data offered by S. F. Brumberg is not up to date, the situation does not seem changed between those days and now. The situation is even worse in areas where there are settled communities that are culturally segregated such as the large Indian settlements of Bolivia, Ecuador and Perú and the scarce and nearly extinguished Indian communities of Colombia, Chile and Venezuela. These settlements have diminished in numbers as a result of the absorbing force of the dominant Western culture, which failed to plan for integration (and hence protection) of the cultural values that these groups once had.

On the other hand, education in urban areas does not meet the proposed standard in marginal areas of cities; that have grown without a process of urbanization and planning. The socioeconomic

- (13) Brumberg, S. F.
"Colombia: A Multimedia Rural Educational Program" in
Education for Rural Development, p.3
Edited by Manzoor Ahmed and Philip Coombs
Prepared for the World Bank and Unicef
Praeger Publishers
New York 1975.

conditions of marginal inhabitants in cities destroy their hopes of being supplied with education, in spite of the existence of schools, due to their precarious conditions of nutrition, housing, health and so on. Therefore, the growth of cities as a consequence of rural migration is more a rural failure than a result of urban prosperity. In this way the educational system does not fulfil the quantitative and qualitative educational requirements of these peripheral communities affected by the problems of the economic and social order.

Education in marginal communities in the ABA countries is just an educational transplant from the urban centre to the poorest marginal areas of the city. In this sense Ivan Illich⁽¹⁴⁾ was right when he pointed out, that the school (educational system) is not able to make up the differences between the poor child and the rich one. Even if they attend the same type of school, with the same curriculum, poor children miss most of the educational opportunities which are casually available to middle class children, as access to libraries and informal ways of learning.

There are attempts at solving the problems of marginal life and education. However, from the description of the problem above, it could be concluded that the unequal character of the educational opportunities does not depend just on geographical factors nor on the urban rural duality. It depends also in the different educational environments, purposes and everything that separates an efficient process from the absolute lack of coordination with the society in which education takes place. The explanation of these disparities has its origin in the interaction of internal and external factors that affect educational systems. The educational expansion has benefitted only the middle urban classes of the Andean countries that have the means of political and social pressure to demand more and better education.

(14) Illich Ivan
"Deschooling Society"
Penguin Books Ltd.
Harmondsworth, Middlesex 1975.

The discrimination of education goes together with other forms of inequalities. The illiterate and poorly educated children are always to be found among the lower strata and the lower income groups.

Education in the Andean countries sometimes becomes a task which does not have much chance of success. In rural areas for example, the school is not set into a economic framework formed by the sources of work, the distribution of the land, the agricultural technology, the commercialization of production, etc. The cultural factors are no less important. In this way, it is impossible to hope that children will be successful if the teacher has few pedagogical resources and belongs to a different cultural world.

Although Spanish is taught in the schools, it is not spoken well and the difficulties in the communication with teachers are deep, as most of the Indian communities speak their own languages. Regarding this problem Lambros Comitas assumes that

"The policy of CASTELLINIZATION (the teaching of Spanish) has also compounded problems of cultural and ethnic ideality. If one of the basic objectives of the rural school is to cultivate a sense of pride in being an Indian and a campesino (peasant), then instruction in Spanish, a language inextricably associated with the upper and middle class elements of Bolivia and of little direct value in AYMARA or QUECHUA community, widens rather than narrows the social gap. The language of instruction in this case tends more to divorce rather than weld together, the student and his rural content. In any case, the goal of making Spanish the cornerstone of national cohesion is far from being realised. For example, of the four basically AYMARA communities in the study sample, none had more than 1.2% monolingual Spanish speakers, and these were always government officials assigned to the community. AYMARA monolinguals ranged from a high 84.4% in a community to a low of 42.5% in the most cultivated village. Self-professed bilinguals in Spanish and AYMARA ranged from a low of 10.5% to a 49.6%."(15)

- (15) Comitas Lambros
"Education and Social Stratification in Contemporary Bolivia"
Published in "Education and Development", p.341
Latin American Centre
University of California 1972.

Besides this linguistic problem and the inadequacy of the school curriculum, the poor quality of rural education can be found in the poor standard of teacher training that does not suit the rural environment. A primary school certificate is frequently the only necessary requirement for being a rural teacher. A short training course would be given if financial conditions permitted, while for being an urban teacher a secondary education certificate plus an Escuela Normal studies certificate should be required. To this inadequate teacher training should be added the low salaries and poor incentives, as well as the lack of teaching resources available.

(d) ~~Minimal educational requirements for teachers and staff of the~~

An external variable in the problem of educational systems, is that the citizens are aware that the only way of getting employment and a better life is through education. In this way the middle sectors strive to educate their children in order to give them a profession. Consequently, the educational systems are under pressures that force them to expand indiscriminately. Summing up, as has been mentioned before, education in Andean society can be looked at according to the social strata of which it is comprised.

- (a) The traditional oligarchy which has been ruling those countries for decades created the framework of the educational system to educate their children. Education was not a problem for the elite as they could study in private colleges and afford a university degree, just to confirm their status as the bourgeoisie (but nowadays they have been pushed by economic circumstances to compete for bureaucratic jobs, especially in lecturing in private universities and in traditional careers such as Law, Administration and so on). The industrial and economic elites satisfy their technical needs by helping private universities, technical schools, to supply their educational demands.
- (b) In Andean countries the expansion of education is linked with the percentage of middle strata in every country. Education in this strata is almost one hundred per cent. Entrance to

- universities is seen as a step towards one's social improvement. Expansion of secondary education is due to pressure from the middle strata rather than to any planning of educational policies.
- (c) Rural education has been a cultural phenomenon moved from the cities to the countryside, by national policies rather than by local demand. Rural education follows the urban model and it serves the small urban sectors of villages and hamlets more than the ordinary peasants. In one way or another, rural education as it is conceived, is a stimulus to emigration because it prepares the student to live in the cities rather than in the countryside.
- (d) Marginal education is identified with migration and most of the migrant families hope that education will raise their standard of living. Children belonging to these families after receiving primary education, if they are strong enough to overcome deprivation, would face values and stimuli in secondary education that are quite removed from those transmitted to them by their families and primary education, i.e. it means a great deal to know to read and write, and calculate, which is taught in primary school; and it will be a useful tool for surviving, but after learning that, it does not mean too much to know about the love affairs of Henry VIII in secondary school having little chance of getting a place in the university or the chance of more educational and cultural opportunities.

(II) FAILURE TO MATCH EDUCATION WITH EMPLOYMENT

The lack of relation between education and employment is quite complex in the Andean region. There is a high demographic growth and a defficient and inadequate economy which is unable to secure jobs for the whole active population and at the same time, there is no accelerated expansion of education. The principal factor of this problem is the characteristic of the industrial development. The modern industrial sector just absorbs a part of the economically active population. Initiatives regarding manpower planning are far

from being based on a conception of any general plan. In spite of efforts made on the subject, there are still deficiencies and failures which are proved by the low level of economic growth in terms of job productivity and qualification of human resources; and the lack of policies that could offer a starting point for projecting the educational and training needs. There is an absence of a normative criteria for achieving specific purposes of the educational planning. Thus, educational planning cannot go further than pre-determined objectives of quantitative extension of the current educational system. The contrast and the co-existence of the industrial and agrarian sectors of production are reflected in education and it is geographically expressed by the social composition of the urban and rural zones. The process of manpower absorption by the modern sector and the marginalization of the rest, has created a flood of migration from rural areas to urban ones, that has merely moved the misery of the countryside to the cities, thereby augmenting the gravity of the problem. Regarding the agrarian sector, the employment structure is affected by two factors: (a) the enormous latifundios (big agrarian states) which are partially cultivated, with most of the arable land dedicated to pasture (a usage that does not offer employment opportunities) and (b) the excessive number of minifundios (small farms) that do not allow families to use full manpower. Considering the case of Venezuela we can find that in 1971, the unemployment rate was 5.8%, and within this percentage the illiteracy manpower was 3%. People with two or three years of primary education represented 5% and those who had four or six years primary education 6.5%.⁽¹⁶⁾

This means that the employment structure does not recognise education as a criteria for work. The unskilled jobs absorb those who do not have education or who are at lower education level. It is common that people with middle educational level are among

(16) Godoy Castro R.

"Educación y Recursos Humanos en Venezuela", p.105

Universidad Central de Venezuela

División de Publicaciones

Caracas-Venezuela 1976.

those who are often unemployed. However, illiterates and university graduates are more likely to find work, the former because they can easily get an unskilled labouring job and the latter because it is fairly easy to be absorbed by the bureaucracy that runs those countries. In this way it is possible to find Bachelors in Engineering behind a desk in an official or State post and not on the production line. In this sense, only the third sector of the production (the service sector) benefits from the acquisition of a person with a higher educational level. The secondary school leavers are likely to be among those unemployed.

In the agrarian sector the active population is declining as a consequence of the rural migration that is caused by the lack of opportunities in rural areas and also by the chance of getting a job or a better education or a better life in the cities. The result of this migration increases the marginal population in towns, but does not increase the economic development, especially in the industrial field. It also increases the manpower employed at low levels of income because of the excess of available manpower; and at the same time it also increases the underemployed manpower in jobs like selling matches, shining shoes and so on. i.e. in 1960 in Chile the agrarian manpower was 30.7%. By 1975 it had dropped to 24.6%. In Colombia in 1960 it was 49.6% and fell to 42.7% by 1975.⁽¹⁷⁾ Rural manpower has been decreasing as well in other ABA countries.

The more humble and modest educational contributions regarding employment are made in rural areas. A great proportion of rural children do not have or have little education. If they are lucky, they will be able to learn some agrarian skills which in any case, at the end of the day, may not be useful if he or his family decide to emigrate. Educational planners and educational bodies are aware of this problem. For a long time, programmes and activities to

(17) Naciones Unidas
Cepal. "Cuadernos de la Cepal".
Discurso del Secretario Ejecutivo de Cepal
Decimosexto Período de Sesiones
Santiago-Chile 1976.

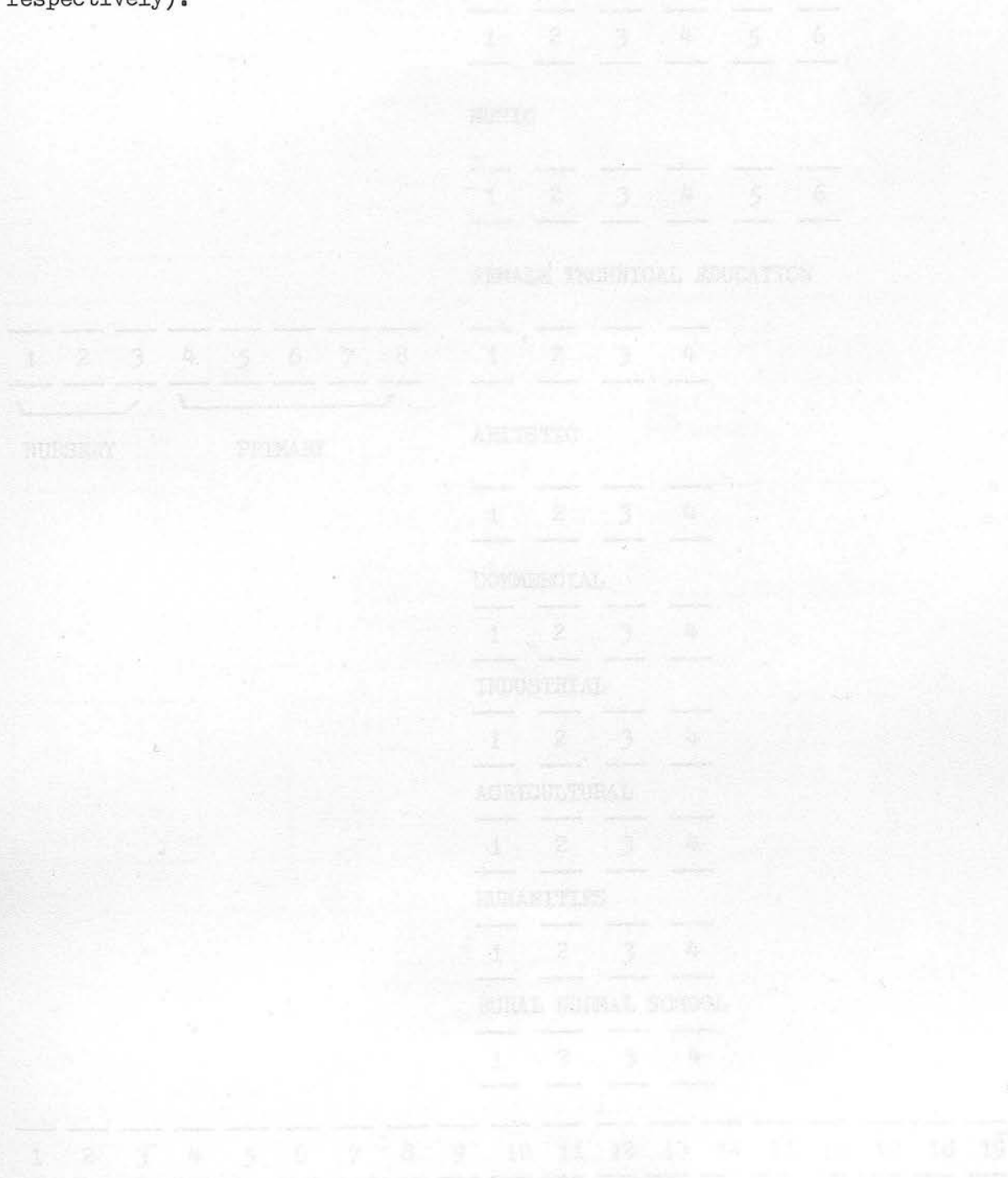
teach the Indian population to write and read and to incorporate them to a western style of society have been carried out, by different means, even by radio and television; but my personal conclusion is that to achieve the purpose of improving the living conditions of the Andean peasants the most profound reforms must be made; the system of the land tenancy must be changed, agrarian technology should be introduced and all of these should be accompanied by educational programmes that break with the imbalance of distribution and provision of education; otherwise the imbalance in the distribution of income and living standards will continue. The mis-matched situation between employment and education is aggravated when educational programmes become longer than before and involve severe student assessment through exams. Because of failures, students often repeat their school term, thereby increasing the time that they stay at school. This phenomenon delays the moment when these students are incorporated into the work force. It has become common practice for employers to always ask for higher educational levels as a requirement for getting any job, even the humblest one, especially in commercial and industrial activities, which of course take place in the cities where most of the secondary school graduates often settle, even when unemployed. Public administration and the civil service are the substitute for a national and planned employment policy, especially in governmental positions, which alleviate the pressures from the educated sectors of the population, who require employment. The deepest concern is for technical education to contribute to industrialization, because it is related in most of the cases to the training in secretaries of a high percentage of vocational activities, such as domestic service, tailoring, hair-dressing and other similar courses whose contribution is minimal towards an economic and industrial development. The situation becomes worse as technical education school graduates have great difficulty in finding employment often having to accept jobs in the civil service or in other minor technical positions in which they will find salaries and responsibilities lower than those who have been trained on the job. Thus, the manpower trained in the

educational system is inadequate to meet the industrial needs. Furthermore, the manpower trained in non-formal activities tend to be scarce, inflexible and unable to adapt to the changes that industries often make. The above mentioned concern leads one to deduce that the relation between education and work source are completely uncoordinated. Efforts to fill the gap are made through different non-formal activities, that aim to train workers mostly for the industrial jobs as the SENA in Colombia, INACAP in Chile and so on. Most of these institutions work with economic resources allocated by entrepreneurs and through the workers and their respective organizations. Other activities are adult education programmes related to literary courses and to the finishing of primary and secondary education under the same patterns given for students of school age. There are special private institutions that offer adult education courses which include various vocations such as secretarial and typing courses, nursing by correspondence and so on.

3. THE ANDEAN EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE

Perhaps the most visible characteristic of the Andean educational systems is their structure which is the same for the six signatory countries; that is the traditional structure with primary, secondary and higher levels. Secondary is normally divided into two cycles and considered as the structured link of the educational system as a whole. It had long been considered the more problematic level of the system, especially its first cycle that in quantitative terms has absorbed the impact of the increase in primary education; having to satisfy this demand with a lack of prepared teachers. However, since the middle sixties the first cycle of secondary has started to receive more attention, because one of the main causes of drop out and failure was the change of curriculum and because a student coming from primary has a different teacher for every subject. (All the subjects in primary education are taught just by one teacher in Andean countries). The second cycle of secondary education in some countries

reaches twelve or more levels of instructions. In this sense, it is possible to recognize several kinds of specializations as it is shown in the following diagrams of the educational systems of Bolivia, Colombia, and Ecuador. (The educational structures of Chile, Perú and Venezuela are shown in Chapters II, III and IV respectively).



STUDIES AND

*Higher Education is structured in various levels: 1st year from 3 years to 5,

TABLE 5
BOLIVIA EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM STRUCTURE⁽¹⁸⁾

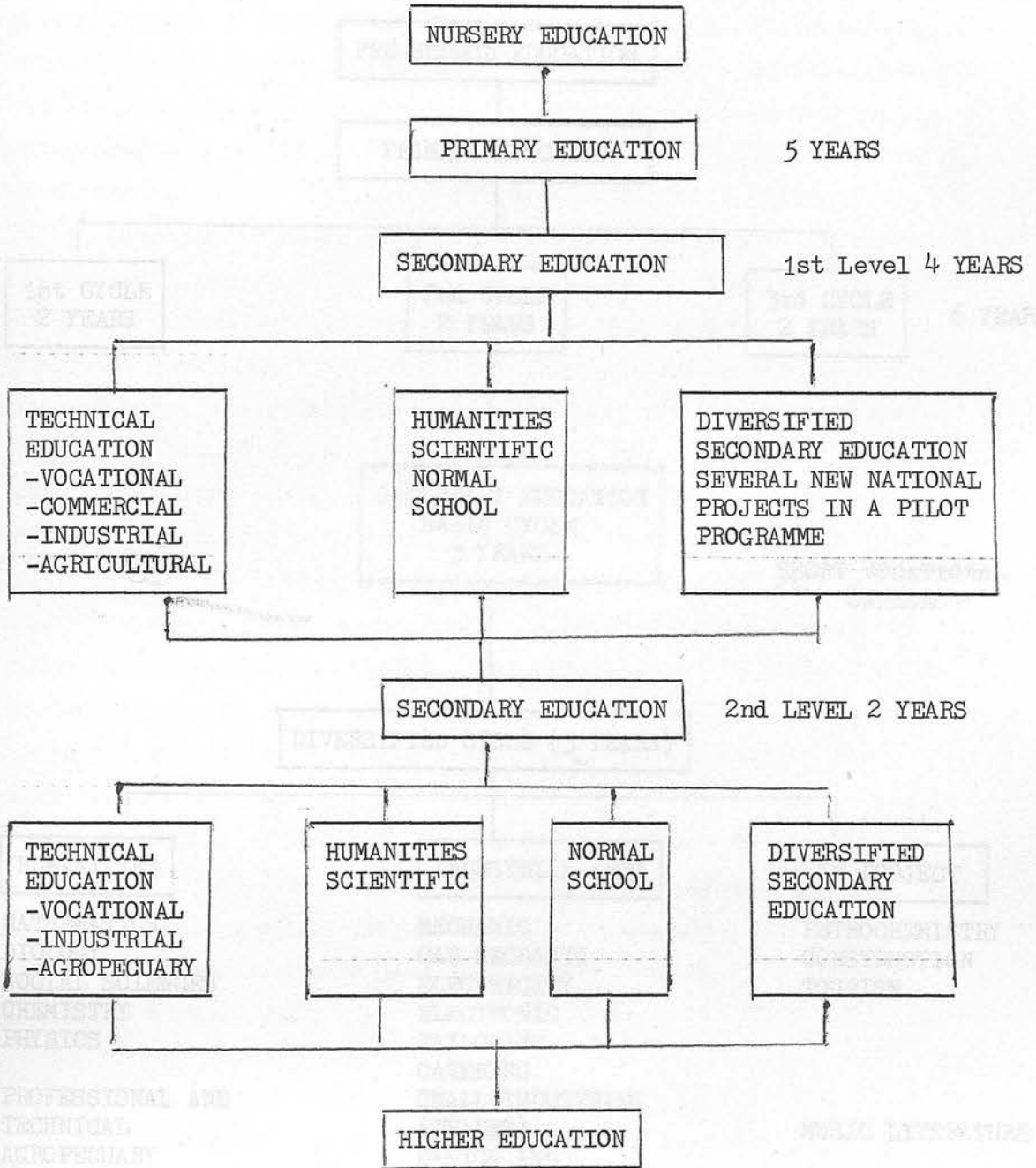
								SECONDARY EDUCATION																	
								ARTS																	
								1	2	3	4	5	6												
								MUSIC																	
								1	2	3	4	5	6												
								FEMALE TECHNICAL EDUCATION																	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4														
NURSERY			PRIMARY					ARTISTIC																	
								1	2	3	4														
								COMMERCIAL																	
								1	2	3	4														
								INDUSTRIAL																	
								1	2	3	4														
								AGRICULTURAL																	
								1	2	3	4														
								HUMANITIES																	
								1	2	3	4														
								RURAL NORMAL SCHOOL																	
								1	2	3	4														
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19							
STUDENTS AGE																									

*Higher Education is structured in careers whose lengths vary from 3 years to 5.

(18) Villareal Binicio
"America Latina; Una Problematica Educativa"
Colección Latinoamérica 80
Buenos Aires 1974, p.49.

TABLE 6

STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF COLOMBIA (19)

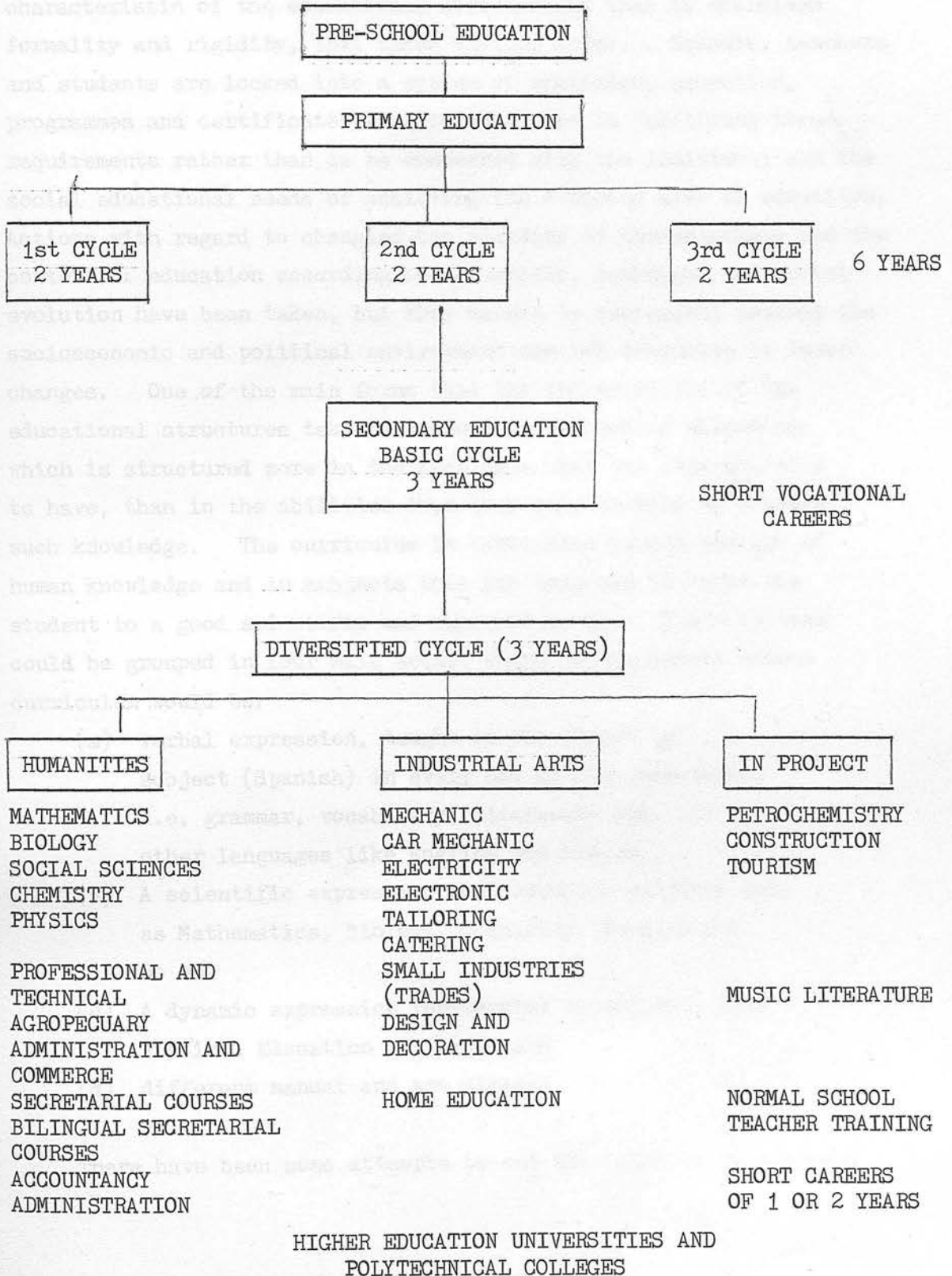


(19) Ministerio de Educación Nacional de Colombia
Sistema de Educación Nacional de Colombia
Países Signatarios del Convenio Andrés Bello
Ministerio de Educación Nacional
Bogotá-Colombia 1974.

(20) Wilson, J.
"The Development of Education in Ecuador"
University of Miami Press, Miami, FL, 1970.

TABLE 7

EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF ECUADOR(20)



(20) Wilson, J.
 "The Development of Education in Ecuador"
 University of Miami Press, Miami, USA, 1970.

But in essence the educational framework in Andean countries is the same. Education starts at four years of age (if the parents are lucky enough to find a nursery school) and ends at eighteen or nineteen years of age if the pupil cannot join the university. A characteristic of the educational structure is that it exercises formality and rigidity, that takes various forms. Schools, teachers and students are locked into a system of admission, promotion, programmes and certificates that involve them in fulfilling these requirements rather than to be concerned with the individual and the social educational needs of achieving the supposed aims of education. Actions with regard to changing the rigidity of the structure and the content of education according to scientific, technical and social evolution have been taken, but they cannot be successful because the socioeconomic and political environment are not conducive to these changes. One of the main forms that the inflexibility of the educational structures take is around the content of education which is structured more in the knowledge that the students have to have, than in the abilities that they must develop to acquire such knowledge. The curriculum is elaborated around sectors of human knowledge and in subjects that are supposed to raise the student to a good scientific and cultural level. These sectors could be grouped in four main areas, which in the Andean school curriculum would be:

- (a) verbal expression, taught in the idiomatic subject (Spanish) in every one of its components, i.e. grammar, vocabulary, literature etc. and in other languages like English and French.
- (b) A scientific expression that involves subjects such as Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics and so on.
- (c) A dynamic expression represented by subjects like Physical Education and Music and
- (d) different manual and art classes.

There have been some attempts to end the teaching by subjects

which are the reflex of the encyclopaediasm introduced through the modelling of the educational system on European patterns, and to put into practice the teaching of areas of human knowledge to be developed throughout secondary education, aiming to finish it, knowing a synthesis of human knowledge rather than specific subjects which when it comes down to the heart of the matter are not conducive to a better comprehension of the contemporary world i.e. to teach Biology linked with Chemistry and Physics or Spanish related to the different Social Sciences. But all these efforts have failed either because the educational systems do not have the necessary infra-structure to support this innovatory change or because of the lack of teachers prepared to teach areas of human knowledge, as they have been trained in just one discipline. The following example shows us a typical structure of the curriculum for secondary education in two Andean countries.

ARTS	60	60	60	60	240
8. AESTHETIC EDUCATION	60	60	60	60	240
9. PHYSICAL EDUCATION	60	60	60	60	240
10. EXTRA PROGRAMMED ACTIVITIES	270	240	210	210	930
TOTAL	1140	1140	1140	1140	4560

(21) Ministerio de Educación de Colombia
 Oficina de Planeación Curricular
 Decreto 2117
 Bogotá-Colombia 1973

TABLE 8

CURRICULUM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION (COLOMBIA)
AND NUMBER OF HOURS PER ANNUM(21)

FIRST LEVEL	GRADES				ANNUAL HOURS
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	
1. RELIGION	90	90	90	60	320
2. SPANISH	150	150	150	150	600
3. MATHEMATICS	150	120	150	210	630
4. NATURAL SCIENCES	60	60	60	120	300
5. SOCIAL SCIENCES	150	210	210	120	690
6. FOREIGN LANGUAGES	90	90	90	90	360
7. HOME AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS	60	60	60	60	240
8. AESTHETIC EDUCATION	60	60	60	60	240
9. PHYSICAL EDUCATION	60	60	60	60	240
10. EXTRA PROGRAMMED ACTIVITIES	270	240	210	210	930
TOTAL	1140	1140	1140	1140	4560

(21) Ministerio de Educacion de Colombia
Oficina de Planificación Curricular
Decreto 2117
Bogotá-Columbia 1975.

TABLE 9

SECONDARY EDUCATION (COLOMBIA)
SUBJECTS OF THE CURRICULUM(22)

SECTORS	GRADES	SUBJECTS
MATHEMATICS	1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th 6th	Arithmetic and Geometrical notions Algebra and Geometry Trigonometry and elements of analitic geometry Initiation to Mathematical analysis
SPANISH	1st -4th 5th 6th	Grammar Ortography, Composition and Reading Grammar Ortography, Composition and Literature
FOREIGN LANGUAGES	1st 4th 5th 6th	English English and French
NATURAL SCIENCES	1st 2nd 3rd 4th	Introduction to Natural Sciences Vegetal Biology Animal Biology Human Anatomy and Health
SOCIAL SCIENCES	1st 2nd 3rd 4th	Colombian Geography, American Prehistoric and Civic Principles European Geography, Ancient and Medieval History American Geography and Modern and Contemporary History Geography and History of Colombia
AESTHETIC EDUCATION	1st -6th	Chorus, Music listening, Drawing, etc.

(22) Ministerio de Educación de Colombia
Oficina de Planificación Curricular
Decreto 2117
Bogotá-Colombia 1975.

TABLE 10

SECONDARY EDUCATION (BOLIVIA)
ANNUAL STUDY PLAN FOR URBAN SECONDARY EDUCATION
 (HUMANITIES AND SCIENTIFIC)(23)

GRADES	2º		3º		4º	
	WEEKLY	ANNUAL	WEEKLY	ANNUAL	WEEKLY	ANNUAL
SPANISH	20	224	18	202	18	202
MATHEMATICS	20	224	18	202	18	202
NATURAL SCIENCES	12	135	10	112	10	112
Biology, Physics and Chemistry						
SOCIAL STUDIES	12	134	10	112	10	112
History, Geography Civic Education						
FOREIGN LANGUAGE						
ENGLISH			2	22	2	22
FRENCH					2	22
PHYSICAL EDUCATION	6	68	4	45	4	45
MUSIC	6	67	4	45	4	45
ARTS	6	67	4	45	4	45
VOCATIONAL	16	180	26	291	26	291
RELIGION	2	22	2	22	2	22
ANNUAL TOTAL		1120		1120		1120
WEEKLY		35		35		35

(23) Ministerio de Educacion de Bolivia
 Dirección General de Planificación Educativa
 Diagnóstico de la Educación Boliviana
 Tomo II
 La Paz-Bolivia 1975.

The above examples do not vary too much in comparison with other Andean curriculums. For years the educational curriculum have been characterized by the addition of new subjects rather than by the elimination of those scientifically and socially old fashioned. This is the main cause of the encyclopedic character of the educational programmes. There is no chance of introducing any modification to programmes in order to replace them with the new knowledge that require a great deal of information, and scientific material. The problem gets worse every day because often the plans are conceived at a national level, leaving only a narrow margin to local and geographical conditions. Although the focus of the curriculum is centred on the individual needs of urban students, in reality it is impossible for teachers to deal with individual needs, or give individual explanations on the mentioned programmes, due to the overcrowded courses. There is also little teacher training in dealing with individual psychological problems. The order of the studies is another serious problem, i.e. the structure according to each level in the plan of development. Such plans are in a chronological order for levels, cycles and courses leading to a primary or secondary school certificate. The rigidity, the formality and the lack of structural coordination mentioned, affect the quality of education, especially in its ability to respond to the ever changing situation and needs of the Andean societies. The formulation of aims and purposes is not an interdisciplinary task, it is generally carried out by a few people, sometimes by educators involved in administrative duties. The aims and purposes are not usually attained, due to the lack of proper preparation of teachers, or because they are extremely rigid. The content and tendencies of education are derived from the concept of educational needs, supported and maintained by an elite that has control of power, rather than from an analysis of demand and present day educational requirements as dictated by the economic and social development. The content of programmes is the most serious cause of a low standard of education; because of its generality, its lack of relevance to educational purposes, its uniformity, its rigidity

and its inadequate philosophical base. Programmes are often misinterpreted by teachers who frequently try to cover the whole of the contents thereby teaching only the subjects of major importance and not taking into account the circumstances in which the educational process is taking place. Some programmes are so detailed and rule-governed that they do not allow teachers to take any initiative.

The cultural, economic and social needs of the students are not taken into account in the preparation of the curriculum, which is rarely adapted to local and geographical regions. This rigidity is a barrier to the introduction of new elements into the teaching programmes, especially in rural areas. The subjects that generally have little relevance for the students are often the ones chosen for study in the classical framework of arts and sciences. These two areas try to gain the student's interest rather than work together in their integral development. Little is done to make use of community resources, such as the mass media or the educational potential of industries, churches, clubs and so on. The exception is Peru, which is trying to use community resources, through the Educational Communal Nuclei. Almost every official document concerned with education states the educational value of work, but it is very difficult to put the idea of productive work into practice in a curriculum structured within a general concept of education. Although the students do have the chance to do work, it is not a productive work, which would benefit the country as this idea has been introduced in other Third World countries, namely Cuba within the Latin American content. Even in technical education it becomes difficult to plan work activities in order to acquire the knowledge, as well as the experience, that leads to the use of such techniques. Furthermore, due to their poor training, vocational teachers tend to teach subjects in an abstract way; in this way the value and utility of the knowledge is not based on scientific experience but rather in handbooks in which the knowledge is offered through interpretations. Of course, this problem is also due to

the conditions of underdevelopment that make it difficult for schools to have laboratories and workshops.

It is difficult to give the technical students practical work-experience, because the educational systems are dependent on both the national and local economic organizations and are affected by the decisions of enterprises, trade unions, labour legislation etc. The old content of the programmes, the emphasis on isolated knowledge, the fragmentary study of subjects, the lack of experimental and research activities, and the weak link of the subjects taught with their technological application, are the main features of the educational systems that have failed to instil in the student the ability to make scientific and methodological observations as well as to develop their faculties of critical thinking. In summary, it may be said that the Andean educational systems are more concerned with the provision of more education than with a better one. Decisions on the kind and quality of education are taken without considering the effect that these will have on the economy in the long run. The problem of financing good universal education demands an assessment of the contribution that education makes to productivity and the economic welfare of a country.

4. ADMINISTRATION AND PLANNING IN THE ANDEAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

Education in these countries is administered by the Ministry of Education. It is organized into a central service, an intermediate service and school administration. The process is carried out in isolated departments that direct and plan different levels, types and elements of the system with little coordination between them. To the lack of ability of administrators and the legal rigidity are added a great heterogeneity of educational institutions; on the one hand, this is good because they collaborate in the educational effort, but on the other hand, this generally leads to the duplication of budgets, programmes, staffing etc.

Higher education is administered by the universities themselves and private education by the owners or the institutions that run schools and colleges. But in one way or another, Higher education and private education are under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. In almost every country the administration of primary and secondary education is under the control of the Education Ministry. Within every administrative division, there are a great number of teachers and employees are grouped in different trade unions. There is a natural tendency on the part of the educational administration to change the aims for which it was established. In this way the administration of education tends to be an aim into itself; to secure its own status and rhythm of growing without relation to education and the aims of the educational system. There is also a lack of links between the administrative organization and the academic structure. The main problem of the educational administration of the Andean countries can be summarized as follows:

- (a) Centralisation is one of the major problems which conflicts with different educational needs, which result from different geographical, economic and social realities of the various regions.
- (b) Concentration of decision making power, programming, supervision, etc., located in the capital is one of the major factors of difficulty.
- (c) The excessive bureaucracy is another factor that weighs against the changing of a conservative and traditional educational system.

The next diagram could give us an idea of the administration process and its complexity in an Andean country such as Peru, that has to face the problem of administering and providing education for three very different geographical regions. To run and assess the work of this enormous and excessively bureaucratic machinery requires a great deal of money that has to be added to the whole educational expenditure. Educational costing must necessarily be

placed within the general conditions of underdevelopment. Obstacles against the expansion of education, and for improving it in general terms, rise from the underdevelopment of Andean societies. The real cost of education in the long run is bigger than the budget allocation and is insufficient to be covered, even by families paying fees for their children's education. This sad fact is valid for every one of the Third World countries and it has been well pointed out by Coombs in his book "The World Educational Crisis".⁽²⁵⁾ Regarding this problem, as far as Andean countries' educational systems are concerned, the case of Bolivia becomes a good example if we think in terms of achieving the last year of primary education successfully.

TABLE 12

ENROLMENT, PROMOTION, DROPPING OUT AND REPETITION⁽²⁶⁾
PRIMARY EDUCATION (BOLIVIA)

	RURAL 1968-1972	1969-1973	URBAN 1968-1972	1969-1973
PROMOTION	14.15	15.57	52.50	61.71
DROPPING OUT	79.34	84.43	39.59	36.74
REPETITION	6.51	-	7.91	1.55
ENROLMENT	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

In rural areas the productivity of the system is extremely low. Of a total of school children that enrolled in the first primary degree in 1968 only 14.15% finished. This increased to 15.57% in

(25) See: Coombs, P.
"The World Educational Crisis", Chapter IV.
Oxford University Press
New York 1968.

(26) Ministerio de Educacion de Bolivia
Dirección General de Planificación Educativa
Diagnóstico de la Educación Boliviana

Vol. 1
La Paz-Bolivia.

1973. The drop out rate was 79.34% in 1972, increasing to 84.43% in 1973.

In urban areas the rate of those successfully finishing primary is a little higher, but again it shows a tremendous failure: only 52.50 out of 100 students who started in 1968 finished successfully. (This increased up to 61.71 in 1973).

The situation in secondary education tends to be even worse if we analyse the next diagram.

TABLE 13

ENROLMENT, PROMOTION, DROPPING OUT AND REPETITION
SECONDARY EDUCATION (BOLIVIA)(27)

	1969-1971	1970-1972	1971-1973
PROMOTION	70	60.31	60.73
DROP OUT RATE	25.63	35.58	34.57
REPETITION	0.37	3.11	4.70
ENROLMENT	100.00	100.00	100.00

The figures are clear enough to indicate that this small progressive increase is reaching successfully the end of secondary education does not mean an improvement that allows one to say that the Bolivian educational system is reaching the aims stated in the political constitution of that country (that is to secure education for everybody). It should be added that the educational investment of Bolivia according to the Dirección General de Planificación Educativa⁽²⁸⁾ represents 29% of the government budget. The major

(27) Ministerio de Educación de Bolivia, *ibid.*
Dirección General de Planificación Educativa
Diagnóstico de la Educación Boliviana Vol. 1
La Paz-Bolivia 1975.

(28) Ministerio de Educación de Bolivia
Dirección General de Planificación Educativa
Diagnóstico de la Educación Boliviana Vol. 3
La Paz-Bolivia 1975.

expenditure is, in fact, teachers' salaries, coupled with the exorbitant administrative costs - which explains the reason for the lack of sufficient investment in the educational infrastructure. In an attempt to improve the educational performance, the rationalization of the educational administration and the service in general, a system of educational planning was introduced in Bolivia and the other Andean countries.

Educational Planning

The need for educational planning became apparent in the middle fifties and was due to the necessity of creating better coordination and efficiency and for achieving growth content and outputs in conjunction with cultural, social and economic development. Since then, departments, commissions, institutes etc., for planning education have been established. But from their conception up to now, there have been several obstacles to overcome, in spite of the great educational advancement achieved which this planning has brought about. One of the limitations has been the fact that there is no interdisciplinary character contained therein. In most cases, at ministerial level, planning is in the hands of teachers, and there is little or indeed no consultation of sociologists, social workers, doctors etc. A great problem is related to the place of planning in the structure of the Ministry of Education and its coordination between the different departments that take part in it. The establishment of planning services as offices or departments in the administrative bureaucracy was a step in dealing with educational planning at the beginning of its introduction. However, this was not enough, because in order to have good educational planning, it must be a function of the administrative service as a whole in which everyone participates in the decision making process, from the Ministry of Education, to headmasters, teachers and parents (who should also take part). In Andean countries, educational planning was created for meeting the needs of expansion, but after that it simply became a task of the department in charge, often in

juxtaposition with other departments of educational administration, indeed, in most cases, it does not fulfil its duty of coordinating the educational process. In this way the technical function of planning has become isolated from the decision making process. In other administrative bodies planning is only concerned with school education at all levels; there are few programmes that have an integral character and include non-formal activities. However, the Education Ministry is not the only educational institution, and there are other agencies that also have educational planning departments with the result that sometimes duplication of plans, programmes and so on arise. Another serious problem is the poor statistical information offered by departments and offices in charge; they seldom have recent and accurate knowledge of important educational aspects. Furthermore, educational research activities cannot get data from these information centres. The Andean countries have become aware of their planning difficulties and they have made efforts to overcome them. One of the ways to improve their planning was to introduce programmes at university level, or at teacher re-training courses, to form educational planners. However, the good intentions for improving educational planning of the people involved in these courses and generally of the people involved in planning, clash with the economic underdevelopment of the countries, with the lack of infrastructure and with the political structure which is a hindrance to the hopes of the planners.

5. HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education takes different forms in Andean countries. Generally, what is considered to be higher education is that which is provided in universities, teacher training centres, military academies and other types of institutions, however university education has the highest attendance. University in Andean countries face the danger of an explosion as a result of demographic growth, and the increase in the outputs of secondary education. Most universities have very high capital and operational costs and

their outputs are extremely low. It would be desirable for Andean higher education to have an integrated system covering such aspects as:

- (a) a study of a system and degree equivalence,
- (b) the study of plans and programmes and the content of higher education taught with regards to the aims of Andean integration.

But, at the moment it is very difficult to coordinate a national level of higher education, throughout the Andean countries, between whom there exists only minimal links and which, moreover, have made no efforts at planning at a national level. Therefore, it would be even harder to coordinate them at Andean level. Because of the "freedom of teaching" ideology, there are a considerable number of private universities, most of which are associated with institutions or with the Catholic Church. Almost every private university receives a State grant. Private universities in most cases offer the same courses as those offered by State universities, with a resulting duplication of efforts and thus wastage of resources. Social stratification of higher education is closely linked with the middle and upper classes. These social stratas develop a high level of educational expectations for their children and they tend to channel them towards the university. These educational expectations are linked with employment opportunities. There is a high preference for traditional careers such as law and administration, for example. There has also been an increasing tendency in recent times to join engineering and the different professions of the natural sciences. The structure of the university itself is biased against those of the lower strata due to the lack of a scholarship system. A low percentage of students belonging to the working class strata have the chance of getting to university; however they tend to drop out quickly or they take a long time to finish their studies due to financial difficulties.

There are two methods for selecting students for university:

the intelligence test, and secondary school assessments. Because of this, secondary education is mostly structured to prepare students for entrance to the university. At the same time universities are forced to re-teach students the first two years of their studies in order to enable them to absorb the system of higher education teaching. On the other hand there are thousands of students who fail to gain a place in an establishment of higher education, and there are no programmes of training courses for these school leavers. In practice, in most of the Andean universities there is a great failure rate among those attempting to gain entry, coupled with a high drop out rate among those lucky enough to win a place during their first year, as a result of the poor quality of teaching in secondary school. There is a conflict between the official autonomy of the Andean universities; that is to say an autonomy established by law and government statements (which are the product of years of intellectual efforts to achieve this); and the real autonomy which in practice does not exist, because there is often government intervention in the universities. For example, up to the present moment, the military governments of Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador and Peru have intervened in their respective universities in one way or another. In Chile the government has appointed military rectors, professors, departmental heads and so on.

The selection and work of academic staff is accompanied by several problems, for example, in the hiring of teachers, different kinds of contracts are given which vary in the number of lecturing hours, the status of employment (i.e. whether it is full time or not) and the type of work specified e.g. advising seminars or supervising practical classes. This leads to an impenetrable bureaucratic jungle. Part-time employment lowers the quality of the teaching provided, (there is the well known nickname of "professor-taxi" for those people working in universities for a few hours and holding other employment in addition). There is also a great emigration of lecturers and professors to developed countries because of the opportunities to research with enough resources

and to do work that allows them to fulfil personal aspirations. Andean State universities are administered by professors, lecturers and students; the other private universities are governed and administered by institutions. Regarding the length of studies, there are some careers, such as medicine and engineering that require seven or eight years to obtain the degree. There are no intermediate degrees (with the exception of some engineering programmes) that allow students who are not completing their studies to have a recognition for the work they have done, despite the failure to achieve a first class formal degree. The teaching system seems to be based on the idea that the student must study the essential matters and after finishing university will stop doing it. Because of this way of thinking, what he requires is a body of memorizable knowledge that can be used throughout his professional career.

The great problem of higher education in the Andean countries is to transform the provision of education, the research and the extramural activities that they do, in order to meet the social and economic needs of those societies. The teaching aspects have for decades been the more important, but little has been modified in recent reforms. The traditional and professional schemes have not changed at all. Andean universities were conceived according to teaching models that excluded research and extramural activities. Reforms have tried to change this concept but the problem of applying higher education to social problems in one way or another, means a confrontation with the social strata which are against social changes and who control the superstructure of society, through the Army, in four of the six ABA member countries. Andean universities would be able to bring about the development through national planning that would allow them to determine their function, and the output required by society. The organization of project and research, first of all at national level and then at ABA level, would allow them to avoid the duplication of human and financial resources. The creation of new careers and the elimination of non productive

and unrealistic ones is required. A complete revision of studies is needed, especially concerned with the curriculum, syllabus proposals, duration of studies etc. Recent reforms have been more administrative than related to the above mentioned aspects. There is also a great lack of financial resources, which is a chronic problem. Students and their unions have been striving for changes in the general framework of the university. The students take part in governing the university in most of the ABA countries. Because the strike is often used as a political weapon and students' activities are linked to those of social pressure such as trade unions, and political parties, the government has intervened in the universities, closing them for terms or even whole years; and frequently students' leaders are sent to prison or into exile. Andean universities have been for years the opinion centre of intellectuals; closely linked with the cultural world of Europe and the United States, rather than with Andean societies. But since the sixties, due to students and social pressure, they have started to change, though naturally they have to face all the problems entailed in modernizing an old institution.

6. THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND THEIR SOCIOECONOMIC SITUATION

Every criticism on education in one way or another touches on the problem of teachers; their involvement in society and in the educational process. Teacher training is placed among Andean educational systems in the secondary level of its structure, although there are some countries like Colombia, Chile and Venezuela, whose teacher-training is placed in the Faculty of Education of their universities. Other Andean countries started to do the same at the beginning of the seventies, but still the Escuela Normal (which is in some countries a kind of diversified secondary education) is in charge of the formation of primary teachers. The years of education and teacher-training range in Andean countries from eleven to fifteen years as may be seen from the following table.

"La Formación de los Profesores en América Latina"
Provincia Cultural S.A.
Editorial Unesco 1973

TABLE 14

YEARS OF TRAINING OF ANDEAN PRIMARY TEACHERS (29)

COUNTRY	PRIMARY	SECONDARY	PROFESSIONAL	TOTAL
BOLIVIA	8	4	3	15
COLOMBIA	5	4	2	11
CHILE	8	4	3	15
ECUADOR	6	4	2	12
PERU	6	5	4	15
VENEZUELA	6	3	2	11

Secondary teachers used to have a training of four years university studies, but there is a flexible curriculum in most of the universities within the Andean region, some of them take more years in their preparation. The teacher training curriculum has been for years focussed around History of Education, Psychology, School Administration, Methodology, Child Psychology, Educational Philosophy, Teaching Practice, and the sector of human knowledge that the student wishes to make his specialization. This teacher training curriculum has long been criticized by student-teachers, teachers' unions and by the public in general and it has become generally accepted that in the ABA member countries teacher training is far behind the evolution of ideas, trends and educational requirements. The teacher training programme and its studies, plans, textbooks and other didactic instruments used in the normal school or education faculties are often constituted for isolated disciplines with a traditional character. There are doubts about the validity and the importance of such disciplines in their contribution to a better understanding of the educational problem and the factors that form it. It seems to be obvious that if a new way of facing the necessity of educating

(29) Oliveros Alonso A.
 "La Formación de los Profesores en America Latina", p.81
 Promoción Cultural S.A.
 Editorial Unesco 1975.

the rising generations, under the concept of lifelong education for example, or with new ideas, it should be necessary to change radically the teacher training courses and to bring them up to date in accordance with the demands being made by Andean society.

The socioeconomic situation of teachers affects very much the role they are supposed to play in any society and this is the reason why teachers have become aware of their importance as a pressure group, and they are involved in continual strikes and industrial actions. Of course, strikes do not bring prestige to the profession, but it is the only means that they have to make themselves heard. For instance, in Colombia

"due to the late payment of their salaries, teachers are often in the position of living in continuous debt, that is receiving their salaries and paying immediately the debts they had previously incurred. There are still teachers in rural areas who receive their payment in foodstuffs and clothes."(30)

This continuous, appalling system has been the incentive for teachers to organize themselves and to present through their unions alternative means to governments for solving their problems. Sometimes they have been successful, but almost every strike or a teacher union declaration on a particular matter is dismissed as Marxist activity. The improvement of the teachers' socio-economic condition is an almost insoluble problem and will remain unsolved until these countries achieve development. Teachers receive a large amount of money budgeted for salaries, as they are the largest number of professional employees within the public administration sector. Despite the teachers' salaries belonging to the budget allocated to education, it is always difficult for these poor countries to cover the amount allocated to it.

(30) Galvez, L., Echegaray R., Costa, P.
"Lo que Piensa la Sociedad Colombiana del Profesor de Educación Primaria", p.88
Universidad del Valle
Cali, Colombia.

The above analysed educational problems have not been commented and sought by ABA as the main features of an education that has become itself a component of the underdeveloped socio-economic situation of these nations. If any integrationist attempt is to be made, this must be done in those spheres where there are common educational problems affecting all the countries or a major number of them. For instance common efforts ought to be made to fight illiteracy; to educate the Indians; to improve rural and technical education or simply to extend the educational service to the majorities. In this way and compared with the real Andean educational problems, the policies stated by ABA as steps leading towards educational integration become meaningless. Although the ABA agreed in the Lima and Caracas Meetings to correct the educational failures through educational reforms, these agreements are "gone with the wind" and never were put into practice as the majority of the governments that strongly supported the ABA do not govern any more and have been replaced by others that supporting the ABA ideals, use the treaty as a political platform.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND CONSIDERATIONS

In the preceding chapters I have outlined the organization, aims and objectives of ABA as well as the development of education in Chile, Peru and Venezuela from early colonial times to the present. An analysis was presented of the various branches of the educational structure in these countries; the ministries of education, primary, secondary, higher education and other educational activities in order to examine the feasibility of integration of the educational systems of the Andean nations. From the previous chapters several considerations could be drawn, that can be summarized as follows.

1. CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING ECONOMIC INTEGRATION

The idea of economic integration acquired urgency once again with the signing of the Montevideo Treaty that was preceded by several failed attempts during the past. The Montevideo Treaty created LAFTA which was supported by the United Nations through its Economic Commission for Latin America and the various governments. The Latin American integrationist process since its beginning has lived in continuous crisis derived from the conception itself of economic integration to problems related with countries with less economic development. The major criticisms concern the inequality of industrial and economic development among the countries. The crisis deepens when within the process of integration different ideologies meet to consider either a programme of industrialization, or a reduction of tariffs or external investment, which play a fundamental role in national interest. The actual world economic contraction has rebounded deeply in the Andean countries due to the diminishing of overseas investment in the industrial field, the contraction of the market and the loss of purchasing power of the masses as a consequence of high unemployment.

To solve the difficulties of LAFTA and to convert its deficiency into benefits, the Andean countries signed the Andean Pact in 1969. But from that date up to now, the treaty has been unable to solve the problems faced by LAFTA previously. Between 1969 and 1970, the less developed countries (Bolivia and Ecuador) improved their exportation levels. However, the retirement of Chile in 1976 due to the different views towards the case of external investor capitals, the failed attempts to put into practice the industrial development programmes and the continuous political crisis allows one to conclude that the Andean Pact has always been in difficulties and it has been unable to correct the deficiencies attributed to LAFTA, just as it has been unable to rectify these failures by creating:

- (a) the necessary infrastructure that would improve the communication problems
- (b) a policy leading to making the entrepreneurs aware that integration means competition and therefore some industries would be absorbed by foreign industries who have better production methods which means that an excessive national protectionism of the industry is prejudicial to the aims of economic integration
- (c) by not creating a monetary and fiscal policy that would secure internal stability and also the equilibrium of the Balance of Payments.

In general the Andean failures are confined within the socio-economic underdevelopment of these countries which have tried to execute economic integration with an incipient national industry and with an economy based fundamentally (despite the efforts towards industrialization) on the exports of raw materials.

Since its beginnings the economic integration was stated as a way in which the Latin American countries would be able to participate in the economy and in the international trade community, augmenting

their capacity of negotiation within the world political and economic structure. In this form they would be able to meet and overcome their ideological political and economic differences and thus express just one will. This initial criteria on which economic integration was based has increasingly been criticized by the different sectors of public opinion. Especially political parties which are in favour of social and institutional changes, different nationalistic movements, governments that define themselves as orientated to Third World solidarity, sectors of the Roman Catholic Church etc., that define the actual process of economic integration as an alliance between the Latin American bourgeoisie and the multinational enterprises in order to expand their markets. These sectors define the process of integration as an all-enfolding process that would involve the socioeconomic, political and cultural spheres in order to liberate Latin America from the burden of economic dependency, and thereby to a state in which these countries would be in full control of their destinies. The discussion about the subject is continuous, the pressure exerted on the bodies in charge of its execution is constant, the discouragement created by the continuing failures etc., have made of integration a topic of daily argument in South America whether for or against.

The signing of the Andean Pact supported by the Christian Democrats governments of Chile and Venezuela, the Revolutionary governments of the Bolivian, Ecuatorian and Peruvian Armed Forces and the Liberal government of Colombia sought in its beginnings to proportionate a nationalistic sense to economic integration within a South American and Third World atmosphere, and even the ABA was signed to reinforce it. But the Andean Pact has been unable to correct the failures that in those days the good will of the governments identified as harmful towards a truly economic integration. The agreements are still alive but the governments that proposed them have been removed from office by coups d'etat or by presidential elections, specifically in the case of Colombia and Venezuela.

The crisis of the Pact became evident with the retirement of Chile which has spread a cloud of doubt over the whole continent as to the potential success or failure of the Pact as a whole. This problem shows even more than economic integration depends very much on political drive and that the removal of the original integrationist ideas sought by the Pact in its beginnings, and held by the governments of those countries, allows one to conclude that the economic integration process is not an on-going situation. The prospects of integration within the actual scheme seems to be non-existent or at best to continue suffering periodical crises, at least until the integration process changes its orientation and seeks in blocks of countries (as in the case of the Andean ones) to charge a just price for their raw materials, as the process of industrialization appears to be little and slow. Even then, these nations have to finalize policies leading to the termination of bilateral agreements with industrialized countries which always favour the latter. Finally, it is necessary to add that a change of social and political institutions is urgently required in order to give participation to those who should be the beneficiaries of any integrationist process be it political, economical or social, i.e. to the people. Up to the present the integrationistic process has been executed without taking into consideration the will of the Andean citizens and they have been agreements made by governments rather than by the wishes expressed through elections or otherwise.

2. CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING THE ANDRES BELLO AGREEMENT

The signing of ABA was another effort to achieve the desired integration, as was mentioned, as a basis of the good will and national sense of the governments administering the Andean countries in 1969. In general the agreement was too ambitious, because it was so constituted, that it was impossible to mark areas that cover the broad field of culture, science and education. The manifesto, statements, resolutions and so on, are mostly very difficult generalities to specify and they tend to talk more about good will

as a means to facing the common problems than policies to overcome them. Most of the resolutions stated have not been wholly put into practice due to the constitutional structure (political constitution, civil code, laws etc.) of the countries being extremely rigid and unwilling to implement agreements such as the liberation of custom duties for cultural items (pictures, books and so on) from member countries, or to allow reciprocal recognition of university studies and the circulation of Andean citizens without passports within the region.

The harmonization and integration of educational systems of the member nations appears to be one of the fundamental purposes of the agreement and in it, it is agreed:

- (a) The reciprocal recognition of primary and secondary studies, but not those done in higher education, this is expressed as recommendation. (Because the countries are well aware of the professional brain drain and professional flight that could be brought about within the countries themselves).
- (b) To organize the means of recognizing studies done in non-formal education.
- (c) To establish a common statistical process.
- (d) To plan education with the economic needs of the region, especially those belonging to economic integration.

As has been pointed out in Chapter I, the statements made have had little success and most of them have not been implemented in real terms. However, it could be said that there has been a process of integration, despite that the reciprocal recognition of studies does not help an Andean population in continuous migration, and also despite that the certification of non-formal activities is a problem within the countries themselves. The collection of statistical data is the greatest achievement of ABA. The planning of the educational needs in agreement with the economy is a task which is in fact removed from the actual process of economic integration and would require a total revision of the Andean economy; a possibility that

is currently postponed to the long term only, if the integration process despite its present condition is able to become an alternative to overcome underdevelopment.

The ABA does not define integration, but it sees economic and cultural integration as a way to develop the Andean region. In spite of the non-existence of an educational integration theory that supports the attempts made by Andean countries; it seems to be that the intention of these nations rather than to seek for integration in the literal meaning of the concept, is more concerned with an exchange of plans, ideas, programmes, etc., in order to surpass the educational problems which are common in all of them. On the other hand it could well be assumed that culturally and institutionally these countries are already integrated as they have been built as nations following the same pattern. Culturally, the Andean countries have for many years been linked. They speak the same language, and share the same Christian beliefs (most of them associated with the Roman Catholic Church). The legal and administrative systems are particularly similar, the architectural patterns are similar (with regional exceptions of course), they dress in the same ways and they eat the same Spanish influenced foods. They support political parties of similar ideologies and it seems that they have the same virtues and defects. The reasons are clear; in every one of these peoples the dominant culture is the Western one (especially in urban areas and along the coastal line of Chile, Perú, Ecuador and Venezuela) which was inherited and imported rapidly by the Spanish conquerors for more than four centuries. Up to independence, other influences were few and among the pre-hispanic Andean cultures there were few differences with the exception of the Inca civilization which rose to occupy a great place in the history of mankind. Its influence still lives in the rural areas and in the Peruvian, Bolivian and Ecuadorian mountains. From independence onwards the black African slaves contributed a great deal in the setting up of the population, the exception being Chile, where for economic reasons the Africans were not brought. In the

19th century the European migration started, especially from the Mediterranean countries, and its influence is noticeable specifically in the institutional organization and in the industrial field. As far as education is concerned France has been a major influence, principally in the development of the educational systems. An example of this is the lyceum, an institution on which secondary education is based, another example is the humanistic and erudite content of education which is a typical feature of French 19th century ideology. In modern times the influence of the United States has been considerable especially in the introduction of new cultural patterns through the mass media and the various programmes of international aid such as those of technical and educational character.

In short, it could be said that the cultural phenomenon over all in the Andean region is similar and, moreover, is absolutely closed thanks to the Spanish heritage (especially in the social organization, language and in the Christian belief), and also thanks to the Inca Empire that dominated and influenced life in every one of its aspects, in almost the whole territory known today as the Andean region. It is quite clear that the contemporary Andean culture is the inevitable result of historical tradition, of social mixture, of European migration and of the interaction with the Western world, but above all of the Spanish and Inca heritage.

3. CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING EDUCATION IN CHILE, PERU AND VENEZUELA

Education was structured during the colonial period under the same patterns and by the same religious orders as in Spain and was established to educate the elite which would rule the colony in the name of the Spanish crown. It was scholastic and focussed on thinkers like Ignacio de Loyola and Santo Domingo and characterized by being dogmatic. Afterwards came the ideology of the Enlightenment which was opposed to scholasticism and led the French Revolution and

the United States' struggle for independence. This inspired the Spanish South American colonies to fight for their liberation from the crown. The ideas of liberation, solidarity, equality and fraternity expressed through the Enlightenment produced an increase in education. The Lancastrian system was imported and introduced to solve the problems of lack of teachers, but education was still being provided by the creole elite who took control of the newly born nations.

The first century of republican life was characterized by a continued ideological dispute between the concept of "State Education" supported by the Liberals and the "Freedom of Teaching" idea backed by the Church and the Conservatives. Both concepts were implemented according to who was in the presidential office. The European influence was always present and the ideas of Comte, Spencer and the German pedagogic concept, especially those held by Herbart were introduced gradually. At the beginning of the present century, the American influence started to take place, when the ideas of Dewey, acquired world-wide application. It could be assumed that the ideological model of Andean education is a conglomeration of European and United States influences, perhaps the former mainly in philosophical concepts and the latter in educational planning and linked to international aid. It is necessary also to add the great role played by the Roman Catholic Church in influencing education in several spheres, ranking from the actual provision of education up to ideological development. The present century has been characterized by being a battle to achieve universal education, but this aim has not been fulfilled, despite government's official statements, guaranteeing education for every one. To remedy this situation, Chile, Perú and Venezuela have introduced reforms in their educational systems. The changes have contributed a lot to the expansion and modernization of education. The educational reforms have been put into the practice without considering teachers' opinions and they have been planned by teams of experts at ministerial level. Consequently they have produced problems expressed in strikes

and industrial actions, as the reforms have tried to introduce topics which are against the teachers' unions interest. The major criticism is the procedure of implementing them without allowing participation. In this way during 1965, 1966 and 1967, the Chilean educational environment was filled with many strikes and disturbances. It was the same in 1970 in Venezuela and from 1972 onwards in Peru. Generally the criticism of teachers are silenced by repression and during recent times criticism regarding educational philosophy or educational ideology are made at clandestine level or in closed circles of friends (with the exception of Venezuela in the samples chosen and Colombia in the other Andean countries). In this way Paulo Freire, Ivan Illich, Karl Marx's thoughts are held back from being discussed or implemented at the present time.

The 1965 Chilean educational reform, meant a great improvement in the quality and quantity of education and the country was for the first time on the verge of providing education for all children of school age, at least for those who started school life. The Centro de Experimentaciones Pedagogicas (Pedagogic Research and Retraining Institute) was created. The same occurred in 1972 after the Peruvian reform with the founding of Inide (Research and Educational Development Institute). Both institutes aim to retrain teachers and to research in the educational field. But above all, and despite this improvement, the reforms have been focussed in the administrative field rather than in the curricular structure, which is still unchanged. The levels remain the same, though years of study have been added, e.g. Chilean primary education was extended two years, and now it takes eight years to complete, but secondary education was reduced by two. The curricula and programmes of primary seven and eight are almost the same as they were as secondary one and two respectively. The reforms led also to the diversification of education, especially secondary, but students under pressure of their families continue enrolling in the humanities and scientific courses.

These educational reforms are of course well linked to the ideologies of the government that tried to implement them. In this way the Chilean educational reform put into practice by the Christian Democrat government of 1965 was the basis of the educational reform executed in 1969 by COPEI government (Christian Democrat) of Rafael Caldera in Venezuela. At the same time the Peruvian government, led by an ideology that was declared to be non-capitalist and non-communist but close to the Christian and Western civilization, implemented in 1972 an educational reform which has similarities with those of Chile and Venezuela.

Despite the modernization provoked by these reforms, they have been unable to avoid the bureaucracy and centralism of education, especially in the decision making process. They have still been unable to solve the main educational failures mentioned throughout this essay. Nevertheless the Educational Communal Nuclei introduced during the fifties by the Peruvian-North American Cooperative Educational Service in the Siena region of Peru and Bolivia has been reactivated with the current reform and is used as an alternative to solve the educational failures, using the community as a means. The idea is to improve the deficiencies through the educational potential of every community surrounding a determined school. In this way the local church, the cinema, the sports club, the library, etc. become centres of collaboration with the educational process, tearing away the idea that the school is the only educational agency. In theory the Educational Communal Nuclei seeks to stop the school from being isolated from the national reality, bringing back to the community educational responsibility. At the same time it is thought that the school would proportionate at least some facilities to accentuate non-formal programmes to improve educational standards in the Peruvian population. This school-community interaction, according to the reform theory, would proportionate the necessary means leading to universal education for everybody. This approach seems to be reasonable in countries which have a serious lack of resources and whose schools are still

in worlds of their own. However the idea has not worked for political reasons rather than technical ones. It is considered by the teachers' union (SUTEP) as the means used by the government to introduce its ideology, and on the other hand the help from the community has not been satisfactory and parents are reluctant to participate. In conclusion the idea of the Educational Communal Nuclei requires political support. It is a very good approach elaborated by the technocracy working in the planning office of the Education Ministry, but again isolated from the teachers and community involvement.

Education in Chile, Perú and Venezuela has been a reflection of those societies through their history and has been structured to serve the upper and middle social stratas in both provision (mainly in urban areas) and in curriculum, as it prepares children to live in cities and not in the rural areas which are inhabited by more than 40% of the population.

In short after more than a century and a half of republican life, the Andean countries have been unable to provide a suitable education for their peoples and furthermore, they have not fulfilled the statement declared in their constitutions (the right to educate and be educated). They have also failed in providing an education that matches with the requirements of society since its output does not relate to the job markets; failed in proportioning a rural education that is linked with an agrarian reform; avoiding migration as well as failing in giving an adequate education to those living in the shanty towns surrounding the cities. Finally they have been unable to establish an education able to contribute towards the attainment of the so strongly desired socioeconomic development.

4. CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING EDUCATION AND INTEGRATION

After the failures and deficiencies of Andean education have been concluded and pointed out, it is necessary to examine whether

these nations have a chance to integrate their educational systems and if the policies put into practice up to the present are steps towards this. First of all and as has been mentioned throughout this essay, the Andres Bello Agreement is the result of nationalistic government that believed it fundamental to the development of these countries to integrate education, culture and science and also in the economic sphere. They stated the cultural and scientific dependency as being one of the origins of their overall underdevelopment. However, they did not specify from whom the cultural and scientific dependency needed to be rescued and how, and for what. Furthermore, it was declared that all the educational reforms should be framed within the principles of lifelong education and put into practice at the same time as other social changes. It was assumed also, that popular participation was fundamental to achieve integration. Of course, the institutions to run the agreement were created and the dates of annual meetings of ministers and government officials were fixed. The Agreement's scope widened and began coping with other fields, and since its signing up to the present, ministers and officials have continued with their meetings, and its clerical services continue producing publications, booklets, information and so on. But it appears necessary to examine if the institution as it has worked fulfills the initial aims of the Agreement. The changes of government produced in the region have distorted the nationalistic sense that the Agreement once had and it is not possible to accept that governments which have themselves declared external investment as favourable to the improvement of national economies could be in favour of settling policies to avoid cultural, educational and scientific dependency. The impression is that the Andres Bello Agreement has become an institution which is used by the governments politically rather than effectively. In the same way the possibilities of integrating education in the actual conditions seems to be nil at best very low. The educational reforms agreed upon within other social changes have not yet arrived and there is no need to be a Latin American economic specialist or a Latin American scholar to

conclude that the conditions of economic dependency, the unsolved agricultural problems, the socialization of the health service and the necessary changes to improve the life of the Andean people have not yet taken place. Furthermore the situation has worsened and the unemployment, the rural migration and in general the conditions of deprivation and misery are deeper than before. Educational provision and equal opportunity for education are still a dream, or have grown worse. Of course among these problems, lifelong education stated as a way in which the Andean countries should provide their educational service, has not taken place and it is just an idea written down in manifestos and declarations. Besides this the economic integration process has been unsuccessful for several reasons which include nationalistic approaches to different matters, difficulties in industrial programming, monetary policies, communication problems and so on. In short the Andean countries have failed to detain and improve their chronic underdevelopment through economic integration.

The educational efforts to achieve integration have not been entirely fulfilled and most of them have been half implemented or if implemented at all, their significance is so little that they become irrelevant within the whole spectrum of the deficiency of Andean education. In my view the equivalence tables to convalidate studies, the recognition of skills and abilities acquired in non-formal courses, the compilation of a statistical system, the revision of the history curriculum and every one of the special educational assignments in the charge of each country are steps towards integration but they are not deep and wide enough to arrive at a more important and genuine level of integration. It seems that due to the historical situation of these nations, it appears senseless to attempt the integration of educational systems which have so many problems nor does seeking integration in educational fields contribute to solving the problem of education, i.e. the equivalence tables, the revision of curriculum of history, etc. In my view, a good will commitment is necessary to understand the very nature

of the Agreement and it is necessary to approach the idea, having in mind that despite the absence of an educational integrationist theory, the ABA (or other similar treaties signed by developing countries) could arise as an alternative to be used as mutual help to solve educational problems and, if education has a role to play in changing attitudes leading to the introduction of the necessary institutional and socioeconomic changes, this will be achieved through the exchange of ideas, approaches, experiences, etc. through educational integration.

APPENDIX 1
PHYSICAL MAP OF THE
ANDEAN REGION



ARGENTINE
Source: Reader's Digest
Great World Atlas
First Edition
Printed by John Bartholomew
& Son 1962.

APPENDIX 3

ANDRES BELLO

Andrés Bello was born in Caracas (Venezuela) on November 29th 1781 into a middle class family. From his early childhood he was a good reader, especially of the Spanish classical writers. (Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Calderon and others). A religious education allowed him to read Horace and Virgil in Latin.

In 1797 he joined the "Real y Pontificia Universidad de Caracas" (University of Caracas) receiving a Bachelor of Arts degree in 1800. Through his ability and knowledge he soon became the educational tutor of most of his friends, among them Simon Bolivar, who later would be the Liberator of South America.

By 1802 he started working in the government civil service, but at the same time he managed to write poems and articles, and founded the first Venezuelan newspaper the "Gazeta de Caracas" in 1808.

Between 1808-1810 the monarchic and political crisis of the Spanish crown plus the Napoleonic invasion of that country were a motivation to start a movement for liberation, in which Bello became involved. A provisional government was established in Venezuela and Bello was sent to London as a diplomat, where he remained until 1829.

Despite his diplomatic status, life in London was not easy for Bello, who was frequently unemployed. Nevertheless he managed to continue his passion for literature by writing essays and founding newspapers and magazines in collaboration with others.

Access to the British Museum allowed him to be in close contact with the best books and writing of his time. But the precarious life that he was leading and his desire to collaborate with the new

emerging independent nations of South America pushed him to accept an invitation from Chile to organize the introduction of the Lancastrian system of education.

In Chile he was involved in every aspect of the nation's life, becoming the editor of the official government newspaper, the "Araucano" (1830-1850); and was elected senator (1837-1864), and chief administrative officer of the Foreign Affairs Ministry (1829-1852). But perhaps his major achievement was the founding of the University of Chile (1842-1865), of which he was the first rector. At the same time he helped in writing the Chilean Constitution of 1833 and also advising the various Presidents of the Republic.

Apart from his political commitment, his influence in the cultural and educational life of Chile was so great that even today he is considered one of the most prestigious and prominent men ever to collaborate in the building of the country.

His writings, especially his Spanish Grammar, is still considered the greatest ever produced. His Civil Code, which put into practice in Chile, was adopted by other South American countries and, his political and legal essays as well as his philosophical views have all been acclaimed as classical works among the Latin American scholars.

Andrés Bello died in Santiago de Chile on October 15th, 1865. He is considered the greatest humanist of the South American Republics and the cultural, educational and scientific integrationalist treaty signed by the Andean countries was named after him because of his great commitment and hard work towards the development of these countries.

APPENDIX 4

RESOLUTIONS AGREED IN THE EDUCATION MINISTERS'
ANNUAL MEETINGS 1970-1976

26th-31st January 1970

Resolution No. 1 - Work Plan for 1970.

Resolution No. 2 - Declaration regarding the national sovereignty of the Andean countries and their concerns about the international educational programmes via Satellite.

Resolution No. 3 - To support the Colombian government in the creation of the Regional Centre of Book (Publishing and Reading), Distribution in Latin America.

Resolution No. 4 - To advise Unesco and PNUD to support the literacy campaign initiated by Bolivia.

Resolution No. 5 - To recommend the Organization of American State to create in Quito (Ecuador) a Pan American Centre for Studies and Geographical Research.

Resolution No. 6 - To support the creation of a Managerial School leading to the training of managers along criteria aimed at achieving Andean economic integration.

Resolution No. 7 - To promote T.V. programmes in order to contribute to community education.

Resolution No. 8 - To advise Unesco to establish in Chile a Planning and Administrative Centre to the formation of experts in Planning and Educational Administration.

Resolution No. 9 - To thank Unesco for the allocation of financial resources to study the Regional Integration of Latin America and its commitment to culture, science and education.

Resolution No. 10 - To put into legal action to protect youth against the mass media.

Second Meeting of Education Ministers held at Lima (Perú)

4th-6th February 1971.

Resolution No. 1 - Declaration of Lima, regarding the doctrinaire basis of the Agreement.

Resolution No. 2 - To establish a programme to initiate technical assistance within the Andean Region.

Resolution No. 3 - To approve the documents regarding educational T.V. To constitute a Regional Committee to coordinate the studies regarding the matter.

Resolution No. 4 - To recommend the establishment of a System of Certification regarding studies done in non-formal education. To recommend the opening of Lifelong Education Offices in every ministry of Education in the signatory countries. To hold a Seminar on Lifelong education in Lima.

Resolution No. 5 - To designate the Coordinator Committee to create the Andean Managerial School to be centred in Lima.

Resolution No. 6 - To designate Peru as the Regional Centre of the Compilation of Statistics at the same time as producing a scheme for gathering educational statistics.

Resolution No. 7 - To designate the Technical Commission on School Building Construction with its centre at Quito (Ecuador). The proposition of creating ICEPA (School Building Construction of the Andean Region).

Resolution No. 8 - To recommend a survey of School Building Construction, to establish inventories, to allocate resources and to programme the educational building construction.

Resolution No. 9 - To advise on school building construction, to devise a methodology regarding the space needed and the full use of that already existing. To research and experiment in a coordinated action.

Resolution No. 10 - This contains administrative recommendations on School Building Construction in a centralized body at national level, as well as negotiations for international finance.

Resolution No. 11 - Contains recommendations on School Building Construction regarding the multinational and multidisciplinary works to be done in the matter.

Resolution No. 12 - Common School Textbooks in Mathematics and Natural Sciences in Primary Education. To set up a working party in order to establish common criteria.

Resolution No. 13 - Contains recommendations for allocating allowances in every country to finance the Agreement activities.

Resolution No. 14 - Work Plan 1971, assigned the following tasks:

Bolivia - to study and develop a Rural Educational Programme to be distributed as a pattern for use in developing rural communities in the region.

Colombia - to study the possibilities of a scholarship exchange among the countries. To study the educational structure of the region.

Chile - to study the specific aims of education in the signatory countries. To create a Fund to Develop the Publication of Books. To create the Andean Institute of Labour Improvement.

Ecuador - to study and elaborate a School Building Construction Programme and the application of common textbooks in Mathematics and Social Sciences.

Peru - to study the educational systems of the Andean countries, to develop the Andean Managerial school, and to implement the first attempts at scientific and technological cooperation.

Venezuela - in coordination with Chile and Perú will prepare ideas, mechanisms and innovations to improve the educational systems. It will develop a programme related to the improvement of the library services as well as a programme regarding the conservation of environmental and natural resources.

Resolution No. 15 - To thank the Ibero American Educational Office for the offer of educational assistance.

Resolution No. 16 - To support the Scientific, Technological, Educational and cultural projects and to amplify them. To establish a common policy regarding science and technology planning.

Resolution No. 17 - Agreed to congratulate the Peruvian Government for the Organization of the Meeting.

Resolution No. 18 - Agreed to congratulate the Peruvian Government on its new educational reforms which was within the framework of the Agreement.

Third Meeting of Education Ministers held at Quito (Ecuador)
27th-30th March 1972.

Resolution No. 1 - Contains policies to evaluate international cooperation and their approval within 90 days by the member countries and their return to the Ecuadorian Commission in charge of establishing the diagnosis.

Resolution No. 2 - Gives to Perú the responsibility of setting up the Andean Managerial School and convokes a Coordination Committee.

Resolution No. 3 - Approves the Statute that regulates Statistic Information in the Andean countries.

Resolution No. 4 - Is concerned with Rural and Community Education, and provides a 90 day term for introducing suggestions and considerations to the project already prepared by Bolivia on the subject. It authorizes Bolivia to seek international financial help to achieve the project on Rural and Community Education.

Resolution No. 5 - Establishes priorities to be given to each country regarding West German educational assistance. It states a 60 day term to settle the priorities and puts Venezuela in charge of the project.

Resolution No. 6 - Designates Chile, Perú and Venezuela to be in charge of a project regarding the specific aims of education, to design the structure of the Andean Educational System and the introduction of ideas, mechanisms, changes and so on in the educational system of the region.

Resolution No. 7 - Refers to the project of Educational Costs presented by Venezuela and encourages this country to continue on it. It accepts Venezuela's offer to form a panel of experts on the subject.

Resolution No. 8 - Approves a document presented by Venezuela on the development of the library services.

Resolution No. 9 - Recommends influencing the different bodies in charge of scientific and technological institutions and coordinate them with educational agencies in order to formulate programmes to preserve natural resources.

Resolution No. 10 - Authorizes a meeting in Santiago (Chile) to coordinate criteria on Integral Education of Women.

Resolution No. 11 - Recommends the member countries to accelerate the implementation of policies regarding the entrance and exit of Andean

- travellers, as was stated in the Agreement.
- Resolution No. 12 - Approves the agreement to offer scholarships among the Andean countries.
- Resolution No. 13 - Recognizes the studies done on primary and secondary level. It calls for a meeting of experts to establish equivalence tables.
- Resolution No. 14 - Seeks to link the activities of the Agreement with the Diplomatic Chief of his representatives in every Andean country.
- Resolution No. 15 - Approves the Statute that rules the Commission of Educational Planning.
- Resolution No. 16 - Approves considerations introduced in the Buenos Aires (Argentina) Meeting on the Regional Educational Television System.
- Resolution No. 17 - Recommends the opening of lifelong education departments in every Education Ministry. It promotes the idea of lifelong education pilot programmes and the exchange of experience in order to structure a regional system.
- Resolution No. 18 - Approves a Normative Statute regarding educational statistics and asks for technical cooperation.
- Resolution No. 19 - Gives instruction on preparing a programme of human resources regarding the development plans of the region.
- Resolution No. 20 - Assigns functions of the School Building Construction Committee centred at Quito (Ecuador) and establishes a Permanent Commission.
- Resolution No. 21 - Creates the Financial Fund of the Agreement.
- Resolution No. 22 - Puts Colombia in charge of the publication of a educational profile of the educational systems of the Andean countries.
- Resolution No. 23 - Convoques an Educational Research Meeting in Caracas.
- Resolution No. 24 - Creates the Executive Secretary of the Andres Bello Agreement.
- Resolution No. 25 - Encourages the publishing, exchange and distribution of literature throughout the region.
- Resolution No. 26 - Establishes a Coordination Commission of Scientific and Technological Cooperation that will meet every six months.

Resolution No. 27 - States the publication of a bulletin with educational and cultural aspects of the member countries.

Resolution No. 28 - Puts Chile in charge of the study of a project related to the preservation of the cultural patrimony.

Resolution No. 29 - Calls on Unesco to link its activities through projects, experts, resources, etc. and make Ecuador responsible for this.

Resolution No. 30 - Calls for a working party on the teaching of Mathematics and Social Sciences to meet twice yearly in Quito (Ecuador).

Resolution No. 31 - Establishes a work plan to complete the following task within a period of 90 days.

I. (a) To set up a programme of technical assistance and rural and community education; (b) environmental education and natural resources; (c) the achieving of article number IV (travellers on cultural missions) of the Agreement; (d) the scholarship programme; (e) consideration of educational T.V.; (f) the creation of lifelong education offices and (g) the acceptance, introduction and use of the educational statistics collected by the Regional Centre of Education, Cultural and Scientific Statistics.

II. Bolivia to dispatch the Project of Rural and Community Education. Colombia to publish the Educational System Profile. Chile, to publish the report on Specific Aims of Education, to execute the Project on Cultural Patrimony and the publishing of a book on History, Geography, Economy and so on, of the Andean countries.

Ecuador to publish the diagnosis on technical cooperation, to organize the Technical Commission of School Building Construction. To publish the common textbooks in Mathematics and Natural Sciences.

Perú, to organize Seminars in Educational Research as well as the Andean Managerial School, to put into practice the Regional Centre of Education, Cultural and Scientific Statistics and to coordinate the Commission of Technology and Science.

Venezuela, to research into innovations and changes in the Andean educational systems, to continue the development of educational cost and library services, to prepare the conference on Methodology of

of Educational Research. The Executive Secretary of the Andrés Bello Agreement, to present a programme of manpower training to administer the Fund of the Agreement, to create the Andrés Bello library, to coordinate secondary education, to publish a bulletin and the distribution of the book prepared by Chile.

Resolution No. 32 - To authorize Dr. Octavio Arismendi (Secretary of the Executive Secretariat) to sign an agreement with the Colombian government to settle the Executive Secretariat Headquarters at Bogota (Colombia).

Resolution No. 33 - To ask for financial support from the Organization of American States, Unesco, Unicef, etc. in order to favour the Executive Secretariat of the Andrés Bello Agreement.

Resolution No. 34 - To send Bolivia the observations on modifications to the project of Rural and Community Education.

Resolution No. 35 - To thank the Ecuadorian government for the organization of the Meeting.

Resolution No. 36 - Chile to publish the book on geographical, economic, historical and cultural aspects of the Andean countries, after the revision and approval of the signatory members.

Fourth Meeting of Education Ministers held at Caracas (Venezuela) 16th-18th April 1973.

Resolution No. 1 - To establish priority areas in the field of international cooperation, to introduce policies regarding the harmonization of educational systems. To discuss criteria on educational T.V. To study the possibility of increasing labour productivity, accelerate the project on the conservation of cultural patrimony.

Resolution No. 2 - States the continuation of programmes and studies:
Chile - specific aims of education.

Colombia - publishing of a profile of the educational systems.

Venezuela - to continue the project of environmental resources, educational costs and ideas, mechanisms and innovations in the educational systems.

Resolution No. 3 - To programme the Educational Planning Meeting two months before the Ministers' Meeting.

Resolution No. 4 - To accept the information provided by the Seminar on Research and Educational Statistics held in Venezuela and Peru respectively and to recommend its implementation.

Resolution No. 5 - Designs a coordination committee to evaluate the Andean Managerial School, to prepare a prospectus before the Meeting of the Planning Commission and the Ministers' Meeting.

Resolution No. 6 - To seek to coordinate actions regarding educational television and to continue researching on the subject.

Resolution No. 7 - Approves the studies and works done by the Executive Secretariat of the Agreement.

Resolution No. 8 - Considers measures to improve the Executive Secretariat efficiency and the publishing of a semester bulletin.

Resolution No. 9 - To hold the following meetings during 1973:

- (a) Institute of culture representatives
- (b) Labour Improvement
- (c) National Universities.

Resolution No. 10 - Asks for technical assistance from the organization of American States regarding the harmonization of educational systems and national systems of scientific and technical information.

Resolution No. 11 - To initiate the cultural patrimony programme, to design institutions in charge of achieving it. To ask Unesco for financial and technical cooperation.

Resolution No. 12 - To programme the Meeting of the Educational Planning Commission on information, planning experiences, educational assessment, technical assistance and to recommend the coordination of policies in agreement with the integration sought.

Resolution No. 13 - Thanks to Unesco, Organization of American States, West Germany and other institutions.

Resolution No. 14 - To establish the Rural Educational Research Centre in Bolivia with the support and assistance of the Executive Secretariat of the Agreement.

Resolution No. 15 - Asks for cooperation and assistance from the Andean Pact to study and promote multinational enterprises in order to produce an educational infrastructure (blackboards, seats, desks and so on).

Resolution No. 16 - Considers as an important policy the necessity of

linking the Agreement more closely to the Andean Pact.

Resolution No. 17 - Approves the Executive Secretariat Budget.

Resolution No. 18 - Approves the Executive Secretariat Report.

Resolution No. 19 - States the need for re-orientating Technical Education in order to avoid technological dependence.

Resolution No. 20 - Recognizes the work done by Octavio Arismendi in his management of the Executive Secretariat of the Agreement.

Resolution No. 21 - On educational policy, recognizes the importance of Unesco book "Learning to be" and underlines the importance of lifelong education.

Resolution No. 22 - Puts Ecuador and the Executive Secretariat in charge of preparing a document containing criteria regarding technical cooperation.

Resolution No. 23 - Creates a fund that generates resources to finance the Andrés Bello Agreement's different projects.

Resolution No. 24 - Thanks the Venezuelan people, for the organization of the Ministers' Meeting.

Resolution No. 25 - Approves the report given in Venezuela on Library services and recommends the adoption of its proposals.

Resolution No. 26 - asks the Technical Commission on School Building Construction to explore the possibilities of finding credit in order to speed up school building.

Resolution No. 27 - Asks the Organization of American States to consider a credit to be invested in research and planning of schools.

Resolution No. 28 - Asks for support for Ecuador in its project of Social Communication, that will become multinational in consultation with the member countries.

Resolution No. 29 - Selects Bolivia as the Venue of the next meeting. Fifth Meeting of Education Ministers held at La Paz (Bolivia) 26th-29th March 1974.

Resolution No. 1 - Postpones the application from other countries for entry to the Agreement.

Resolution No. 2 - Accepts the offer of the Latin American Regional Book Distributors to distribute books throughout the Andean Region.

Resolution No. 3 - Authorizes the Executive Secretariat to host a

meeting of the Physical Education and Sports bodies of the member countries.

Resolution No. 4 - Authorizes the Executive Secretariat to extend its influence to the Andean Universities in order to achieve educational integration in higher education.

Resolution No. 5 - Approves the Executive Secretariat Budget.

Resolution No. 6 - Invites international tenders for editing and distributing literature by the various writers of the Andean countries.

Resolution No. 7 - Thanks and congratulates Venezuela for creating an Andean Financial Fund.

Resolution No. 8 - Creates an International Institute of Andean Integration to be settled at La Paz (Bolivia).

Resolution No. 9 - Puts the Educational Planning representatives in charge to study of priority areas in education and service.

Resolution No. 10 - Orders the diagnosis and evaluation of the Andrés Bello Agreement.

Resolution No. 11 - Asks Venezuela to distribute the methodological studies concerning educational costs.

Resolution No. 12 - Requires Chile and Venezuela to continue studies regarding the specific aims of education and the elaboration of a programme concerning environmental and natural resources.

Resolution No. 13 - Adopts the Statute of the Education Ministers' meeting.

Resolution No. 14 - Authorizes modifications of the Andean Managerial School.

Resolution No. 16 - Establishes multinational programmes within the region.

Resolution No. 17 - Recommends Ecuador to host a meeting to devise a project in Social Communication.

Resolution No. 18 - Ratifies support for the Bolivian government to create an Andean Centre for the Promotion of Rural Education.

Resolution No. 19 - Ratifies the resolutions of the First Meeting on School Building Construction.

Resolution No. 20 - Authorizes Colombia to survey the Executive Secretariat finances annually.

Resolution No. 21 - Establishes a National Education Committee in every country.

Resolution No. 22 - Puts into practice the Equivalence Tables for a period of two years.

Resolution No. 23 - Adopts modifications regarding the previous Statute that rules the Education Ministers' Meeting.

Sixth Meeting of Educational Ministers held at Vina del Mar (Chile) 7th-10th April 1975.

Resolution No. 1 - Creates the Andres Bello Agreement Fund with financial support for the signatory members.

Resolution No. 2 - Thanks Venezuela for financial support.

Resolution No. 3 - Creates a Financial Committee.

Resolution No. 4 - Approves the Executive Secretariat Balance.

Resolution No. 5 - Approves the Executive Secretariat Budget.

Resolution No. 6 - Creates a diplomatic category for the Executive Secretariat Officers.

Resolution No. 7 - Ratifies the Andean Managerial School budget.

Resolution No. 8 - Opens international auctions to publish and distribute works of literature and arts within the region.

Resolution No. 9 - Recognizes the Commission for Andean Higher Education.

Resolution No. 10 - Accepts the offer of the Venezuelan government that puts scholarships at the disposal of the Andean countries.

Resolution No. 11 - Requires the completion of works begun at the Fifth Meeting of Ministers.

Resolution No. 12 - Accepts the offer of the Venezuelan Government to participate in the studies related to educational costs.

Resolution No. 13 - Creates the Technological Educational Commission as a Technical and Advisory Body of the Agreement.

Resolution No. 14 - Recognizes as the Cultural Commission as Advisory Body of the Agreement.

Resolution No. 15 - Approves the report presented by the School Building Construction Commission.

Resolution No. 16 - Approves the report presented by the Scientific and Technical Commission.

Resolution No. 17 - Authorizes Ecuador to seek financial support to

encourage the Social Communication Programme.

Resolution No. 18 - Requires the collection of suggestions for protecting the cultural patrimony.

Resolution No. 19 - Orders the signatory members to make Andrés Bello Agreement's academic works widely available.

Resolution No. 20 - Orders the Institute of Culture each member country to be responsible for distributing the books of Andean writers.

Resolution No. 21 - Orders Bolivia to host the Anthropological Meeting for the second semester of the programme year.

Resolution No. 22 - Seeks the diffusion of colonial music, the creation of record and film libraries.

Resolution No. 23 - Accepts the offer of University Federico Santa Maria (Chile) to establish technological post-graduate courses.

Resolution No. 24 - Creates the International Institute of Integration.

Resolution No. 25 - Recommends as a cultural activity holding an annual Music Contest.

Resolution No. 26 - Recommends to the Executive Secretariat, the revision and assessment of the different bodies of the Agreement in order to achieve better results.

Resolution No. 27 - Accepts scholarship programme offered by the Catholic University of Valparaíso (Chile).

Resolution No. 28 - Thanks the Chilean government for the organization of the Meeting.

Resolution No. 29 - Fixes the venue of the next Education Ministers' Meeting.

Seventh Meeting of Education Ministers held in Bogotá (Colombia) 29th-31st July 1976.

Resolution No. 1 provides general guidelines to develop priority activities.

Resolution No. 2 - Provides guidelines to elaborate and present projects.

Resolution No. 3 - Approves the International Agreements signed by the Executive Secretariat.

Resolution No. 4 - Adopts a work statute for educational officers working at the Executive Secretariat.

Resolution No. 5 - Adopts a statute to rule the funds of the Agreement.

- Resolution No. 6 - Establishes relations with other agreements or international institutions.
- Resolution No. 7 - Plans action in the short and middle term an annual work.
- Resolution No. 8 - Re-organizes the administrative structure of the Andres Bello Agreement.
- Resolution No. 9 - Creates a National Commission of the Agreement in every country.
- Resolution No. 10 - Assigns Venezuela the responsibility of continuing the studies on Educational Costs.
- Resolution No. 11 - Authorizes the Executive Secretariat to make cooperation agreements with the Latin American Institute of Educational Communication.
- Resolution No. 12 - Approves the Executive Secretariat Report.
- Resolution No. 13 - Assigns Venezuela to hold a meeting to consider the Regional Latin American Educational System Project.
- Resolution No. 14 - Establishes the Andrés Bello Scholarship Programme.
- Resolution No. 15 - Organizes the International Institute of Integration.
- Resolution No. 16 - Issues the Development Project and International Coordination of Educational Actions within the Agreement Framework.
- Resolution No. 17 - Establishes National Systems of Educational Information.
- Resolution No. 18 - Supports the Ecuadorian government in order to attract international finance to put into practice the project of Social Communication.
- Resolution No. 19 - Authorizes administrative modifications within the Andean Managerial School and approves its budget.
- Resolution No. 20 - Approves the Statute of the Education Ministers' Meeting.
- Resolution No. 21 - Recommends tackling Educational Research within the framework of the Agreement.
- Resolution No. 22 - Expresses satisfaction with the labour done by the Documentation Centre of the Executive Secretariat.
- Resolution No. 23 - Closes the International Auctions regarding Andean literature publications.

- Resolution No. 24 - States a programme of mutual cultural diffusion among the member countries.
- Resolution No. 25 - Commemorates the anniversary of the birth of Simon Bolivar (two hundred years).
- Resolution No. 26 - Commemorates the anniversary of the birth of Andrés Bello (two hundred years).
- Resolution No. 27 - Accepts the scholarship programme offered by the Chilean Universities.
- Resolution No. 28 - Recognizes copyrights of those who write, compose etc.
- Resolution No. 29 - Thanks the Director of the Executive Secretariat for his management of the institution.
- Resolution No. 30 - Arranges for the First Congress of Bilingual countries to be celebrated in February 1977.
- Resolution No. 31 - Accepts the initiative presented by Bolivia to create an Andean Anthropological Institute.
- Resolution No. 32 - Accepts the initiative presented by Colombia to create an Andean University.
- Resolution No. 33 - Accepts the initiative presented by Ecuador to create an Andean Institute of Popular Arts.
- Resolution No. 34 - Accepts the initiative presented by Colombia to create an Andean Sport School.
- Resolution No. 35 - Requires the execution of suggestions in Article No. 21 of the Agreement regarding wider extension of Higher Education to citizens of the member countries.
- Resolution No. 36 - Requires improvement on the Primary and Secondary Equivalence Tables.
- Resolution No. 37 - Accepts the economic report presented by the Executive Secretariat.
- Resolution No. 38 - Approves the Executive Secretariat Budget.
- Resolution No. 39 - Elects the Executive Secretariat of the Agreement.
- Resolution No. 40 - Thanks the Colombian Government for hosting the Education Ministers' Meeting.

APPENDIX 5

THE ANDEAN PACT OR CARTAGENA AGREEMENT

With the purpose of accelerating the process of integration initiated by the member countries of LAFTA (Latin American Free Trade Association) the representatives of Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador and Peru signed the Andean Pact on 26th May 1969.

This economic integration agreement, inspired by the Declaration of Bogota, and also the Declaration of the President of Americas founded within the spirit of the Montevideo Treaty and in resolutions numbers 202 and 203 of the Council of Foreign Affairs of the signatory countries of the Latin American Free Trade Association.

On the 13th February 1973 Venezuela signed the Agreement becoming its sixth member.

The Pact was also named "The Cartagena Agreement" in homage to the Colombian city, in which the definitive basis of the Andean Pact was arranged.

On the 30th October 1976, the Chilean Government for internal reasons decided to withdraw Chile from the agreement, reducing the number of signatory countries to five.

The five countries cover a territorial space of 4,687,000 square kilometres, with a population of 67,000,000 and with an annual income per capita of \$667 US in 1973.

Aims of the Andean Pact:

- (a) To promote the harmonious economic development of the signatory countries.
- (b) To accelerate economic growth through economic integration.
- (c) To establish such favourable conditions as to convert the

Latin American Free Trade Association into a Common Market in order to improve standards of living.

Mechanism of the Agreement

In order to achieve these aims a battery of mechanisms and key measures were defined:

- (1) A Liberation Programme of Commercial Exchange rapid than those adopted by LAFTA (the programme involves the gradual elimination of tariffs levied on internal trade goods between members).
- (2) A Common External Tariff or the establishment of a common tariff rate in the countries for goods imported from non-members of the Andean Pact.
- (3) The harmonization of economic and social policies and their effect on national legislation in the member countries.
- (4) Programmed Industrial Investment, destined to intensify the industrialization of the Andean Region as well as to execute Sectorial Programmes of Industrial Development.
- (5) Programmes destined to develop the Agricultural and Fisheries sector.
- (6) Use of internal and external economic resources in investment considered as necessary to the process of Andean integration.
- (7) Physical integration.
- (8) Special economic treatment of Bolivia and Ecuador in view of their relatively lower economic development.

Description of the Principal Mechanisms

1. Liberation Commercial Programme. This mechanism is the traditional and classic mechanism of every treaty of economic integration. It is the best known of those of the Andean Pact.

This programme aims in the short and middle-range term, to eliminate all the restrictions, tariffs and taxes on goods from any member country.

In this way the Andean Pact or the Agreement of Cartagena could have a very important role to play in the creation and consideration of the Andean Market. The influence of the internal market in the process of development of one country is well known. Without a good internal market the possibilities of reaching such development are few.

Thus underdeveloped countries with narrow markets are obliged to broaden them in order to achieve economies fulfilling the requirements of the new methods of production. For this reason, it is thought that through the process of Andean Integration the market would become sufficiently broad and production could be projected on a major scale.

2. A Common External Tariff and the Minimum External Common Tariff. The Minimum External Common Tariff was replaced by the Common External Tariff that would lead to the Andean Customs Union, complementing the Liberation Programme of Commercial Exchange, which aims at the creation of a Free Trade Area. The process of commercial liberation is complemented by the creation of a common protection of Andean production, that is achieved at a primary stage through the application of the Minimum External Common Tariff which at the same time is complemented by the application of the Common External Tariff to be put into practice in 1980.

The Minimum External Tariff has two purposes: on the one hand to establish adequate protection for Andean production creating the framework of preferences, and on the other to defend the consumer, stimulating the efficiency of the Andean production.

3. Harmonization of Development Policies. The Harmonization of Development Policies and the Coordination of Development Plans are the more important mechanisms of the Andean Pact and also the most peculiar ones, because through them the agreement considers the creation of a Free Trade Area or a Customs Union in the middle-range term simultaneously an Economic Union in the long term. It

presupposes the adoption of an economic strategy of community character for the development of the Andean Region. The Agreement foresees a process of coordination of the development plans of the member countries in specific sectors and also the harmonization of economic and social policies, with the aim of achieving common planning to favour the integral development of the Andean Area.

The coordination process of the development plans and the harmonization of policies aim at the more ambitious and difficult task of achieving economic development as a whole. They involve special treatment of Agriculture and Fisheries, the planning of a physical and social infrastructure, the harmonization of foreign currency exchange, as well as financial fiscal policies including the treatment of external investment within and outside the region. It also contemplates a common commercial policy against non-member countries as well as the harmonization of methods and planning techniques within this mechanism (the Harmonization of Policies) is placed the best known Decision of the Andean Pact, Decision Number 24 stating the Common Policy regarding External Investment.

4. Industrial Programming. The industrial programme of the Andean Pact is the most original part of the integration treaty and gives the agreement its character based on a philosophy of communal development.

This mechanism establishes the difference between the Andean Pact Agreement and other treaties founded mainly on an economic and merchantilist conception. If the Andean Pact aims at the balanced growth and the harmonious development in the member countries, this could be achieved through the industrialization process that would allow the growth of economies within a wide regional market.

Industrial programming means the planning of the principal industrial activities with the purpose of adopting national decisions, and also with the purpose of apportioning industrial investment and growth among the member countries. Industrial programmes are orientated

to create the conditions for allowing an improvement in the protection of the region, through the best use of the productive resources of the member countries trying to develop those economic sectors which by their nature play an important role in the transformation of the economic structure in the Andean Region. Decision No. 22, created the Planning Council, the Monetary and Finance Council, the External

Com. The mechanism of the industrial programme is constituted by the sectorial programmes of industrial development which are designated and allocated in the member countries. Up to present only the Metal-Mechanic and Petro-Chemistry programmes have been approved. Most of the others such as the motor car programme, the fertilizer programme, the electronic and communication programme and so on are awaiting approval.

International Bodies of the Andean Pact

In order to achieve its purpose the Treaty has established the following bodies that play normative roles in the process of integration:

1. The Commission. It is the highest body of the agreement and is in charge of the decision making process. It is constituted by one plenipotentiary member of every signatory country. The Commission meets in Ordinary Sessions, three times a year and Extraordinary Meetings can be requested by any of the members. The Presidency of the Commission is rotative among the countries in alphabetical order and annually.
2. The Junta. It is the technical body of the Agreement. It acts only in function of the interest of the Andean Region. It is constituted by three members elected by the Commission.
3. The Consultative Committee, whose main task is to advise the Junta and to give opinions and advice to the Commission when requested by it.

4. The Assessor Committee (Economic and Social). It is formed by representatives of the entrepreneurs and the workers of the member countries.

The Council, the Commission, through Decision No. 22, created the Planning Council, the Monetary and Finance Council, the External Commercial Council, with the aim of facilitating the harmonization of economic policies and the coordination of development plans. Lastly the Tourism Council, the Social Affairs Council, the Health Council, the Physical Integration Council and the Agroperuarian Council were created.

The aim and purposes of the Organization is to promote the economic and social development of the Latin American countries in accordance with the plans and programs of the member nations in:

- (a) Requirements for development.
- (b) National programs of development.
- (c) Intermediate and short periods.
- (d) external aid to support the national programs of development and
- (e) organization and procedures.

The basic requirement for development states the need for broad programs of national development, leading to self-sufficiency. Such programs should be made under the Latin American countries' own efforts and under the administration of the countries of the Latin American countries. The statement also calls for an agreement to the public and private sectors as well as to special bodies to strive for the equal distribution of wealth and social progress.

The National Programs of Development established in the Latin American countries should reinforce their efforts by increasing the execution and quality of such programs. The program shall

APPENDIX 6

THE ALLIANCE FOR PROGRESS

In August 1961 in Punta del Este (Uruguay), an extraordinary meeting of the Interamerican Economic and Social Council was celebrated which was dependent on the Organization of American States. The countries were represented by their Foreign Ministers and on 17th August 1961, the Charter of Punta del Este was signed, that founded the Alliance for Progress, defined as a cooperative effort to accelerate the economic and social development of the Latin American countries. The Charter was signed by all the countries of the Organization of American States with the exception of Cuba.

The aims and purposes of the Charter aimed to fulfil mainly the economic and social development plans and to do this the Alliance planned actions in:

- (a) requirements for development,
- (b) national programmes of development,
- (c) intermediate and short policies,
- (d) external aid to support the national programmes of development and
- (e) organization and proceedings.

The basic requirement for development stated the need for broad programmes of national development, leading to selfgrowth. Such programmes should be made under the Latin American countries' own efforts and under the maximization of the resources of the Latin American countries. The statement also asked for an improvement in the public and private sectors as well as in social reforms to allow for the equal distribution of economic and social progress.

The National Programmes of Development established by the Latin American countries should reinforce their systems of preparation, execution and revision of such programmes. The programmes should

tend to:

- (a) improve the human resources and to extend job opportunities,
- (b) to develop and use more natural resources,
- (c) to reinforce agriculture,
- (d) to offer incentives and efficiently use financial resources through the reform of the tax system,
- (e) to promote conditions that would stimulate the flow of internal investment and
- (f) to improve the system of distribution and selling to make the market more competitive.

It was agreed to initiate a policy of financial aid and for countries that required it, in actions leading to:

- (a) Completion of projects just started or in the process of initiation.
- (b) To setting up new projects aimed at satisfying economic and social needs.
- (c) The preparation and execution of long range programmes, that would lead to the training of technicians; specialists, to improving the statistics service and so on.

Regarding external aid, it was stated that the economic and social development of Latin America would require great financial support from the United States as well as the administrative and technical advice of the Organization of American States, the Economic Commission for Latin America, the Interamerican Bank for Development, which would coordinate efforts to organize a pool of planning experts at the disposal of the Latin American countries to facilitate technical assistance.

The Alliance for Progress and the Latin American Integration

The Charter of Punta del Este also made statements regarding

integration. It recognized the Montevideo Treaty, the General Treaty for CentroAmerican Integration and stated that the process of integration would be intensified and accelerated through the expansion of markets, the liberation of commerce as well as through mechanisms such as the sectorial agreement of complementation stated by the Montevideo Treaty. To secure the harmonious expansion of the economies, the integration process should include the necessary flexibility in considering less developing countries.

Implications and results of the Alliance for Progress. After the second world war, the Latin American countries became conscious of their condition and the feasibility of improving it. This new way of thinking was expressed in several forms, but it was not important enough to influence the leading circles of Washington.

The cooperation given by the United States and the international bodies was decisive, but it was too small and too late. Everything changed with the Cuban Revolution and the solution provided by Cuba to its own problems, had a catalytic effect on the policies of United States with regard to Latin America. It was a political fact with long-term implications. Cuba faced the Latin American problem through a revolution, that offered a solution to the problems of underdevelopment and dependency. The political crisis which started with the Cuban revolution shocked the United States and they began to be concerned about the process of development in Latin America: they sought a way of avoiding without altering the bases of the capitalist system. The United States changed their policies towards Latin America and President Kennedy proclaimed a new relationship base with the Latin American countries which was the Alliance for Progress.

The Charter is a product of the Cuban Revolution whose persuasive force was more efficient than the international conferences, the speeches and the rest. Kennedy understood that it was necessary to open a reformist line for Latin America.

The policies of the United States, linked with the Latin American status quo (which is of course conservative) would not serve to attack the problems that developing countries face. The inflexibility of these policies was a good impulse for new revolutions searching for alternatives. In this way the successes of the Alliance for Progress depended on the achievement of three basic conditions which are:

- (a) The United States would recognize the necessity of abandoning the Latin American status quo and going for an effective fast and deep change despite the threat to private interest.
- (b) To the previous condition should be added political willingness to cooperate financially in a multinational way without other intentions not related to welfare and development in the region.
- (c) That the Latin American governments were truly progressive and they had to ensure that the development of their countries was impossible to achieve within those existing structures.

The Charter of Punta del Este was very ambitious in its declarations and intentions and in the aims that it conceived but it did not contain formal juridical compromises. These deficiencies in definition meant that the execution of those projects was a permissive right rather than an obligation. The Alliance was granted with much good will, nobody could deny the importance of "ending illiteracy", "improving health standards" or "improving housing", but neither the means of achieving these aims nor the way in which international cooperation would be given, were clearly explained.

For example the Charter emphasized that it was necessary to put at the disposition of the Latin American countries allocations of capital during the next ten years, but nobody took the step of putting such recommendations into practice. Sixteen years after, the Alliance for Progress failed. The reason for these failures in

practice are to be found in the United States, where the root cause is the lack of political willingness to cooperate and to break with the Latin American status quo. Obviously the creation of new economic and social structures for promoting and facilitating Latin American development is needed, and it is not an easy task for the United States to be the promotor of social and economic reforms as their interests have been linked with the Latin American oligarchies since the early period of the republics. To achieve this, it would be necessary to break away from those links, but doing so would make the United States' interests in copper, iron, oil and in every source of Latin American raw material production, vulnerable. The United States' recognition of the Latin American government elites, makes it difficult for them to recognize the legitimacy of popular demands for changes in the region.

Their investments linked to the social order and in some cases it seems that any programme of social improvement puts those links in danger.

There is not one contradiction, i.e. between the reformist purpose of the Alliance and the interest of the United States investments, there are also different factions within the reformist and within the privileged classes.

The progress that the Alliance sought, could only be achieved in practice by popular governments which backed such reforms. The forces by the status quo that controlled the government, were unable to accept the manifestation of the true purposes of the Alliance. On the other hand, the Alliance attacked in theory and without discrimination the Latin American oligarchy. In doing so, the internal investors and the Latin American businessmen were prevented from pursuing investment in these countries. They saw that the decapitalization of the social order the leading class of the countries and of course the Alliance would undermine those groups whose interests were closer to United States than with Latin America's.

The Alliance could not operate because of these contradictions. The powerful economic groups of the United States did not wish to put their Latin American allegiance at risk to sacrifice their advantages. In other words the Latin American countries must fight against the national interest which are opposed to any change and must face up to the external investors.

Four years after the Alliance, the team of experts that were appointed to head it explained their criticism of its failures and these can be summarized as follows:

- (a) The ignorance of the Latin American people about the origins of the Alliance.
- (b) The lack of practical application of its concepts.
- (c) The lack of popular support.
- (d) The absence of Latin American leadership in national and international spheres.
- (e) The inadequacy of the mechanism of the InterAmerican system for making the achievements of the Alliance possible.

In any attempt to diminish these problems in a meeting in Sao Paulo in 1963 the InterAmerican Committee of the Alliance for Progress was created whose duties were to control and assess projects. Obviously, the creation of bureaucratic bodies did not contribute much to solving the problems if the pressure of the United States' private interest and the Latin American oligarchies hindered the application of the statement proclaimed by Kennedy. As this was never made the Alliance progressively deteriorated.

The resolutions adopted in Buenos Aires in 1966 were the starting point of its gradual collapse. The bodies set up to achieve the Alliance's aims submitted to the will of the United States; the team of experts, whose duties were to advise the United States and to coordinate and control the whole system of the Alliance were reduced.

These facts constituted a serious blow to any possibility of the success of the Charter of Punta del Este.

The Alliance for Progress and its commitment in Education

By 1969 no one was in any doubt that the Alliance had failed against the statements relating to education which were considered fundamental. Its aims were to eliminate illiteracy and to ensure that by 1970 every child would have the chance of six years of Primary Education.

It was supposed to achieve these aims within ten years but an example of its failure can be illustrated in Bolivia where these aims have not been met. According to Gaspar J. García Gallo and Rene J. Montero⁽¹⁾

"by the end of 1968 there would be at least a million and a half illiterates over the age of 15 years. Considering the literacy programmes that were carried out it would take decades to achieve the purposes of the Alliance, without taking into account the thousands of new illiterates. Regarding the Universalization of primary teaching, the analysis of enrolments in urban and rural areas and in normal schools, shows that in 1870, 40% of the peasant children had no schooling whatever. For this reason it is absolutely impossible for urban and rural children to reach the sixth degree."

There is no record of the Alliance having provided funds and adequate technical aid for literacy campaigns, despite the reports of considerable growth in Primary and Secondary teaching in most of Latin American countries. All of this looks very much as if the hopes of the Latin American educational planners, once expressed through the Alliance, are destined to fail.

(1) García Gallo Gaspar and Montero J. Rene
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