

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION
AT UNIVERSITIES WORLD WIDE

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COMPARATIVE EDUCATION AT UNIVERSITIES WORLD WIDE

————— **THIRD EXPANDED EDITION** —————

Edited by

Charl Wolhuter
Nikolay Popov
Bruno Leutwyler
Klara Skubic Ermenc

With an introductory chapter by

Erwin H. Epstein

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Editorial Preface

Comparative Education has had a more than 110-year university history. The first lecture courses on Comparative Education of James Russell at Columbia in 1899-1900, Isaac Kandel at Manchester in 1905, and Fred Clarke at Southampton in 1905, occurred 20 to 30 years before the appearance in North America, Europe and Asia of the first books entitled *Comparative Education*. Universities have always been the most natural environment of doing Comparative Education and creating comparativists. The essence of Comparative Education can thoroughly be understood if we focus on its history and current existence at universities world wide.

The first edition of this book contained 13 chapters on Comparative Education at universities in the USA, Canada, the United Kingdom and Ireland, Germany, Norway, Switzerland, Greece, the Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Greater China and the Southern African states.

The encouraging response received by the book logically gave rise to the idea of producing a second edition. The work on it began in September 2007. The involvement of one of the editors in a previous publication, *Common Interests, Uncommon Goals: Histories of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies and its Members* (Masemann, Bray & Manzon, 2007), offered a strategic network to widen the authorship of the second edition. Many colleagues from all parts of the globe responded to the invitation to contribute to the volume. Six months later, in March 2008, the second edition was completed. It consisted of 38 chapters (an introductory chapter, 36 national and regional chapters, and a concluding chapter) written by 70 authors.

The constant interest in the book led to the need of a third edition. The idea of this volume is to be an expanded edition, having unrevised all chapters from the second edition and widening the geography of countries by adding some new chapters.

This third expanded edition contains 44 chapters (an introductory chapter, 42 national and regional chapters, of which the 36 chapters from the second edition and 6 new chapters, and a revised concluding chapter) written by 80 authors.

Unlike the first edition where all chapters were written in English, for the second and third edition authors were given opportunity to write their chapters in one of the widely used world languages and the national/regional chapters' language panorama of the third edition is: 34 contributions in English, 4 in Spanish, and 4 in French.

The book starts with Erwin H. Epstein's introductory chapter on 'Crucial Benchmarks in the Professionalization of Comparative Education'. The author takes in-depth stock of the development of Comparative Education as an academic field and profession.

The 42 national/regional chapters are grouped into six geographical parts.

Part I 'Comparative Education at Universities in Europe' is the biggest with 19 chapters, which comprise Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, the Netherlands and Flanders, Norway, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and Ireland.

Part II 'Comparative Education at Universities in North America' has 2 chapters devoted to Canada and the USA.

Part III 'Comparative Education at Universities in Latin America' has 5 chapters on Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, and Uruguay.

Part IV 'Comparative Education at Universities in Asia' includes 6 chapters on Greater China (Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao), Japan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Malaysia, and Thailand.

Part V 'Comparative Education at Universities in the Middle East' contains 3 chapters on Egypt, Iran, and Oman.

Part VI 'Comparative Education at Universities in Africa' has 7 chapters, of which 4 are on Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda; one is on Central Africa (Cameroon, Congo, Gabon, Central African Republic, Chad, Equatorial Guinea), one is on Western Africa (Senegal and Benin), and one is on the Southern African region (Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Reunion, South Africa, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe).

In the concluding chapter, the editors summarize and tease out the main aspects of Comparative Education at universities using data provided in the chapters.

The book ends with an updated List of Comparative Education university textbooks extracted from the reference lists of individual chapters.

Chapters included in this book present a variegated picture of histories, current forms of existence, problems, needs, disillusionments, achievements, works, efforts and hopes on Comparative Education as an academic field.

Nowadays, Comparative Education is perhaps not as academically developed, as we, the comparativists, would like it to be. However, we can be optimistic – our field has a more than 110-year history, it has seen a large body of textbooks, and it currently exists at universities in countries of all parts of the world.

We would like to express our most sincere gratitude to all the chapter authors. This edition would never have been possible without their high-quality contributions. Special thanks are also due to Erwin H. Epstein for his valuable introductory chapter.

We would also want to express our sincerest appreciation to Mark Bray, former Director of the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and former dean of the Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong, who, in his capacity as past president of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES), showed his support for the original idea of the book, offered his sustained interest in all editions, and whose inspiring example of enthusiasm and endeavour for Comparative Education played a role in the editors' involvement in this field.

It is our hope that the book could be regarded as a valuable collection, and would contribute to a better understanding of the history, present state and future of Comparative Education at universities world wide.

The Editors

Charl Wolhuter (North-West University, South Africa)

Nikolay Popov (Sofia University, Bulgaria)

Bruno Leutwyler (University of Teacher Education Central Switzerland, Switzerland)

Klara Skubic Ermenc (University of Ljubljana, Slovenia)

September 2012

Crucial Benchmarks in the Professionalization of Comparative Education

Erwin H. Epstein

In 1958, Kathryn G. Heath asked the question in the *Comparative Education Review*, “Is Comparative Education a discipline?” This was not the first time the question had been asked, and it is a question that continues to be asked from time to time. Some comparativists have answered in the affirmative (e.g. Rosselló, 1963). Some others have contended that Comparative Education is a science, or at least is moving toward being one (Noah & Eckstein, 1969). Although the disciplinary or scientific character of Comparative Education may be uncertain, there is no doubt that it is an academic field.

Comparative Education contains two fundamental characteristics that identify it as an academic field. First, it rests on discernible and venerable epistemological platforms that have developed over a long period and that have defined its boundaries. Second, it has had an expanding number of scholars, teachers, and practitioners who identify with and embody a collective consciousness about the venture. The present book exemplifies this second characteristic. And, it is this characteristic that is the focus of my chapter.

Identification with and collective consciousness about Comparative Education developed decades after the epistemological platforms on which Comparative Education rests. In a recent study, I traced the origins of these platforms to Marc-Antoine Jullien of Paris (1817), K.D. Ushinsky of Russia (1857), and Wilhelm Dilthey of Germany (1888). The epistemological platforms served as the foundations for identity formation and collective association. They formed the ‘visions’, the foci, around which scholars could gather systematically to study international issues of education and share their ideas and findings with others having kindred interests.¹ With epistemological platforms but without organizational structures, or with organizational structures but without epistemological platforms, Comparative Education could not exist as an academic field.

The epistemological platforms for Comparative Education were developed in the 19th century. Since antiquity, individuals have been ‘comparing’ education, but it was not until the 19th century that scholars began to focus on *how to make* systematic comparisons. Nevertheless, it was not until the 20th century that scholars developed a common identity around comparative observations and analysis, and the means to convey the findings of research.

Organization is the key to that identity formation. In Comparative Education, organization initially involved the publication of textbooks and journals, inauguration of professional associations, development of coursework, and establishment of formal

¹ For an elaboration of the origins of these platforms, see Epstein (2008).

academic programs. More recently, organization has taken on an additional form that displays a maturing self-consciousness and a need to sustain institutional memory. In particular, practitioners have created databases to document and analyze the field's courses, programs and development. This chapter gives an overview of the field's organizational trajectory, whose benchmarks are outlined below.

- Creation of coursework
- Publication of textbooks, encyclopedias, yearbooks, journals
- Establishment of formal academic programs
- Formation of professional associations
- Development of databases to document and analyze courses, programs, attitudes and demographics

Creation of Coursework

George Z.F. Bereday, the founding editor of the *Comparative Education Review*, speculates that James Russell taught the world's first course in Comparative Education at Columbia University, USA, in the academic year 1899-1900. Russell was president of Teachers College, Columbia University; that the institution's president was the course instructor gave luster to this first offering. The course engaged in structural observation, describing in detail several aspects (in particular, history; state control; organization and administration; elementary, secondary, and higher education; and technical and vocational education) of educational systems in various industrialized countries (Bereday, 1963).

During the first half of the 20th century, introductory courses in Comparative Education, both in the USA and in Europe, followed more or less the framework set by Russell. Courses were highly descriptive and embodied little cross-national analysis. Beginning with the 1950s, however, courses began to shift gears. Rather than an exclusive focus on the structural aspects of educational systems, coursework moved gradually to concentrate on issues that resonate beyond national boundaries and to apply the intellectual tools of history and the social sciences to understand them. In good part, this shift was inspired by the writings of Isaac Kandel, who, in Bereday's words, "perfected the art of comparison" (Bereday, 1957, p.14). In fact, Kandel did not so much perfect the art of comparison as redefine it. Today, issues rather than system structures form the framework for coursework in Comparative Education, especially in programs at leading universities.

Publication of Textbooks, Encyclopedias, Yearbooks, and Journals

Publications are the lifeblood of all academic fields. Books in Comparative Education have played an important part in setting the ground for scholarship. Textbooks and encyclopedias in particular, as they serve to impart accumulated knowledge, have been essential in this regard. Yearbooks and journals have been the principal vehicles for keeping comparativists current on developments in their field.

Textbooks and Encyclopedias

Russell had no textbook to assign to his students at Columbia University, because he developed his course before Comparative Education textbooks became available. Instead, he relied on a large range of in-country reports, including some that he wrote,

on educational systems. Some of these reports, especially on the USA, were in the form of government documents.

As the value of Comparative Education became apparent, and as educators became interested in sharing their comparativist findings and learning from others who had mutual interests, some universities began to see the need to incorporate this field into their curriculum. As they developed courses in the field, the need for a common set of teaching materials, especially in the form of textbooks, grew concomitantly. Generally regarded as the field's first textbook, *Comparative Education: Studies of the Educational Systems of Six Modern Nations*, edited by Peter Sandiford, appeared in 1918. By focusing on the structural elements of educational systems of a few industrialized countries, it followed a pattern similar to that of Russell's course at Columbia University. However, although both Sandiford and Russell focused on country-by-country descriptions, Sandiford placed more emphasis on the degree of centralized educational policy control.

Sandiford's textbook consisted of a set of readings, each of which had a different author. Since 1918, several Comparative Education textbooks have taken the same form of compiled readings, while others have been authored by one or more individuals rather than as edited compilations. And, just as the nature of courses began to change in the 1950s, so too did textbooks, although the stage was set for change as early as 1933 by Kandel's path-breaking book, *Comparative Education*.

To be sure, Kandel did not ignore the structural elements of discrete educational systems. Yet he differed from Sandiford and most other textbooks of the era by considering the broad social movements, political developments, and intellectual currents that swept across national boundaries. Indeed, even in the 1950s, perhaps only Nicholas Hans came close to equaling Kandel in analyzing currents that blew across national educational systems (Hans, 1951).

By the 1960s, a few textbooks kept to the old emphasis on educational structures (e.g. King, 1958; Moehlman, 1963), but these were mostly left behind by a new emphasis on international issues as the core of Comparative Education. Some works of the 1960s, most notably textbooks authored by Bereday (1964), Brian Holmes (1965), and Harold J. Noah and Max A. Eckstein (1969), departed radically from the old textbooks by having a decidedly positivistic bent, as did some edited compilations (notably Adams, 1966; Kazamias & Epstein, 1968; Eckstein & Noah, 1969). The positivist, empirically oriented emphasis diminished somewhat in the 1970s, and it was overshadowed for the most part by relativist, Marxist, and critical theory orientations as Comparative Education moved into the 1980s and beyond. Structural descriptions of educational systems certainly did not disappear, but they became less the province of textbooks than encyclopedias.² Since the 1970s, most textbooks have been edited compilations;³ only a few have been individually authored.⁴

² Examples of such encyclopedias are Kurian (1988); Postlethwaite (1995) and Wickremasinghe (1992).

³ Notable examples are Altbach & Kelly (1986); Schriever & Holmes (1988, 1990, 1992); Kempner, Mollis & Tierney (1998); and Arnove & Torres (2003).

⁴ Plausibly the most important of these are: Phillips & Schweisfurth (2006); Kubow & Fossum (2007).

Clearly, as can be seen by this discussion, the textbooks having the most impact and the widest readership are in the English language. This is not to say that textbooks in other languages are unimportant, yet they serve a much narrower audience. Of these, Spanish language textbooks are probably the most widespread, though textbooks in Chinese might soon eclipse readership of Spanish language textbooks, if they have not already done so. Notable among Spanish-language texts are edited compilations by Angel Diego Marquez (1972) and Jürgen Schriewer (2002), and an authored textbook by José Luis García Garrido (1984). Notable examples of textbooks in other languages have been by Friedrich Schneider in German (1947), Alexandre Vexliard in French (1970), Marco Todeschini and Corrado Ziglio in Italian (1992), and Arnaldo Niskier and Marlene Carvalho in Portuguese (1973).

Most textbooks in the field are oriented to the West, though a growing number are written for Asian and African readers. Curiously, one textbook from the old Soviet Union and translated into Spanish is an impassioned diatribe against Western and capitalist Comparative Education.⁵

Yearbooks and Journals

Textbooks and encyclopedias have two primary aims. One is to pass on existing knowledge to future generations, the main aim of textbooks. The other aim is to serve as a source of knowledge on a comprehensive array of topics in the field, and this is the main aim of encyclopedias. Both serve as sources of knowledge but fulfill somewhat different tasks.

Yearbooks and journals are also key sources of knowledge but are less useful for conveying existing knowledge or serving as reference guides. Rather, their purpose is more to inform about new knowledge and find new ways of creating knowledge. Issued recurrently according to a set schedule, they focus more on discrete topics and are less comprehensive in their coverage of the field.

In Comparative Education, yearbooks came before journals. The earliest and plausibly the most influential was *The Educational Yearbook*, published by the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University and edited by Isaac L. Kandel from 1924 to 1944. Each yearbook issue usually covered one to three topics as those topics applied to several countries. As examples, the 1927 *Yearbook* addressed teacher training, the 1930 issue addressed the expansion of secondary education, and the 1932 issue covered religious education.

Two yearbooks that were established about a decade later than *The Educational Yearbook* but lasted longer were the *Year Book of Education* and the *International Yearbook of Education*. The *Year Book of Education* was founded in 1932, and after World War II came under the sponsorship of the University of London's Institute of Education. Early in the 1950s, about a decade after *The Educational Yearbook* ceased to function, the *Year Book of Education* became a transatlantic venture, sponsored jointly by the Institute of Education of the University of London and Teachers College of Columbia University. The *International Yearbook of Education*, founded in 1933,

⁵ The Spanish language version is M. A. Sokolova, E. H. Kuzmina & M. L. Rodionov, *Pedagogía Comparada* (Havana: Pueblo y Educación, 1982). The original edition in Russian was published by Prosveschenie in Moscow, 1978.

was edited, by contrast, not at a university but by the International Bureau of Education in Geneva, and was more encyclopedic, reporting on educational developments in a large range of countries. These yearbooks counted among their editors some of the most distinguished comparativists of their time. In addition to Kandel, editors included Eustace Percy, Nicholas Hans, Joseph Lauwerys, Robert King Hall, George Z.F. Bereday, and Pedro Rosselló.

Academic journals have served an even more important purpose than yearbooks in sustaining the wellbeing and stability of Comparative Education. In contrast to yearbooks, which as their name connotes, are issued annually, journals, which are normally issued three or four times a year, keep practitioners more closely informed of important current research. Journals play a large role in setting scholarly norms and boundaries as well as standards of quality. Also, they give those with common interests a sense of identity about their field.

In 1930, Friedrich Schneider of Germany founded the first scholarly journal in Comparative Education, the *International Education Review (IER)*. He was joined soon afterward by Paul Monroe of Teachers College, Columbia University, USA as co-editor when the journal's first edition was published in 1931 in Cologne. Thus, the *IER* was issued collaboratively by unarguably Germany's leading comparativist of the time together with, in the USA, the founder of the world's first Comparative Education center (more about this later). Indeed, given that the *IER* represented the first formal collaboration of leading comparativists across continents, its editorship marked the launching of Comparative Education as an international field. As such, it was hailed as "this new enterprise in international understanding" by such luminaries as George Counts, the radical progressive whose provocative speeches were about to be published as a widely debated book, *Dare the School Build a New Social Order* (1932). Stephen Duggan, Director of the Institute of International Education at Teachers College, Columbia University and Franz Hilker, who, next to Schneider, was the most prominent German comparativist of the time viewed the enterprise as a critical step forward.

In view of the editors' standing as among the world's most eminent comparativists, and the acclaim the journal received upon its launch, there was ample reason for optimism. Schneider more than any other scholar was responsible for bringing forward Wilhelm Dilthey's concept of *triebkkräfte*, or forces affecting education, into Comparative Education epistemology (see Epstein & Carroll, 2005). Monroe had abundant editorial experience, having been editor-in-chief of the five-volume *Cyclopedia of Education* (1910-13), and was the founding director of the first center for Comparative Education, the International Institute of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Unfortunately, Germany proved to be an uncongenial site for the new enterprise. Both Schneider and Monroe were ardent activists in promoting democracy through education and believed that educational contact was, in Monroe's words, "[of] the greatest advantage . . . in cultivating international understanding and good will".⁶ However, the journal's launch coincided with the rise of Hitler in that country. Once Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany in 1933, he initiated his purge of Jews

⁶ Paul Monroe, "Speech of 1924"; quoted in Bu (1997), p.415.

and liberal democratic elements in the universities, and this action was felt soon afterward by the *IER*. Overcoming early financial difficulties, the *IER* developed promisingly until 1934, when Nazi ideologue Alfred Bäumler replaced Schneider as co-editor. Shortly afterward, Schneider was dismissed from his university positions.

Once Bäumler took control of the journal as co-editor, a gradual but perceptible change in the tenor of the *IER* became apparent. Unsurprisingly, Bäumler quite early injected racist content into the journal, bringing on as authors some of the most virulent anti-Semites, individuals such as Ernst Krieck (1933-34), a member of the SS, the elite unit of the Nazi Party that murdered millions of Jews, Poles, Roma, and Russians. Kriek in his journal contributions envisioned a unified *völkisch*-political worldview in which all personal aspirations, class prejudices, and religious differences would be submerged into a National Socialist *Völk* communal form of life (see Bambach, 2003, pp. 95 and 128).

Monroe left the *IER* in 1938, and shortly afterward the journal came undisputedly under complete Nazi control. It remained so throughout the war. After World War II, the *IER* was returned to Friedrich Schneider (who had left Germany upon his dismissal by the Nazis), was renumbered, and was moved from Berlin to Salzburg, Austria. A complete break with the past came in 1955, when the name of the journal was changed to the *International Review of Education (IRE)* and again renumbered. By this time, Schneider had moved back to Germany and shared a new international co-editorship with Karl W. Bigelow in New York, Roger Gal in Paris, M. J. Langeveld in Utrecht, and Walter Merck in Hamburg. In addition, an international board of editorial consultants was appointed to guide the newly reconstituted journal. Most importantly, as noted in the first editorial of the reconstituted journal, “the fact that the *Review* is a foundation by the Unesco Institute for Education in Hamburg guarantees its independence, worldwide character and freedom from nationalistic bias” (Editorial, 1955, pp.1-2).

To be sure, the first internationally recognized journal in Comparative Education had fallen prey to a notoriously despotic regime for more than a decade. Yet, except for the yearbooks, it was the field’s only periodic publication for over two decades. The *IER/IRE* has been published continuously, with but a lapse of two years after the war, since 1931. It was not until 1957 that another major academic journal, the *Comparative Education Review (CER)*, was launched in the USA by the newly formed Comparative Education Society. Under the *CER*’s first editor, George Bereday, that journal took on a more analytical and positivist orientation than the *IRE* and rose quickly to greater prominence, helped undoubtedly by its ties to the field’s first professional organization, the Comparative Education Society. It is notable that throughout its history, the *CER*, though always based in the USA, frequently appointed members to its editorial board from other countries, especially from Europe and Canada.

A few years after the *CER* was inaugurated, other Comparative Education journals were launched, especially in Britain. Foremost among these were *Comparative Education* (1964) and *Compare* (1970), the former led by key European scholars and the latter an organ of the British Comparative Education Society (see Crossley, Broadfoot & Schweisfurth, 2007). In 1981, the *International Journal of Educational Development*, focusing specifically on issues of the developing world, began publication, also in the United Kingdom. One periodical, *Oxford Studies in Comparative Education*, published twice a year, has both yearbook and journal characteristics.

Although journals in English dominated the field, other high-quality periodicals, occasionally short-lived, emerged in other languages, especially in French (e.g., *Politiques d'éducation et de formation: analyses et comparaisons internationales*), German (e.g., *Bildung und Erziehung*), Spanish (e.g., *Revista Española de Educación Comparada*), and Chinese (e.g., *Comparative Education Review* [Beijing], not to be confused with the USA journal). In 1970, UNESCO launched *Prospects: Quarterly Review of Comparative Education*, published in English, Arabic, Chinese, French, Russian, and Spanish. The most recently launched journals in Comparative Education are on-line periodicals. These include *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, begun in 1997 and edited by graduate students at Columbia University's Teachers College, and *Research in Comparative & International Education*, begun in 2006 and edited by David Phillips at the University of Oxford.⁷

Formal Academic Programs

Formally constituted Comparative Education programs are the local units for shaping and imparting knowledge in the field. These programs developed slowly at the beginning of the 20th century and reached a crescendo of growth by the beginning of the 21st century. Although a variety of countries and international organizations have research institutes in Comparative Education, I focus here only on research and teaching centers at universities.

Comparative Education programs arose out of an interest in preparing individuals to specialize in the field. The existence of coursework was not sufficient to sustain a body of work that was becoming increasingly valued. Courses and textbooks were beginning to mold a common awareness of the field's development, but they were not enough. As coursework and books about Comparative Education grew, prominent schools of education began to realize that they needed to take the lead in creating units focused on improving domestic schools by learning from the experience of schools in other countries. To achieve this purpose, resources had to be secured for preparing comparativists and to support research.

Although the epistemological foundations of Comparative Education were laid mainly in Europe, the initial impetus for the formation of programs was in the USA. Beginning around the turn of the 20th century, American and British universities were increasingly called upon to train students from abroad. For example, in the aftermath of the Spanish-American War, the Americans administering the affairs of Cuba arranged to have over 1,000 Cuban teachers trained (or retrained) at Harvard University during their summer vacations (see Epstein, 1987).

In 1923, John D. Rockefeller, Jr. gave a gift of \$1 million to establish the International Institute at Teachers College, Columbia University. The initial aim of the International Institute was to export American democratic education to promote world democracy and international understanding. At the time the International Institute was founded, more than 2,000 foreign students had studied at Teachers College, and students from abroad constituted more than six percent of the total student body. Paul

⁷ I do not here include journals in International Education (such as *Journal of Research in International Education*), a field closely tied to but separate from Comparative Education.

Monroe, Director of and leading force behind the International Institute's founding, had three primary aims: 1) train foreign students, 2) conduct research on educational systems, and 3) train educational missionaries. Although the International Institute became defunct in 1938 with the termination of the Rockefeller Foundation grant that supported it, Comparative Education remained strong at Teachers College. Even more important, the International Institute inspired the creation of programs at other universities, especially in the United States (Bu, 1997).

Clearly the strongest early programs in Comparative Education outside the USA were at King's College and the Institute of Education at the University of London. As in the case of the International Institute at Teachers College, Columbia University, the programmatic rise of Comparative Education at the University of London came after World War I. However, the formalization of a program in Comparative Education at the University of London did not come until decades after the creation of the International Institute at Teachers College. In the years immediately following World War I, King's College appointed Nicholas Hans, a leading comparativist of his day, to a lectureship and then a readership. However, it was not until 1947 that the London Institute of Education elected Joseph Lauwerys to a chair in Comparative Education. These positions became central to the formation of programs at the University of London, where students were trained, research was carried out, and important publications issued in the field. They were augmented in the 1950s by the appointments of Edmund King at King's College and Brian Holmes at the Institute of Education (Lauwerys, 1959). Somewhat later, important centers were launched at Cambridge, Oxford, and Reading.

The 1950s became the decade of inauguration of a number of Comparative Education programs, some of which did not last. In the USA, among the most enduring programs were those at UCLA, the University of Pittsburgh, Michigan State University, and Stanford University. The University of Chicago Center for Comparative Education, founded in 1958 under the direction of C. Arnold Anderson, had a huge impact on the field, abetted especially by scholars at Columbia University and Stanford University, by setting in motion a positivist thrust. As in the case with the International Institute at Teachers College, Columbia University during the 1930s, the Comparative Education Center at Chicago suffered a slow decline beginning in the 1970s when philanthropic funding (in this case, from the Ford Foundation) was withdrawn. The Comparative Education program at the University of Michigan, which in the 1950s and 1960s probably prepared more comparativists than Chicago, faded in the early 1990s after the death of Claude Eggertsen. In Canada, important centers developed in the 1950s and 1960s at the University of Toronto, McGill University, University of Calgary, University of Alberta, University of British Columbia, and the University of Ottawa (see Wilson, 1994).

Since the 1960s, many universities started programs in Comparative Education in Europe, Asia, and North America. Outside of Britain and North America, one of the earliest programs was the Department of Contemporary Education and School Abroad (*Sektor sovremenno pedagogiki i shkoly za rubezhom*) of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in Moscow, begun in 1956 but rooted in an even earlier program (Veikshan, 1959). Also in the 1950s, the University of Hamburg had the earliest Comparative Education program in Germany. In France it was the Institute for Social and Economic Research and *Institut Pédagogique National* at the University of Paris, Sorbonne, and in the Netherlands it was the *Nutseminarium* at the University of Amsterdam. The

1950s also saw the beginning of the first center in Japan — the Research Institute of Comparative Education and Culture at the University of Kyushu in Fukuoka (Bereday, 1964, pp.203-215).

In a comprehensive survey by Bradley J. Cook, Steven J. Hite and Erwin H. Epstein (2004) of the membership of the Comparative and International Education Society (USA), whose members, though mainly from North America, come from many parts of the world, respondents reported, in rank order, that the programs at the following universities were the most influential in Comparative Education: Stanford University, Columbia University, Harvard University, University of Chicago, University of California-Los Angeles, University of London, University of Pittsburgh, University of Toronto, State University of New York-Buffalo, and Florida State University. All but two of these programs are in the USA.⁸

Professional Associations

University-run programs are vital to the development of an academic field. Yet to sustain a field scholars need a vehicle to facilitate their meeting and sharing ideas across programs. Professional associations serve that purpose.

Comparative Education has experienced substantial growth since the first professional association, the Comparative Education Society (CES), was founded in the USA in 1956. The name of that association changed in 1968 to the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) to reflect the breadth of its membership. The CES/CIES has played a key role in advancing Comparative Education worldwide. Not only was it the first Comparative Education association to be launched, but it has been the largest and most diverse of the 36 national, regional, and linguistic constituent members of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies, the umbrella organization for societies in the field around the world. Moreover, soon after its founding, the CES launched the *Comparative Education Review*, for many years if not still today, the field's preeminent journal.

CES/CIES, unlike all other national Comparative Education societies around the world, declined formally to place a national modifier in its name. Thus, one does not speak of the Comparative and International Education Society 'of the USA', in contrast to, say, the Canadians, who call their organization the Comparative and International Education Society of Canada. Some might claim that the Americans are imperious by not 'nationalizing' their title. However, there are two reasons why the American society declined to include 'of the USA' in its title. First, at the time of inauguration, the Society's founders gave no thought to the prospect of Comparative Education associations being created in other parts of the world, and therefore, being the only association in the field, they felt no need to use a national qualifier in the title. Second, the CES/CIES has the broadest membership of any of the world's associations. The organization never placed restrictions on membership, unlike European societies that were launched early in the wake of the CES. Hence, for example, non-Americans have

⁸ Cook, Hite & Epstein (2004): Table 19, p.142. It is worthy of note that the University of Chicago should rank so high, in view of the fact that the Comparative Education Center had been defunct for more than a decade.

served on the CES/CIES board of directors since the organization's inception, and several Canadians have been presidents. The figures shown in Table 1 of Cook, Hite, and Epstein suggest that about 25 percent of the membership is from outside North America. It is reasonably safe to say that at least 15 percent of the membership is from Canada. In other words, at least one-third of CIES members are from outside the USA. The Society has even held several of its annual meetings in other countries, including at least two each in Canada and Mexico, and one in Jamaica.

Vandra Masemann, Mark Bray, and Maria Manzon (2007) have compiled comprehensive and detailed histories of the Comparative Education societies and of their umbrella association, the World Council of Comparative Education Societies. Therefore only a brief summation need be given here.

Just as Teachers College, Columbia University played a large role in the launching of Comparative Education programs elsewhere, so did the Comparative Education Society in the USA serve as a model for other associations in the field. The Comparative Education Society in Europe (CESE), founded in 1961, was the second Comparative Education association to be initiated. Joseph Katz, from the University of British Columbia in Canada, drafted the initial CESE statutes based largely on those of the CES in the USA (see Cowen, 1980). The CESE developed several national and regional 'sections', which functioned as mini organizations. Most of these sections, such as the francophone group, eventually evolved into independent associations, with their own meetings and administrative structures. National organizations also developed in other parts of the world, beginning in 1965 with the formation of the Japan Comparative Education Society.

With the formation of several national and regional organizations, some comparativists saw the need for a network connecting scholars around the world. In 1968, Joseph Katz convened an International Committee of Comparative Education. In 1970, the Committee became the World Council of Comparative Education, and in 1971 was renamed as the World Council of Comparative Education Societies, which became the umbrella organization for all formally recognized national and regional Comparative Education associations. Its most important function has been to plan the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, which convenes normally every three years (Epstein, 1994; Bray, Manzon & Masemann, 2007).

In brief, it took half a century for Comparative Education to grow from one to 36 societies, an expansion that was greatly aided by the work of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies. These organizations have played a vital part in the institutionalization of Comparative Education as an academic field.

Databases

The last element in the institutionalization of Comparative Education is currently the least vital but the surest sign of the field's coming of age: the creation of formal databases relating to all the other principal associational components. Databases arise from self-consciousness, a sense of wanting to know what other practitioners are doing to convey knowledge and how one's contributions align with those of others. Such databases are generated by surveys that fall generally into three categories: 1) attitudes and demographics, 2) course contents and program units, and 3) citation and content analyses.

Attitudinal and Demographic Surveys

A group of graduate students and faculty at the University of Michigan conducted plausibly the first surveys of attitudes about the field. The first was done on March 21-23, 1979 at the CIES meeting at that university. The second survey was conducted about a decade later, on March 17-20, 1988 at a CIES meeting in Atlanta. The authors — Heidi Ross, Cho-Yee To, William Cave, and David E. Bair — reported ‘remarkable continuity’ and ‘startlingly similar’ responses to identical items in the two surveys. The authors concluded that their results “suggest a potentially dramatic expansion of both the intellectual and institutional boundaries of comparative education” (Ross et al., 1992, p.114). Unfortunately, too few conference participants were included in the survey to ensure that the findings reliably represented the views overall of CIES members.

The much more recent survey conducted by Cook, Hite, and Epstein, mentioned earlier, included far more participants, was far more representative of the CIES membership, and was far more extensive in its coverage of themes and content. Among the most interesting findings, the authors showed that 70 percent of respondents received their academic degree outside of Comparative (and International) Education, and more than one-third of the respondents had never taken an introductory course in the field. These results show the field’s large eclecticism and the difficulty of arriving at a common understanding of the field’s history, purposes, and boundaries.⁹

Surveys of Courses and Programs

Course and program surveys are a relatively new development in Comparative Education. These can be world wide or within countries. Two projects involving worldwide surveys stand out: the first is a continuing project launched in 2003 at Loyola University of Chicago, and the second is a fixed project, the latest version of which is represented by this book.

The Comparative and International Education Course Archive Project (CIECAP) is a special program of the Center for Comparative Education and the Comparative and International Education Graduate Students Association at Loyola University of Chicago. Directed by Erwin H. Epstein and endorsed by the World Council of Comparative Education Societies, CIECAP is an on-line database of salient features of introductory courses in Comparative Education as taught at universities around the world. The database is essentially an accessible archive of key elements of those courses including unit topics, referenced articles, journals and texts, as well as the interests and specializations of Comparative Education course instructors. Those either planning to teach or who are already teaching Comparative Education can use CIECAP as a tool for designing their course syllabi and for comparing their course to what is being taught in programs at other universities. The database currently contains information from 21 universities in the USA and 10 universities outside that country. CIECAP has begun posting course outlines from a variety of universities on line. It plans also in the near future to inventory and analyze the nature of Comparative Education centers worldwide.¹⁰

⁹ Cook, Hite & Epstein (2004), especially Tables 3 and 12, found only in the electronic version.

¹⁰ The URL for CIECAP is: <http://www.luc.edu/cce/ciecap.shtml>.

In 1995, Philip G. Altbach and Eng Thye Jason Tan produced probably the first worldwide 'fixed' survey in the field. The authors collected data from 120 institutions. The work was basically an inventory of programs: their enrollments, staff, locations, courses taught, and textbooks used. It contained little analysis and underrepresented Comparative Education in some parts of the world. There was no effort to discern trends or relate textbook use to individual or institutional analysis.

The first edition of the present book was also a kind of 'snapshot' of programs in the field. It was much less extensive and covered far fewer programs than the present edition. The present edition in particular could serve as a platform for the ongoing work of CIECAP as it moves into surveying Comparative Education centers around the world. In a few short years, comparativists will have ongoing access to information on the characteristics, events and activities of a large international array of university programs in Comparative Education.

In addition to worldwide databases, there have been a few surveys of Comparative Education programs within countries, especially in the UK and Argentina. Keith Watson conducted probably the earliest of these, though not as extensive or comprehensive as later studies. He concluded that there had been a decline of Comparative Education faculty at UK universities in the early 1980s, due to reduced funding (Watson, 1982). In 1995-6, Michele Schweisfurth conducted a survey of changes in the number of Comparative Education graduate programs and in research at UK universities. She studied prospectuses of programs at 91 universities and colleges, focused in detail on four of these, and interviewed key people in the field. Schweisfurth's findings were no more favorable than those of Watson's a decade and a half earlier. Comparative Education had declined as a discrete academic course of study and virtually disappeared in pre-service teacher training, although she observed growth in research due to European Union funding arrangements (Schweisfurth, 1999).

In 2005, Maggie Wilson reviewed an array of websites at UK universities to determine the extent and distribution of Comparative Education in education departments, and contacted a subsample of institutions to examine such patterns in detail. She then sent questionnaires to 67 individuals known to have an interest in Comparative Education. She found that the M.A. level was the most common home for Comparative Education, although the inclusion of Comparative Education coursework had grown at the B.A. level. Wilson reported that 42 percent of the departments surveyed featured a comparative dimension in some aspects of coursework (Wilson, 2005).

Recently in Argentina, Mónica Marquina and Pablo Lavia, of the Universidad Nacional de General Sarmiento, identified 39 institutions that offered degrees in education. Of these, 19 contained coursework relating to Comparative Education. In analyzing data they collected on these 19 institutions, they found that 30 percent included a focus on the history of Comparative Education, almost all covered the field's nature and methods, one half included perspectives and debates in the field, and 10 percent discussed relationships between Comparative Education and other disciplines (Marquina & Lavia, 2007).

Content and Citation Analyses

One final way of looking internally is by means of content and citation analyses of leading academic journals in the field. What does the corpus of literature in the field reflect about the values, approaches, and aims of Comparative Education?

Robert L. Koehl conducted probably the first comprehensive and systematic analysis of Comparative Education literature. In the mid-1970s, he reviewed the contents of three major journals: the *Comparative Education Review* (1957-76), *Comparative Education* (1964-75), and the *International Review of Education* (1954-75). He studied not only the featured articles in these journals, but also book reviews, bibliographic notices, reports of conferences, and biographical notes. In doing so, his analysis covered hundreds of entries. He sorted these by topics, type of societies ('modern' or 'developing'), number of countries compared, and frequency of topics. He did not uniformly analyze these categories across the three journals and did not attempt to associate content variables with characteristics of authors or readers (Koehl, 1977).

W. D. Halls did a much less extensive study focusing on articles appearing from 1975 to 1985 in the *International Review of Education*. He found that 17 percent of the articles were not classifiable by country, 40 percent focused mainly on one country, 30 percent concentrated on two to six countries, and thirteen percent treated seven or more countries (Halls, 1990, p.27).

Val D. Rust, Aminate Soumaré, Octavio Pescador, and Megumi Shibuya studied methodological trends displayed in articles over 25 years from the *Comparative Education Review*, *Comparative Education*, and the *International Journal of Educational Development*. They concluded that less than one-third of the entries they reviewed relied on direct comparisons as a research strategy, and that most Comparative Education research fails to be genuinely 'comparative' (Rust et al., 1999). With an aim similar to that of Rust et al., Angela Little sought to infer the nature of 'comparison' from the titles of all 472 articles appearing in *Comparative Education* during the years 1977-98, classifying these titles by country or countries, number of countries compared, and topics examined (Little, 2000).

The studies mentioned above engaged in one or another form of content analysis. By contrast, Cook, Hite, and Epstein (2004) conducted a citation analysis and examined 'comparison' not in terms of how many countries were observed, but rather as to what figures in the field were most cited. Their citation analysis was based on an analysis of three of the field's leading journals, the *Comparative Education Review*, *Comparative Education*, and the *International Journal of Educational Development* to accompany their large survey of the CIES membership. Indeed, it is the only study in Comparative Education to have combined citation analysis with sample survey results. Overall, Cook, Hite, and Epstein (2004) discerned the content most valued by scholars and teachers in the field by observing differential preferences authors and respondents placed on major themes, leading figures, leading works, leading universities, and leading organizations.

Conclusion

This chapter has taken stock of the development of Comparative Education as an academic field and profession. It seeks to reveal the field's vicissitudes, its efforts to form new ventures and its failures to sustain old ones, and its organizational range and scope. One is tempted to say that in view of the recent expansion of programs, national and regional associations, publications, and databases aimed at recording the field's activities, Comparative Education is bursting at the seams. However, the difficulty of discerning those seams and the knowledge that in times past some promising programs, periodicals, and associations have withered greatly temptations.

After all, 'seams' are boundaries, and disciplinary boundaries are elusive when a field is as eclectic and as dependent on other disciplines for its foundation as Comparative Education. And, when programs having monumental influence such as the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University or the Comparative Education Center at the University of Chicago go out of business because they lose their funding, it might seem as though disaster is persistently at the door of Comparative Education programs everywhere.

Still, the seams of Comparative Education are discernible, however difficult they may be to recognize. Comparativists are making progress in stabilizing the field's boundaries and gaining a palpable grasp of its epistemological platforms. They are also mindful that universities hosting Comparative Education programs are, in a sense, refuges for the field even when formal programs fade. Good examples of universities that have seen the reincarnation of strong Comparative Education programs are Columbia University and Stanford University in the USA. It is a certainty that as Comparative Education expands at least some of the newer programs at universities across the globe will endure. The present volume is an attempt to document this phenomenon.

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Prof. Erwin H. Epstein
Director, Center for Comparative Education
Loyola University of Chicago
820 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60611, USA
e-mail: eepstein@luc.edu

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PART I

*Comparative Education at
Universities in Europe*

Comparative Education in Bulgaria

Nikolay Popov

This chapter examines the preconditions, origin and development of Comparative Education in Bulgaria as a practical problem-solving tool, a research field, a policy helping activity, and as a science and academic discipline. The chapter also explores the political, socio-cultural, economic, national-consciousness, academic and scientific conditions determining the problems, achievements, issues and challenges to Comparative Education in this country during the different periods of its history.

In its 1327-year history Bulgaria has gone through three Bulgarian states and two yokes: the First Bulgarian State (681–1018); the Byzantine yoke (1018–1185); the Second Bulgarian State (1185–1396); the Turkish yoke (1396–1878); the Third Bulgarian State (1878 – up to the present). This chapter focuses on the two latter periods.

Comparative Education Studies in Bulgaria till the Liberation (1878)

If we would like to understand the genesis of Comparative Education in Bulgaria we must go nearly 250 years back, to the beginning of the Bulgarian national revival in the dark days of the Turkish yoke. The appearance and development of comparative education studies should be seen in the context of the common uplift in Bulgarian society of that time.

Preconditions for the Rise of Comparative Education Studies

The Bulgarian cultural revival began in 1762 when a book entitled *Slavonic-Bulgarian History* appeared. It was written by a monk, Paisiy Hilendarski (1722–1773). The great role of Paisiy was in laying the foundations of a new cultural orientation including the Bulgarian people in an all-European context and increasing the national consciousness. Paisiy was the first one who formulated the idea of comparability of the Bulgarian people with all others.

The idea of education comparison was the next significant step and it was done in 1824 by a young scholar, Dr. Peter Beron (1800–1871), by his *Primer with various instructions* (its popular name is *The Fish Primer* because there is a fish painted on the cover). Beron traveled a lot around Romania, Austria and other countries examining the educational practice at primary schools. Comparing everything he had seen Beron showed progressive ways of improving Bulgarian education.

Due to the fact that there was no system of higher education, the majority of Bulgarian intellectuals were graduates from universities in France, Russia, Austria, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, among others. The accumulation of knowledge and direct foreign education experience supported to a great extent the rise and development of comparative education studies.

Comparative Education Materials in the Bulgarian Pre-liberation Press

The Bulgarian pre-liberation press is the only source of information on comparative education materials published during that time. About 80 comparative education materials (reports, correspondences, articles) were published in nearly twenty journals and newspapers. *School* (1870–1875), edited by R. Bluskov, was the most active

journal in publishing case and comparative materials on education in foreign countries. An article entitled “A Look at Education of All Nations around the World” (*School*, 1873, No.7) was a typical example in that respect. The short text expresses much naiveté but deep knowledge-ability as well.

Luben Karavelov: the Forerunner of Bulgarian Comparative Education

Luben Karavelov (1834–1879), a Bulgarian writer, educator and publicist, can be regarded as the forerunner of Bulgarian Comparative Education. His contributions to the development of this field were as follows:

1) He studied education in Serbia and Russia through study visits and education in England, Austria, the USA, France and Germany by publications (for instance, he used Celistin Hippeau’s books on various countries).

2) He compared on the one hand, education in some European countries and on the other hand, education in Europe and that in the USA.

3) He considered borrowing foreign positive education experience as a necessity but always according to one’s own national traditions and needs.

Luben Karavelov in Bulgaria is what Victor Cousin is in France, Friedrich Thiersch in Germany, Horace Mann in the USA, and Matthew Arnold in England. On the grounds of his contributions Karavelov could be put among the distinguished forerunners of Comparative Education.

Characteristics of Comparative Education Studies up to the Liberation

1) Practice went before theory. There were a lot of practical studies but there were no conceptions about the theory of comparison.

2) There was no Comparative Education as a science.

3) Since Bulgaria was in undeveloped social and economic conditions, the aims of studies were purely utilitarian.

4) Description strongly prevailed over analysis.

5) Comparative education studies arose during the Bulgarian national revival, which because of the Turkish yoke, started two or three centuries after that in other European countries. This influenced the character of the very studies. Their tone was slightly naïve but pure and lofty in a renaissance way.

Comparative Education Studies from the Liberation till 1918

As a result of the Russian-Turkish War of 1877–1878 Bulgaria overturned the 5-century Turkish yoke in 1878. The builders of modern Bulgaria began to lay the foundations of a new educational system. Broader prospects were held out to comparative education studies.

Conditions of the Development of Comparative Education Studies

It was quite natural for a newly-liberated country to turn its eyes to the more developed ones and to follow their laws, decisions, structural and functional models when establishing its own educational system. Comparative education studies represented a natural expression of the attempt to solve some of our educational problems.

Aleksiev (1912, p.9) elucidated the positioning of comparative education studies in this new era:

The Liberation put new tasks and goals to our school. It had to be adapted to the new conditions. The school had to serve the newly established public groups and institutions, to serve for uplifting the cultural level of the Bulgarian people, helping it to acquire that knowledge it needed to become a member, equal in rights, of the family of the European cultural nations... There was no time for considerations and experiments. What could be done in that case: to follow the example of the cultural nations. And our first policy-makers imitated the school systems of Russia, Austria and Germany. But that imitation was not a slavish one; those copies were immediately adjusted to the Bulgarian conditions.

Sofia University, which was the first Bulgarian university opened in 1888, played a very important role in the development of comparative education studies. Most Bulgarian comparativists of that time were university professors. Some lecture courses on foreign education appeared in the early 1900s.

Comparative Education Publications

About 120 comparative education materials (articles, reports, correspondences) were published mostly in the following journals: *School Review*, *Education*, *Education Magazine*, and *Democratic Review*. In addition, there were two books with a comparative education orientation: *Bourgeois and Proletarian Pedagogy* (1911) by Bratovan Illiev, and *Our School Policy* (1912) by Nikola Aleksiev.

Peter Noykov's Contribution to the Development of Comparative Education

Peter Noykov (1868–1921), the first Bulgarian professor in education, was the most prominent comparativist of that time. His contribution covered three main fields: case studies; developments of the theory of comparison; and lecture courses on foreign education and school organization.

Peter Noykov visited Germany, France and England with special research aims. As a result of those visits he wrote a couple of articles. Noykov was the first Bulgarian scholar who worked on the theory of educational comparison. He developed a method, which he denominated 'A general method of studying characteristics of a given national education'. This method of studying foreign education consists of three phases: categorization, comparison, and generalization. With the lecture courses on 'German Education', 'English Education' and 'School Organization and Management' which he began to give at Sofia University in 1908–1909, Noykov prepared the ground of Comparative Education as a university discipline.

Other Comparativists of that Time

During 1878–1918 over thirty Bulgarian authors published various comparative education materials. The following had more significant contributions to the development of the field: Luca Dorosiev; Ivan Georgov; and Nikola Lazarov, who in 1902 translated into Bulgarian Charles H. Thurber's *Principles of School Organization. A Comparative Study Chiefly Based on the Systems of the United States, England, Germany and France* (1899).

Characteristics of Comparative Education Studies from the Liberation till 1918

1) Comparative education studies were not only a necessity but also may be the only auspicious means for building modern education after the Liberation.

2) The number of comparative education publications was 50% higher than in the pre-Liberation period.

3) Description prevailed over analysis. However, a constant tendency to deep analytical consideration was established and developed.

4) Some scholars (Lazarov, Aleksiev, Noykov) largely used in their works different levels of the comparative method – description, analysis, and prognosis.

5) Comparative Education did not exist as a science yet. However, the period 1878–1918, and especially the years 1900–1914, could be considered as a transitional phase to the differentiation of Comparative Education as a science and a university discipline in Bulgaria.

Bulgarian Comparative Education in 1919–1944

Conditions of Progress in Comparative Education Studies

The following conditions were of great importance to the progress of comparative education studies in that period.

1) The Bulgarian Ministry of Education kept close contacts with the International Bureau of Education (IBE), Geneva, immediately after its establishment in 1925.

2) Many Bulgarian scholars were on research trips at some centers of Comparative Education, such as: the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University; Institute of Education, London University; Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht, Berlin; Institut International de Coopération Intellectuelle, Paris; Musée Pédagogique, Paris.

3) Some prominent educators (for example, Paul Monroe and William F. Russell) visited Bulgaria in the 1920s and 1930s and shared their experience with Bulgarian scholars. W. Russell, Associate Director of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, visited Bulgaria in 1923 with research aims. In 1924 he published his book *Schools in Bulgaria* which was a typical example of the mutual Bulgarian-American interest in the field of education. Later, in 1939, W. Russell was awarded the honorary title Doctor Honoris Causa of Sofia University.

4) The process of differentiation of Comparative Education was assisted by the fact that many comparative sciences – comparative theory of literature, comparative linguistic, comparative law, comparative anatomy, comparative anthropology, comparative ethnography, comparative theory of culture, comparative study of myths and legends, comparative psychology – had already been developed and introduced as university disciplines in Bulgaria.

Comparative Education Publications

More than 220 comparative education materials (articles, reports, correspondences) were published mostly in the following journals: *School Review*, *Education*, *Teacher's Thought*, *Free Upbringing*, and *Enlightenment*. In addition to them, there were three books which were real contributions to the development of Comparative Education: *New Education in the New World* (1933) by Gencho Pirvov; *Education in the Far East* (1937) by Sava Ganovski; *Entire Education* (1941) by Gencho Pirvov.

Christo Negentzov – the Founder of Comparative Education as a Discipline in Bulgaria

Christo Negentzov (1881–1953) was the first Bulgarian scholar who introduced Comparative Education as a university discipline. His comparative education heritage consists of:

1) Case studies on foreign education. Negentzov wrote more than 20 articles on education abroad.

2) Systematic use of comparison as a basic research method. His comparative study 'Schooling in Germany and the United States' (Negentzov, 1926) is a telling example in this respect.

3) A lecture course on 'General Theory of School Organization' he began to deliver at Sofia University in 1925.

Gencho Piryov's Contribution to the Development of Comparative Education

In the same period Gencho Piryov (1901–2001) was the author with the biggest number of comparative education publications consisting of over 35 articles and 2 books. His multi-faceted comparative education work could be divided into the following parts:

1) Systematic research of education in other countries.

2) Comparative analyses of various educational problems.

3) Books with comparative education values. Piryov's *New Education in the New World* (1933) was a real apology of pedagogical theory and education practice in the USA. In *Entire Education* (1941) he examined in a comparative perspective the varieties of the idea of entire education and their practical applications in some countries.

4) Consideration of Comparative Education as a modern science that had already been established in the USA and some Western European countries. Actually, Gencho Piryov was the first one in Bulgaria who introduced the term 'Comparative Education' and spoke about it as a distinguished science. Piryov strongly advocated that Comparative Education should be developed in Bulgaria and wrote a special article 'Comparative Pedagogy and School Building' published in 1936 on this issue. He observed:

Nowadays, when some more advanced and richer countries make great sacrifices in order to solve the big educational problems experimentally, we cannot help but take a look at their achievements so that it would not be necessary to start everything from the beginning. It is important only to treat with certain reasonable critical attitude the heritage we receive and to be able to adjust this heritage to our own needs. (Piryov, 1936, p.316).

Other Comparativists of that Time

In the period 1919–1944 there was comparative education activity on a large scale. Over fifty Bulgarian authors published various comparative education materials. Among them, the following had a more significant contribution to the development of the field: Dimitar Katarov (from 1922 till 1944 he edited a journal, called *Free Upbringing* that was one of the most active editions in publishing materials on foreign pedagogical theories and education practices), Veliko Yordanov, Efrem Beldedov, Asen Bosev, Zoya Stavrova, Ekaterina Zlatoustova, Ilarion Markov, Ekaterina Breyanova, Grigor Penchov.

Characteristics of Comparative Education in 1919–1944

1) The analytical character of comparative education studies was much stronger than in the previous period.

2) Much attention was paid to the historical, economic, cultural and social conditions determining the development of educational systems.

3) Interdisciplinary approaches (psychological, historical, sociological, statistical, etc.) to considering educational phenomena were often used.

4) Both horizontal and vertical comparisons were done. The latter were done more rarely.

5) Comparative Education was introduced and developed as a university discipline. It also began to be considered as a science needed for our academic life, school practice, education policy making.

6) On the basis of all these characteristics, it can be concluded that in the period 1919–1944, and especially in the second half of the 1920s and the 1930s, Comparative Education in Bulgaria was established as a differentiated science.

Bulgarian Comparative Education in 1944–1989

During the communist regime in Bulgaria in 1944–1989 the development of Comparative Education was strongly dependent on the Soviet influence, Marxist-Leninist ideology, and the idea of building a communist society.

In the 1962–1963 academic year, Nayden Chakarov began reading a lecture course on Comparative Education to students from Sofia University in Education programs. Although it was not the first academic course in Bulgaria considering foreign education in a comparative perspective, it was the first one entitled 'Comparative Education'. That course continued to exist in the 1970s and 1980s.

In the early 1980s some new trends appeared: the collapse of ideological monism; a deeper understanding of education in Western countries; and the establishment of reliable approaches to comparative studies.

Two important books were published during that period: *Problems of Comparative Pedagogy* (1969) by Nayden Chakarov, and *Comparative Pedagogy* (1986) by Nayden Chakarov and Georgi Bishkov.

Problems of Comparative Pedagogy was the first Bulgarian book in the field. It was also one of the first books on Comparative Education published in the socialist countries. Nayden Chakarov tried to discuss in detail the basic problems of Comparative Pedagogy from a dialectical-materialistic point of view.

Comparative Pedagogy was the second book in this field in Bulgaria. Its authors Nayden Chakarov and Georgi Bishkov tried to make an extensive and deep analysis of all aspects of Comparative Pedagogy and of some educational systems. The main role of the book was to serve students in Education programs.

Bulgarian Comparative Education from 1989 up to the Present

Overview

In the autumn of 1989 the communist regime in Bulgaria collapsed catalyzing society-wide changes. Democracy and market economy were re-established in the country. The following characteristics of Bulgarian Comparative Education from 1989 up to now could be pointed out:

1) Comparative educators regained the freedom in defining what, why and how to study. At the same time, possibilities of conducting comparative education studies were constrained by limited finances.

2) Much better conditions for expanding academic and research contacts with countries from all over the world were established.

- 3) The academic mobility of Bulgarian lecturers and researchers was widened.
- 4) Comparative Education was introduced as a discipline in many university teacher training programs.
- 5) In 1991 the Bulgarian Comparative Education Society (BCES) was founded. In 1992 the BCES became a member of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES). Since its foundation the BCES has been a small but a very active society keeping close contacts with the WCCES Secretariat and other member societies.

Recent Books

The third Bulgarian book in the field, entitled *Comparative Education*, by Georgi Bishkov and Nikolay Popov, was published in 1994. This book is the first one in Bulgaria, which systematically, impartially and without any prejudices examines the historical, methodological and practical aspects of the science. The book consists of three parts: 1) History of Comparative Education; 2) Theory, methodology and methods in Comparative Education; and 3) Description and comparison of educational systems worldwide. The second revised edition of *Comparative Education* appeared in 1999. In 2007, a third edition was underway.

Another book examining, describing and comparing 20 educational systems in Europe (Popov & Bishkov, 1997) was published. Two other books examined and applied the world comparison as a main methodological model of comparative study appeared as results of Nikolay Popov's work in the field: *Primary Education: Comparison of Structural Aspects in 90 Countries* (Popov, 2001); and *The World Comparison: A Challenge to Comparative Education* (Popov, 2002). Also, a detailed comparison of ABC books in nine Slavonic countries was done by Nikolay Popov and Marinela Mihova (Popov & Mihova, 2003).

In 2007, Popov and Pironkova published *The Education System in Bulgaria*. While the book is strongly grounded on the national context giving a thorough discussion of contemporary Bulgarian education, it also examines the Bulgarian education system in a comparative context together with many other national education systems worldwide.

Current State of Comparative Education as a University Discipline

Comparative Education has had a 100-year history as a university discipline in Bulgaria. Peter Noykov created the academic grounds in the early 1900s and Christo Negentzov pioneered the Comparative Education lecture courses in the mid-1920s. Later on, the tradition was followed by Nayden Chakarov in the 1960s and Georgi Bishkov in the 1980s. Since the early 1990s it has been continued by Nikolay Popov.

At the time of writing, Comparative Education was included among the compulsory academic disciplines in curricula of most education programs at Bulgarian universities. Comparative Education was studied in its 'traditional' contents containing 3 parts: history; theory, methodology and methods; and description and comparison of educational systems.

Conclusion

Bulgarian Comparative Education has to meet the following main challenges:

1. as a university discipline – not only to offer deep knowledge on foreign education systems to students but to teach them how to do comparisons;

2. as a problem-solving tool – to observe, describe and analyze as much as possible the active education reform processes and their results around the world, to compare them to our own needs, efforts, achievements and mistakes, and to offer solutions;
3. as a research field – to assist carrying out theoretical and empirical studies in all aspects of the field, and to look for new research instruments; and
4. as an activity supporting education policy making – having in mind that Bulgaria is a member state of the European Union, to help Bulgaria in its efforts to harmonize its education with the other EU member states.

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Professor Dr. Dr.habil. Nikolay Popov
Sofia University
Bulgaria
e-mail: npopov.bces@mail.bg

History of Comparative Education in Croatia

Sofija Vrcelj

Summary

The paper analyzes the development and contemporary state of Comparative Education as a scientific and educational discipline in Croatian faculties. Despite the fact that Comparative Education was included in faculty programs relatively late, students in Croatia did get information on foreign school systems; this contact was a result of professors' education in foreign countries, especially in Germany.

After World War II, as in most countries, there was a demand for the implementation of Comparative Education courses in faculties that were oriented towards the education of pedagogists and teachers. After the initial courses, other contents of Comparative Education had started to intensify. Comparative Education is today taught in all faculties in Croatia that educate teachers at pregraduate level. As an academic discipline it does not exist at the postgraduate level of master's and doctorate degree studies.

The Beginnings of (Comparative) Pedagogy during the 19th and Early 20th Centuries

Despite the fact that Comparative Pedagogy as a pedagogical and academic discipline in Croatia is relatively young, a great number of institutions that educated teachers held courses similar in contents to those of modern Comparative Pedagogy. Strivings and needs of learning from and with others derived from a need of forming specific educational activities based on the model of the best European schools. The whole 19th century is characterized by the investment of significant efforts for the spread of education on the model of developed countries. Croatian pedagogical theory was greatly influenced by the German cultural-pedagogical society which resulted in having many Croatian pedagogists educated in Germany and Austria. They transferred their knowledge to the institutions for teachers' education which were made into faculties after World War II, and which later held Comparative Pedagogy courses as an academic discipline.

One of the first teachers of pedagogy was Stjepan Novotny (1833 - 1867) in Zagreb. He is the author of the first general pedagogy textbook which was printed in Vienna in 1867 and one of the publishers and editors of the *Napredak* journal that was created in 1859. This journal has been responsible for the development of Croatian pedagogical theory, as well as for the development of psychology, philosophy and sociology. This journal is still published today, dealing with current themes from the world.

After the establishment of Mudroslovni Fakultet in Zagreb (today known as the Faculty of Philosophy) in 1876/77, students who wanted to obtain a doctorate degree or become teachers in high schools had to go through the course of pedagogical theory and take part in 'pedagogical exercises'. Franjo Marković held a first public lecture on pedagogy at Mudroslovni Fakultet on 23rd October 1876, and from this date on, pedagogy became established as an academic discipline. The establishment of the so called 'second chair' for theoretical and practical philosophy in 1893, and the

separation of pedagogy and philosophy, marked the start of the formation of the independent, continuous pedagogy lectures.

In 1893, Đuro Arnold was named an associate professor of pedagogy. Arnold received his education in Zagreb and was further educated in Berlin, Göttingen and Paris. He held the first pedagogy lecture on 'pedagogice generalis' in 1895. This year is considered as the establishment for the Department of Pedagogy at the Mudroslovni Fakultet in Zagreb. In 1896 he became the first full pedagogy professor. After Arnold's retirement, the work on the pedagogical seminar was taken up by Stjepan Matičević (1880-1940). This professor studied philosophy and classical philology in Zagreb and Vienna. By using his European experience from the field of pedagogy, Matičević contributed to the complete independence of pedagogy into an individual scientific and academic field in Croatia.

The activity of Albert Bazala (1887-1947) in the Department of Pedagogy is also worth mentioning. By implementing the course of Modern Pedagogical Trends, he set grounds for the development of Comparative Pedagogy in the Zagreb faculty.

Franjo Mandić-Higy (1877-1940) also gave his contribution to the development of pedagogical theory and practice. His work *The School System of the United States of North America* is important for the development of Comparative Pedagogy.

By working on the development of pedagogical theory, and by trying to introduce foreign experience, Stjepan Pataki (1905-1953), a professor of pedagogy, philosophy and mathematics, gave significant contribution to the development of (future) Comparative Pedagogy. With the publication of his work, *Soviet School* (1934), Pataki pointed to the significance of knowing experiences of other countries.

The tendency of learning from the experience of other countries on many educational questions and problems was an activity of high priority of many cultural and educational associations. One of the oldest associations in Croatia is 'Hrvatski Pedagoško – Književni Zbor' (HPKZ), founded 1871 in Zagreb. A significant activity of this association was the popularization of foreign country experiences. Besides the *Napredak* journal, which is still being published, this association assisted in the editing of the *Hrvatski Učiteljski Dom* (Croatian teachers' center) journal, which dealt with the news from foreign countries on problems of teachers' situations and other organizational questions of school systems.

Comparative Pedagogy after World War II

After World War II, many countries, including Croatia, saw the need for the recognition of different cultures and educational systems with the belief that education can become an instrument of peace. Because of that, contents of Comparative Pedagogy were intensified through introductory courses. Initiating courses were oriented towards school system organization, economic progress and educational democratization. In the observation of foreign experience, the main criterion was the need for borrowing ready solutions connected to school systems reform in former Yugoslavia, of which Croatia was a federative unit until its independence in 1991. After the war, the most accentuated influence was that of a Soviet pedagogy that lasted until 1948. Until that time, many works of different Soviet authors were translated, but there was also a striving for the implementation of practical solutions to the school system in Yugoslavia (Croatia). In the era of school reform from 1954 to 1958, connections with other countries were intensified. Even though the *Suvremena Škola*

(Contemporary School) journal, that had articles on foreign school systems, was first to publish an account of history, subject and methods of Comparative Pedagogy, and *Revija Školstva i Prosvjetne Dokumentacije* (The Review of School System and Educational Documentation) journal had papers on school systems and educational policy conditions in other countries, scientific comparison did not exist. The knowledge of foreign school systems was classified under so called 'foreign pedagogy'.

Scientists soon saw the need for the comparison of school systems and other educational problems such as school system management, organization and teachers' education. Therefore, in 1960/61 Comparative Pedagogy lectures were conducted in Zagreb. We can set this year as the establishment of Comparative Pedagogy as an academic discipline. As far as other cities are concerned, Rijeka started in the year of 1974/75. Zadar introduced in the academic year of 1960/61 an optional course on Modern Pedagogical Problems, which had some contents from Comparative Pedagogy, and in the year of 1975/76, pedagogy students had a course on History of Pedagogy with Comparative Pedagogy. Comparative Pedagogy was introduced the next year and it still has an academic discipline status in all universities.

In the afterwar period the most significant comparativist in former Yugoslavia was Dragutin Franković who first started lectures on Comparative Pedagogy. In 1972 he wrote a script called *Comparative Pedagogy* in which he discussed the discipline's history, subject and methods, and offered a comparative overview of educational systems in some countries.

Despite the fact that she was working in Sarajevo on the development of Comparative Pedagogy and in other universities of former Yugoslavia, Darinka Mitrović¹, the author of *Moderni Tokovi Komparativne Pedagogije* (Modern Trends of Comparative Pedagogy), published in 1981, had a significant role. This book is a complete work on Comparative Pedagogy, and it was created after extensive observations of pedagogical theory and practice in the world and particularly on the basis of study trips to France, Great Britain and former Soviet Union. In her book, Mitrović dealt with the development of Comparative Pedagogy and its modern problems and the analysis of educational systems in France, Great Britain, USA and the Soviet Union.

In 1984, Dušan M. Savičević² published *Komparativno Proučavanje Odgoja i Obrazovanja – Teorijsko Metodološki Okvir* (Comparative Observation of Education – Theoretical Methodological Framework). In this study the author critically analyzes the development and modern state of theoretical and methodological orientations in comparative research (Comparative Pedagogy).

The problem of developmental tendencies in the education in the world is dealt by M. Nikolić in the study *Glavne Tendencije Razvoja Obrazovanja u Svijetu* (Main Tendencies of Educational Development in the World, 1984); the author analyzes changes in the educational contents that were made due to radical environmental

¹ Although Darinka Mitrović is not a Croatian pedagogist, her book influenced the development of Comparative Pedagogy in Croatia which was a part of Yugoslavia until 1991.

² Dušan M. Savičević worked in the territory of former Yugoslavia, which is why there is an overview of his work, one of the first holistic studies in the field of theoretical and methodological questions of Comparative Pedagogy.

changes, organizational changes in individual segments of education as well as changes in the structure of population that participates at different educational levels.

Nikola Potkonjak³, the author of *Kuda Ide Srednje Obrazovanje* (The Path of Secondary Education, 1989), analyzes some terminological problems and questions within the system of secondary education in the world; on the basis of comparison, the author deduces major trends of secondary education development taking into consideration functions, objectives and tasks of secondary education, analyzes structural changes in the system of secondary education as well as contextual changes and new means and methods in secondary education. After a theoretical analysis, the author gives a scheme of secondary education in specific countries, criterion of distribution being the level of development, especially ideology.

Besides dealing with the structure of school systems in the world, some authors explored other significant problems in Comparative Pedagogy. E. Šooš in *Demokratizacija Obrazovanja - Komparativna Kritička Analiza* (Democratization of Education – Comparative Critical Analysis, 1987) was oriented towards problems of education democratization by comparing conditions in the former Soviet Union and former Yugoslavia. In four mutually connected parts the author deals with specific aspects of education democratization in the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, perceiving democratization of education as a process and democracy as a result of the democratization process.

With the growing need of school system reform in Croatia or in specific segments of the school systems, there grows a need for knowing the world conditions. The study *Osnovna škola u svijetu – Komparativna Studija* (Elementary School in the world – Comparative Study), edited by Matijević (1991), came out as a result of a research project *Unutarnja Reforma Osnovne Škole i Priprema Mladih za 21. Stoljeće* (Internal Elementary School Reform and the Preparation of the Young for the 21st Century) within which the authors, on the basis of a case study and comparative analyses, gave an overview of elementary schools in 12 countries: Austria, Germany, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland, USA, Canada, Italy, England, the Netherlands, France and Soviet Union. Basic criterion for the selection of countries was the influence of pedagogical literature and experience of these countries on the pedagogical theory and practice in Croatia since the World War II period.

The study *Školstvo u Svijetu – Komparativna Analiza hrvatskog i europskog školstva* (School Systems in the World – Comparative Analysis of Croatian and European School Systems), edited by S. Antić (1993), was also a result of a research project *Komparativna Analiza Hrvatskog i Europskog (Svjetskog) Školstva* (Comparative Analysis of Croatian and European (World) School Systems). The book consists of two parts; the first part deals with a wider context of education in the world from a European developmental perspective as well as an overview of mutual elements of school systems in Europe. The other part analyzes school systems in thirteen European countries as well as the USA, Canada and Croatia. Criteria for the selection of countries were territorial proximity to Croatia, transitional countries, countries with long educational traditions (England and France) and Nordic countries.

³ N. Potkonjak also worked in the territory of former Yugoslavia.

Croatian authors mostly focused on public schooling and less on free and private schools. Milan Matijević, in the first and the second edition of the book *Alternativne Škole* (Alternative Schools, 1994 & 2001, after Croatian independence), for the first time analyzes crucial questions connected to school and pedagogical pluralism. In the study, the author deals with pedagogical concepts and schools of Célestin Freinet, Peter Peterson, Maria Montessori, and Rudolf Steiner. Besides comparative analysis of the structure of school systems, there are studies on specific aspects in some of the structural elements of education. For example, in the book *Ocjenjivanje u Osnovnoj Školi* (Evaluation in Elementary School), Matijević (2004) analyzed evaluation in the elementary school from a historical point of view in Croatian schooling, models of observation and evaluation in the world, and attitudes and opinions on evaluation of teachers and principles of elementary schools. School evaluation was placed in the context of curriculum theory, which means that all curriculum question were adjoining (objectives, strategies, methods and media), and the accent was put on evaluation as an important segment of class curricula.

Contemporary Situation

Since the establishment of Comparative Pedagogy as a scientific and an academic discipline in Croatia, contextual orientation included world trends, but also problems of high priority on a local level.

Since the academic year of 2005/06, the study in Croatia is adapted to studies in Europe, by demands of the Bologna Process to harmonize higher education. By Bologna Declaration, the study of Pedagogy is divided into two degrees: by finishing the first degree (undergraduate) a student gains the title Baccalaureate of Pedagogy. After finishing the next two years of degree study, the student gains the title Master of Pedagogy. Comparative Pedagogy is taught at teacher's colleges in Croatia, but with different time distribution, different amount of ECTS points and different status in undergraduate and graduate study.

Upon implementation of the higher education reform in Croatia in the academic year of 2005/06, the program of Comparative Pedagogy has been moved to the first year of study and has been divided into two parts: in the first semester students take Introduction to Comparative Pedagogy for 120 periods, and in the second semester they take Comparative Pedagogy for 150 periods, meaning that Comparative Pedagogy is represented by 270 periods per academic year.

Table 1: Status of Comparative Pedagogy at Faculties of Philosophy in Croatia, 2005/06

| College | Undergraduate study (semester) | Graduate study (semester) | ECTS points |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Faculty of Philosophy in Zagreb | | VII | 5 |
| Faculty of Philosophy in Rijeka | I and II | | 4 (in the first semester) and 5 (in the second semester) |
| Faculty of Philosophy in Zadar | | IX | 3 |

In Table 1 we can see that Comparative Pedagogy has a different status in Faculties of Philosophy across Croatia; it is realized in undergraduate and graduate studies as a

unique course. Comparative Pedagogy in Rijeka is divided into 2 mutually connected courses: Introduction to Comparative Pedagogy, which is realized in the first semester, and Comparative Pedagogy, which is realized in the second semester.

Despite the difference in ECTS points, the content is similar in all faculties – they are oriented towards:

- historical development of Comparative Pedagogy as a scientific discipline
- subject, methods and tasks of comparative research
- perspectives of comparative research
- globalization process and education (dimension and structures of educational systems with a special reference to the European Union)
- analyses of educational systems in developed countries
- cross-national comparative studies identifying trends, changes and processes in education.

For the time being, Comparative Pedagogy still does not exist as an academic discipline in postgraduate master's and doctoral studies.

Recent Book

The newest book in Croatian Comparative Pedagogy is that of Sofija Vrcelj *In Search for Identity - Comparative Pedagogy Perspective* (2005). This study is composed of ten interconnected chapters.

The first chapter deals with (pedagogical) comparison, comparative steps, and first comparative researches. The emphasis is on the fact that there is a tendency in Comparative Pedagogy to highlight only similarities or differences, and that this is not the full meaning of comparison. The second chapter deals with the historical context of Comparative Pedagogy. The third chapter deals with different approaches used to define Comparative Pedagogy. The dominant macro-research positivistic approach in Comparative Pedagogy is dealt with in chapter four. The fifth chapter analyzes the micro-research approach in Comparative Pedagogy; and what has been chosen as a most suitable topic for this research orientation is intercultural and multicultural education, individual schools, minority groups, and educational problems of those who fall in the term 'grass roots'. Theoretical bases of qualitative methodology (Idealism of W. Dilthey, Phenomenology of E. Husserl and Critical Philosophy of Frankfurt School) and qualitative methods are dealt with in chapter six. Qualitative research is defined by the research that puts emphasis on quality, on holistic understanding of researched phenomena, and it is characterized by non-violent, natural observation. It is highlighted that the basis for qualitative research is the use of non-reconstructed logic, in order to reach what is real – quality, meaning, context or picture of reality of what people really do, as opposed to what they say they do. The seventh chapter deals with culture and multiculturalism. Even though culture as such is primarily an issue of anthropology, cultural analysis from the perspective of Comparative Pedagogy is necessary in order to achieve understanding of educational systems and other educational problems in the cultural context in which they were developed and in which they function. Chapter eight deals with different theoretical and methodological problems confronting Comparative Pedagogy. The ninth chapter 'Re-Conceptualization of Comparative Pedagogy (Old Burdens and New Globalization Challenges)' analyzes consequences of globalization processes that present theoretical challenges for Comparative Pedagogy and impose the need for its re-conceptualization. Different governmental organizations

that include educational problems, on local and global level, in their programs (UNESCO, OECD, World Bank, European Union), and respective non-governmental organizations are dealt with in chapter ten.

Conclusion

Comparative Pedagogy in Croatia as a pedagogical discipline developed from pedagogy that started to be taught during the 19th century in Croatia. In developmental course, it followed, more or less, world trends – first it was under German influence, then under Soviet and Anglo-American influences. After its establishment as a pedagogical discipline, it was established as an academic discipline in teacher education faculties. Besides that, Comparative Pedagogy emerged as a field of scientific research projects. Contents changed with time, depending on specific difficulties in school systems on local and/or global levels that dictated high priority problems of teaching. Also, relevant conceptions of Comparative Pedagogy did not remain ‘sterile’, but always served as a support for educational policy. Taking into consideration globalization processes and changes in the field of education as well, Comparative Pedagogy in Croatia has yet to face many theoretical and methodological challenges.

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Dr.sc. Sofija Vrcelj, full professor
University of Rijeka
Faculty of Philosophy in Rijeka
Department of Pedagogy
Croatia
e-mail: svrcelj@ffri.hr

Comparative Education for Teachers in the Czech Republic: Aims, Models, Problems

Eliška Walterová

Motto: *To know differences means to understand the essence of phenomena.*
(J. A. Comenius)

The roots of interest in the education of other countries go far back in the history of Czech pedagogy. Situated in the heart of Europe, the cultural context of the country created favorable conditions for this predisposition. However ideological, political and social circumstances led to cultural discontinuity, changing aims, dominant topics and geopolitical orientations. After the political reversal in 1989, Comparative Education has become a vital component of Czech educational research, a starting point of educational reforms, and a subject in teacher training.

Historical Background of Comparative Education

Early traces of Czech Comparative Education can be found in the pre-scientific period when education was not the subject of a particular discipline. The ingenious view and activities of J. A. Comenius (1592-1651) were a forerunner of Comparative Education. His activities aimed toward school reform in Poland, Hungary, Sweden, England, the Netherlands, are considered an epistemological foundation of Czech Comparative Education. A later contribution to Comparative Education was represented by the journal *Slavonic Educator* (1872-1874) edited by Jan Mašek, a Czech teacher. The journal was probably the first international edition of Comparative Education studies published in various Slavic languages; it supported cultural and linguistic relationships.

Comparative Education as a field of research emerged and developed at the end of the 19th century, when systematic analyses of education systems abroad started to appear. For example, the *Czech Encyclopedia of Education* (1891-1909) contained 100 monographs on school systems from all continents.

The classic era of Comparative Education corresponds with the history of the democratic Czechoslovak Republic (1918-1938). Comparative Education was a research subject for a limited group of scholars publishing a comparative series (e.g. Kádner 1929-1938). Intensive international communication, study trips, exchanges and translations also supported applications of new educational ideas or theories from abroad, particularly from the USA. Comparative Education influenced experiments and inspired wider teacher movement toward educational reform; however Comparative Education was still not a discipline for teacher training.

Discontinuity and Restoration of Comparative Education

The hopeful development of Comparative Education was discontinued during World War II and stagnated from the 1950s though the 1980s during the period of 'socialist' education. Isolation from the world reduced activities and production in Comparative Education. Strong one-sided ideological and political orientation did not

permit an objective and transparent comparison. One-sided 'criticism of bourgeois education' and overestimation of Soviet education governed comparative research. Teacher training, reflecting the situation, did not involve Comparative Education as a teaching discipline. Only a few solitary scholars maintained significant contributions and brought information in a reduced series entitled *Education Abroad* (1974-91), and the series *Education in Socialist Countries* (1974-89) issued by the Institute for Information in Education.

A serious effort to overcome isolation, discontinuity and deficiency in Comparative Education started early after the 'Velvet Revolution' in 1989. Firstly the informative role of comparative education was emphasized and 'blank spots' were filled out. The strict shift to the West and an effort to reach a comparable education system with leading European and developed countries of the world influenced which countries were selected for comparison.

In 1992 the 8th World Congress of Comparative Education Societies held in Prague on the theme 'Education, Democracy and Development', confronted new challenges and opportunities for education in a global context. It positively impacted upon and inspired international contacts and participation in international projects, and stimulated development of Comparative Education as an academic discipline. Since the 1990s, Comparative Education became an organic component of Czech education sciences. The following streams were strengthened:

- Analyses of educational systems in developed countries; single studies or collections of studies were implicitly comparative.
- Cross-national comparative studies identified trends, changes and processes in education abroad and strategies of educational policy.
- Participation in international evaluation of students' achievement (IEA, OECD) enabled critical reflection of domestic education.
- Examination of fundamental global changes in education in the context of social change influenced a construction of consensual models corresponding to the country's accession to the European Union.

Comparative Education has been accepted as a principle or methodology of educational development. Comparison has been taken as a starting point for explaining new educational ideas, theories and paradigms.

Comparative Education in Teacher Training

Teacher education in the Czech Republic is provided by nine faculties of education and other specialized faculties of public universities (faculties of arts, humanities, natural sciences or sports). Teachers for technical and vocational subjects are also educated at universities of technology. The full teacher qualification is granted by a master's degree. Accredited programmes for teachers are not unified and Comparative Education is included in teacher study programmes differently. Substantial distinctions in structure and content of the discipline exist as discussed below.

The following part of the paper is based on a comparison of accredited teacher study programmes from seven faculties of education (Prague, Brno, Olomouc, Plzeň, Ústí, Liberec, České Budějovice), two faculties of arts (Prague, Brno) and the Czech University of Technology. Interviews with university teachers and students together with professional experiences of the author were also utilized.

Structural models of Comparative Education in teacher training vary from a separate discipline to selected topics spread out among different courses. Three main models are applied:

(1) Comparative education is a *separate compulsory discipline*. The model is common at faculties where teaching Education (Pedagogy) is a field of training. Comparative education could also be an optional course offered in models (2) or (3).

(2) Comparative education is a *compulsory component in the introductory course of General Education* mostly combined with the History of Education. This model is the most common.

(3) Comparative education represents *selected topics spread out among several courses* (eg. School Policy, European Studies, Methodology of Educational Research).

The aims of Comparative Education in every model are theoretical, methodological and practical. They support:

- upholding an international and intercultural, particularly European, dimension of education
- interpretation of progressive trends and changes in education or teacher profession
- awareness of the complexity of educational phenomena and the factors influencing education
- learning to analyze education systems and critically evaluate domestic education and educational policy in broader international context
- finding and processing relevant information from international sources
- appreciating and understanding the contribution of international organizations and associations to the global development and promotion of education.

Two main paradigms are applied in comparative education for teachers: systemic and constructive. The systemic approach (preferred in model 1) follows mostly the structure of comparative education as a discipline of educational sciences. It starts with an explanation of theoretical and methodological points, history, functions and concepts of comparative education. It concentrates on typology and description of educational systems abroad and the main indicators and trends at the macro-level. Additionally selected problems are examined, for example, literacy, equity or selectivity in education, curriculum development, teacher status, school legislation, and multiculturalism. By contrast, the constructivist approach dominates within model 3. It develops student's knowledge by focusing on selected issues, cases and examples of educational practices, making use of documents, materials and information collected at the micro-level of education. This approach is less theoretical and more experience-based supporting an eclectic synthesis useful for future teachers. Examples of topics include: school culture, family-school partnerships, school innovations, alternative schools, pupil's status in school, pastoral care, pupil's assessment, testing in schools, pupils attitudes toward school, problems of bullying or drug prevention, counseling, multiculturalism, and education of children from minorities or immigrant families.

Special attention has been given to the European dimension in education particularly to European values, European citizenship, the Lisbon strategy in education, and EU educational programmes, strategies, aims and principles of educational policy. Special courses of European studies for teachers besides comparative education are part of some study programmes.

Strengths, Weaknesses and Problems

In spite of discontinuities in its development, Czech comparative education now has a stronger position as a field of research and plays a significant role as a corrective for domestic education policy and an inspiration of innovations. The international dimension has also become an integral part of teacher training programmes. Translated titles by internationally well known authors as well as Czech versions of important international documents on education have been published. Also, original comparative monographs, studies and textbooks have been published by Czech authors (e.g. Průcha, 1992; Walterová, 1994, 1996; Ježková, 1996; Walterová & Ježková, 1997; Spilková, 1997; Váňová, 1998; Koucký, 1999; Rabušicová, 2002; Rýdl, 2003). The *Dictionary of Education* (Průcha, Walterová & Mareš, 1995) is based on comparative principles introducing new interpretations and concepts of education terminology. The *English-Czech Education Dictionary* (Mareš & Gavora, 1999) and the *Czech English Education Dictionary* (Průcha, 2005) help students overcome language problems.

However comparative education is still perceived more as a method or methodological principle than as a discipline. The academic status of Comparative Education is rather weak. Comparative education does not have a specialized institutional base or a core group of professionally trained staff. Research topics in comparative education have arisen mostly from key problems in national education. Comparative Education research has thus developed rather opportunistically.

The priorities of scientific discourse in Czech education are not focused on Comparative Education. Comparative research in education and literature concerning comparative education is rather marginal to other established educational disciplines, and there are no professorships in comparative education in the Czech Republic. Professional interest in comparative education is low and principally depends on the initiative of individuals who are duty-bound to other education disciplines and fields.

The development of comparative education as a discipline in teacher training is limited by several factors which relate to professionalization of the field and widening the foci for comparison. On the one hand, the absence of teacher trainers specialized in comparative education, the limited international experience of teacher students, and the passivity of teacher trainers in developing cross-border mobility are some constraints. On the other hand, Czech comparative education adopts a limited geopolitical and cultural focus of interest in the education systems in Europe, with preference for the large, developed countries and old EU members while neglecting the smaller and newer members/candidates. As for other continents, information and comparative studies on education systems usually focus on the USA and Japan, and not on developing regions.

Conclusion

Recently the Comparative Education Section of the Czech Pedagogical Society (CPS-CES) was revitalized through the support of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES) (Walterová, 2007). The section initiates activities for Czech comparativists and also develops inter-institutional projects for Faculties of Education in the country. The development of comparative education in teacher training as well as information exchange concerning international events and conferences of comparative education published on the web or in Czech journals seem to be a significant task for the CPS-CES. It is hoped that through the Comparative

Education Section's work, steps could be taken to advance the professionalization of comparative education in Czech academia.

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Assoc. Prof. Eliška Walterová, Ph.D.
Charles University, Faculty of Education
Institute for Educational Research and Development
Czech Section of Comparative Education
Prague, Czech Republic
e-mail: ewa@uvrv.pdf.cuni.cz

Comparative Education in Denmark

Thyge Winther-Jensen

Introduction: The Nordic Region

The Nordic region or the North is an umbrella term for the countries Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and the self-governing territories: the Faroe Islands, Greenland and the Åland Islands. Often the same meaning is associated also with the terms Scandinavia or the Scandinavian countries but locally these latter terms usually include only Denmark, Norway and Sweden. In non-Nordic languages, e. g. English, Scandinavia often includes also Iceland and Finland.

The borders of the region, however, have been changing during the times. The Latin name Scandinavia referred to an undefined island far up north, maybe the peninsula Scania in Sweden. Further up north was Thule which the Danish historian Saxo in the twelfth century in his monumental work *Gesta Danorum* (The deeds of the Danes) identified as Iceland (Friis-Jensen, 1981, 2005). The original meaning of the North was just an area up north which might also include big parts of the British Isles and parts of Russia.

The North with its present political-cultural content did not come into use until the eighteenth century. Influenced by the Enlightenment and the Romantic Movement, the concept of the North from the beginning of the nineteenth century was endowed with a specific ideological, cultural, and political meaning. Ancient Nordic history, the Saga literature, and especially the Nordic mythology were important elements in this new conception. As the modern nation states developed during the nineteenth century, the common Nordic heritage became an integral part of the national identity in all the Nordic countries.

The mutual feeling of cultural belonging among the Nordic countries has survived until today and after World War II it manifested itself in the establishment in 1952 of the Nordic Council and in 1971 of the Council of Nordic Ministers. No sovereignty was transferred to supranational authorities on the two occasions but the Nordic Council nevertheless developed into an important forum for Nordic politicians and resulted in e.g. the Nordic Pass Union (1952), a free labor market (1954), and in efforts to coordinate policies on health, education, and culture. The Council of Nordic Ministers prepares reports and recommendations for the Nordic Council.

But big power policy has always been a major threat to Nordic cohesion. As a consequence only Denmark, Iceland, and Norway are members of NATO, while Finland (because of Russia) and Sweden (relying on the other Nordic states as buffer states) claimed neutrality. Also the attitude to the EU has split the region, as Denmark became a member in 1973, Sweden and Finland in 1995, but so far Norway, Iceland and the self-governing territories, the Faroe Islands and Greenland, have chosen to stay outside.

A certain feeling of mutual belonging to the inside – mirrored for example in a common understanding of the Nordic version of the modern welfare state – and combined with differences in relations to the world outside (mainly because of

differences in the geographic position of the states) are ‘forces and factors’ that strongly formed the region as a whole and still do.

The same inside-outside interest is mirrored in the literature on Comparative Education. The bulk of comparisons are within the Nordic countries but combined with a considerable amount of curiosity and openness to the world outside the region. Comparative Education as an academic discipline, however, is mainly a post-World War II phenomenon. A Nordic Society of International and Comparative Education (NOCIES) was founded in 1992¹. A year later the Society published the book *Vi og de andre* (We and the others) describing the histories of comparative education in Denmark, Finland and Norway (Harbo & Winther-Jensen, 1993).

Historical Periods in Danish Comparative Education

Although Comparative Education in a Danish context is not described as an academic discipline until 1960, the literature nevertheless demonstrates a deep interest in what is going on in the other Nordic countries and in other parts of the world as well.

Corresponding to the international stage of Comparative Education often called ‘Travellers tales’, the Danish literature on education exhibits a large number of travel books. Good examples are Frederik Ingerslev’s book *Om det lærde Skolevæsens Tilstand i nogle Tydske Stater og i Frankrig* (On the state of the grammar school system in some German states and in France, 1841). Unlike many other travel books, Ingerslev’s report directly influenced school policy as it was taken for basis of a new organization of the Danish grammar school system in 1850. At the time Ingerslev went to Prussia, N.F.S. Grundtvig (the founder of the folk high school movement) visited England. His encounter with the English college culture strongly influenced his own proposal for a Danish folk high school. (Grundtvig, 1991).

The military defeat to Prussia in 1864 might explain why the interest in the highly praised Prussian school system was limited to the latter half of the nineteenth century. The attention was concentrated instead on other countries like France (education of girls), Switzerland (democracy), and the United States (Priemé, 1991). In 1887 and 1893, Kirstine Frederiksen visited the United States. Out of her visit came a number of articles and books. One of them, *Anskuelsesundervisning* (Visual instruction, 1896a), resulted in the introduction of visual instruction in a municipality in Copenhagen but was later made obligatory for the whole country by the so-called *Sthyr’ske circular* of 1900. However, from a contemporary and comparative point of view, her most interesting work was a minor book called *Amerikanske undervisningseksperimenter* (American teaching experiments, 1896b). It provides the reader with a fresh and short first-hand impression of the progressive ideas which at that time were developing in the United States.

The first female Danish Master of Science in physics, Hanna Adler, wanted to establish her own school, common to boys and girls, but first she wanted to experience it in practice. From her own means she visited the United States in 1892-93. On her return she founded a so-called *fællesskole* (a school common to boys and girls), at

¹ Presidents of NOCIES: Thyge Winther-Jensen 1992-1996, Ingrid Markussen 1996-2000, Elisabeth Buk-Berge 2000-2007, Mina O’Dowd 2007-.

Sortedamsdossieringen in Copenhagen. She brought with her several pupil-friendly ideas. Because of her popularity and her strong personality, the Nazis did not dare to arrest her during their occupation of Denmark 1940-45, although she was a Jew (Priemé, 1991).

Worth mentioning from this period is also Carl Johan Fogh's book, *Et par Ord om Friskolen i Amerika og den danske Folkeskole* (Some words on the Free School in the United States and the Danish primary and lower secondary school, 1854). He emphasized the secular supervision, the ban on corporal punishment, school democracy, early teaching in mathematics and science, and special subject rooms in the American schools (Priemé, 1991). Common to all the works from this period is that there is 'something to learn' and to borrow from education of other countries.

Michael Sadler's publication *How far can we learn anything of practical value from the study of foreign systems of education?* (1900) inaugurated a new period in Comparative Education. The aim changed from borrowing to 'better understand[ing] one's own system' and the methodological approach became more historical-philosophical. The same trend is visible in Danish educational writings. Three works should be mentioned from this period. J. Paludan's work on *Det højere Skolevæsen i Danmark, Norge og Sverrig. En sammenlignende historisk fremstilling* (The grammar school system in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. A comparative historical representation, 1885). The book is today regarded as a classic.

Another worthy representative for the period is Niels Bang's book, *Opdragelse og Undervisning i det 19. Århundrede* (Education and teaching in the nineteenth century, 1921). It depicts the development of educational ideas and school systems during the nineteenth century in a number of European countries, including the Nordic. It provides the reader with a good-humored picture of the connection between educational idea and the practical shaping of school systems, discussing, among others, themes like 'the comprehensive school', 'moral education in the French schools', 'American experiments', 'woodwork', 'gymnastics', 'sports', and English 'scout movements'.

In 1933 Johannes Novrup sent out a publication called *Amerika konstruerer* (America constructs). The book is an introduction to the differences between European and American frames of mind and at the same time, the first thorough introduction in Danish to American progressivism and John Dewey's educational thinking. It was the product of a one year stay of study in the United States and is characterized partly by the author's fascination of American entrepreneurship and partly by a European reluctance to 'Americanism'.

The international transformation of Comparative Education into a 'scientific' discipline in the 1960s, which might be mentioned as a third period in the development of Comparative Education, coincided with the establishment of the first Danish chair in educational theory in 1955 at the University of Copenhagen. The holder of the chair, K. Grue-Sørensen, visited a conference in London in 1961 on which occasion also the *Comparative Education Society in Europe (CESE)* was established. On his return he published the article 'What is Comparative Education?' (1965) which might be considered as the first attempt in Danish to outline the area as a scientific discipline.

The next step was to present to the Danish audience a number of writers associated with the area. This was achieved through the journal *Pædagogik* which was published during the years 1971-78 with senior lecturer K. D. Wagner as editor. In many ways, themes of a comparative nature that were taken up in the journal, e.g. East European/socialist education and education in the Third World, mirror the interests of

the decade. Apart from that, interest was taken in the other Nordic countries and in the presentation of well-known comparative scholars of international reputation, e.g. Brian Holmes, Nigel Grant, and Edmund J. King, who were all contributors to the journal. The journal contributed essentially to the opening of the Danish educational audience to the world outside, especially the English speaking countries.

In 1973 the first Danish textbook in Comparative Education was published. The author of the book was Christian Glenstrup who described the development of the discipline, internationally and nationally, research methods, and some major ongoing research projects, such as the IEA project.

It was also a comparative point of view which was aimed at in the festschrift *Pædagogiske problemer i komparativ belysning* (Educational problems comparatively illuminated) to celebrate K. Grue-Sørensen's 70th birthday in 1974. Among the contributors were Brian Holmes, Nigel Grant and Torstein Harbo (Goldbach et al., 1974).

Institutionalization at Danish Universities

Up to 1981, Comparative Education was part of the course plan at the University of Copenhagen. From 1981-85, it was out, but in 1985 it was included again but only as a so-called 'dimension', i.e. as a student obligation to include a comparative point of view in their theses. Since 1989 it has been a regular part of the course plan at both undergraduate and graduate level.

In 1994, the University of Copenhagen hosted the 16th CESE conference. Several papers from the conference were published in the book *Challenges to European education. Cultural Values, national identities and global responsibilities* (Winther-Jensen, 1996).

At the Danish University of Education (established in 2000), a Unit of International and Comparative Education was set up in 2001 and in 2002 Thyge Winther-Jensen, head of the unit, was given the first Danish professorship in Comparative Education (Harbo, 2004). Members of the unit organized a Master's course in Comparative Education which is still being offered to students at the Department of Educational Sociology. Two PhDs in Comparative Education were awarded. In 2005, Susanne Wiborg defended her thesis *Uddannelse og social samhörighed: Udviklingen af enhedsskoler i Skandinavien, Tyskland og England* (Education and social cohesion: The development of comprehensive schools in Scandinavia, Germany and England). And in 2007 Jesper Eckhardt Larsen defended his thesis *Ikke af brød alene: Argumenter for humaniora og universitetet i Norge, Danmark, Tyskland og de Forenede Stater* (Not of bread alone: Arguments for the humanities and the university in Norway, Denmark, Germany, and the United States). The two theses are outstanding for being the latest Danish examples of works consciously using the comparative method in their analysis of the educational problems in question. Their approaches are mainly historical-theoretical.

In June 2004 the University hosted the 21st CESE conference with unit members as members of the local organizing committee. In 2006, a number of papers from the conference were published in the book *Identity, education and citizenship. Multiple interrelations* (Sprogøe & Winther-Jensen, 2006).

Thyge Winther-Jensen published in 2004 the second Danish textbook on Comparative Education, *Komparativ pædagogik. Faglig tradition og global udfordring*

(Comparative Education. Scientific tradition and global challenge). On his retirement a festschrift, *Education across borders. Comparative studies*, was published (Buk-Berge et al. 2004).

In December 2005, the Unit of International and Comparative Education was transformed into a research programme on Comparative Educational Policy.

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Prof. Dr. Thyge Winther-Jensen
School of Education
University of Aarhus
Denmark
e-mail: twj@dpu.dk

Comparative Education in Finland

Reijo Raivola

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The Past

Systematic attention was paid to Comparative Education in Finland only as late as the 1950s. Of course there had been a long tradition in becoming acquainted with foreign systems of education before that. We could say, for instance, that the work of Mikael Agricola, the founder of the written Finnish language in the 16th century, was based on the focal idea of Comparative Education: getting to know foreign cultures and applying this knowledge to the benefit of one's own country. Cultural history is always educational history, too – and the other way round (Raivola, 1984).

C. Wrangler, the founder of the society of Pro Fide et Christianismo (1771), studied the educational conditions in Prussia and America. At the same time H.G. Porthan, 'Praeceptor Fennicae', toured Prussia and Scotland making observations on the content and methodology of teaching. He learned that knowing the country and its people thoroughly was a necessary condition for planning education anywhere. He was also convinced that schools were necessary: enlightenment, industriousness and morality were the offspring of public education (Halila, 1949).

O.H. Gripenberg gathered information about Salzman's school in Gotha and about Pestalozzi's work at Yverdon (1810). The impressions of the visit were very clearly seen in the establishment of the normal school in Hameenlinna in 1812. Bell-Lancaster (monitor) schools were adopted in Finland as early as in the 1820s due to study visits to England (Paivansalo, 1954).

Uno Cygnaeus, the father of the Finnish state school, was a typical nineteenth century explorer, who was thoroughly acquainted with foreign school systems and tried to apply his experiences selectively to the emerging national system of education. His preparation for his career was exactly what George Bereday demanded from a practitioner of Comparative Education. He acted for five years as a priest on the island of Sitka in Alaska, where he gained a good knowledge of foreign languages (Russian, English, French, German). As a teacher he also experienced practical work from inside the school system. Later on he organized several schools in St. Petersburg and while working in them as a teacher, he went into pedagogical writing, especially on philanthropic thinking and the ideas of Pestalozzi and Diesterweg (Lilius, 1950, pp.112-115).

So it is no wonder that he was given the chance to organize the emerging Finnish system of primary education by the Grand Duchy of Finland. As a part of the task, he had to get acquainted with the state of art in education first in Finland and then in some selected countries. During his trip, which started in 1858, Cygnaeus wrote frequent letters home after having seen interesting phenomena. He critically arranged nations in order on grounds of the level of education. He emphasized especially the key aspect of teacher education: "I did not intend to gather information about what was remarkable concerning education but I soon realized that I was completely right in my

preconceived opinion about the dilapidation of the Swedish public school. There was a lot to learn from the Swedes for the organization of our future public school – that is their mistakes” (Cygnaeus, 1910, p.66).

Cygnaeus questioned the statement in a way that entitles him to the title of the father of Comparative Education in Finland – besides his honorary name as a father of the Finnish elementary school (folkskola). In his words, “...it is not the folk school in a certain country I wanted for the Finnish people, but to provide our people and our country with the results of science from all countries now when the time has come, however late, to arrange our folk school” (Cygnaeus, 1910, p.392).

Like his contemporaries, Cygnaeus was a pragmatist who saw what he wanted to see and found what he wanted to find. His observations were subjective and culture-biased. On the other hand, he mentioned in his letters that he also gathered statistical data to support his conclusions although he never published them.

Cygnaeus asked for teachers and administrators to be sent abroad to study foreign systems. The Senate decided to give eight educators the chance to spend a year studying foreign education. The newly established Finnish Society of Education received an 800 mark annual contribution for its journal on the condition that those who had enjoyed state scholarships were to publish their travel reports in the journal (Tidskrift, 1864, p.5). For instance, the only article in the first volume consisted of the travel report by J. Bergroth, H. Melander and C. Lindeqvist. It dealt with the organization, teaching, discipline and administration of Danish, German and Flemish secondary education. The report with its 232 pages gave a very detailed picture of syllabuses of different subjects, teacher salaries, evaluation practices, etc. Especially important was Melander's description of a girls' school in Berlin. (One must remember that at that time girls in Finland had no access to institutions of upper secondary education and thereafter to the university.) In the following years, travel reports made up the central content of the journal. Unfortunately the countries visited were usually the same: Sweden, Russia, Austria and Switzerland. By 1890, the travel reports had evolved from country descriptions to problem centered analyses, for instance: the education of girls (A. Ramsay) and integration of curricula (A. Sundholm) (Tidskrift 1866, 1887, 1890.) The reports (or the best of them) were not only testimonies of eye witnesses but also historical and analytical, ‘thick descriptions’ of the functioning of foreign cultures. J. Stromberg proposed that the reports should be written according to a prefixed plan. The common frame of reference for empirical observations is a precondition for intelligent comparison (cf. the Hansian idea of *tertium comparationis*).

Mikael Soininen (originally Johnsson), the developer and administrator (General Director of the National Board of Education) of the Finnish public education, is another representative of the Finnish history of Comparative Education. His doctoral thesis on schooling in the United States of America was one of the very first scientific-empirical descriptions of foreign education. Soininen had a cultural-anthropological approach in his study. He points out the special difficulties in the construction of American education, such as the flood of immigrants and the legacy of slavery (Johnsson, 1887, p.11)¹. The table of contents of his report reveals many issues of interest even for the

¹ Soininen is Johnsson. In the 1920s tens of thousands of Finns changed their Swedish Family names into Finnish ones.

modern researcher's administration of education (accompanied by many tables and figures), compulsory schooling, finance of education, national, racial and religious divisions in education, etc. The educational costs in the US are compared to those in Prussia. Soininen saw the poor condition of Indian and black minorities but he overestimated what education could do in this respect.

It seems that at the turn of the century, both the spiritual and political atmosphere and the economic conditions, caused by the oppressive regime of Czarist Russia, set limits to educational traveling. At least the number of travel reports decreased sharply. After the declaration of independence (1917) a new boom of travelers' tales did not take place until the beginning of the 1930s. Unfortunately the content and presentation of articles had not improved very much during 50 years. They were still without criticism, eulogistic and superficial. Seldom did researchers approach educational problems comparatively. One of them was Karl Bruhn, who in 1926 published *Bisarra essayer om upprostran* (Bizarre essays on education), in which he compared the emphasis on pupils' personality and activity in both eastern and western schools to the bureaucracy of Finnish schools. Another report of his *Uppfostran hos de nordiska nomaderna* (Upbringing at the Nordic nomads, 1935) took the theoretical point of view that there is a great similarity between the post-glacial European culture and the culture of present nomad tribes. So he comparatively analyzed the educative procedures of the Lapps and the Eskimos and accordingly tried to make retrospective conclusions about prehistoric education. It is interesting that at that time this study was criticized as being narrowly culture-historical and neglecting the methodologies of archeology and linguistics (Paivansalo, 1954, pp.137-139). (One has to bear in mind the present demand for interdisciplinary approaches to Comparative Education.)

But it was not until the 1950s when Comparative Education as a concept and a subfield of educational sciences was 'discovered'. Sampo Haahtela wrote in 1954 that, looking back, i.e. historical pedagogy, is not sufficient for the accumulation of pedagogical knowledge. One must look around oneself too. Researchers therefore have to develop methods of Comparative Education to find solutions to educational problems by taking advantage of experiences in other countries. Haahtela sees the functions of Comparative Education to be (1) in expanding and advancing educational knowledge in general, (2) in improving the understanding of national education, contextualizing it with development in other countries and (3) increasing mutual international understanding.

O.K. Kyostio (1955) traces back the factors which in different countries have led either to school-centered or to job-centered vocational education. He maintained that educational factors dividing and combining European countries are disclosed by comparative data and investigation. In *The Problems of Education in Finland from the Point of View of International Comparison* (1957), he presents the new subfield of educational sciences. He complains about the miscellaneous international terminology of education systems. He suggests that Comparative Education should have its own Linné to provide order of terms and concepts. He sees the birth of Comparative Education as an expression of the valid need caused by increasing international relations. The new field has many practical advantages.

Besides many theoretical and educative purposes, Comparative Education has several directly applicable uses. The solutions found abroad to the problems of teacher education, teaching methods or structures of education can give incentives for domestic reforms. Such a small country as Finland has no means to carry out extensive

experiments. Small countries can benefit most from Comparative Education. On one side it gives stimuli to theory building, on the other it contributes to understanding of the mutual relationship between theory and practice. Of course it must be emphasized that the realization of ideas or the adoption of an example cannot be carried out in a linear way: neither the uncritical enthusiasm nor the ungrounded condemnation of foreign ideas is acceptable. There will always be differences in national education, but they are not a nuisance of a researcher but the richness of life, which Comparative Education helps to enjoy (Kyostio, 1957, p.5).

About the same time as Kyostio, Annika Takala (1958) was looking for the methods and objectives of Comparative Education. She was one of the first to represent the point of view of social sciences to education. She admits that even intuitive comparison widens the educational horizon. But she proclaims herself a supporter of the scientific method: hypotheses, which the researcher tries to verify with data from multicultural settings, help to explain how social, economic and technological changes affect education. Kalevi Kajava has been the most assiduous describer of international education among Finnish researchers since the end of the 1950s. *Schooling in Western Europe* with the subtitle *Interaction between the society and the schools* (Kajava, 1960) was his first major publication. The foreword gives the impression that Kajava intended his report as a kind of a handbook for international educational traveling. Briefly he presents the great names of Comparative Education (Kandel, Hans, Schneider), but apart from that the field as a science is not specified. Nevertheless, the report is a typical product of the 1960s. Race and language questions, religion and the structure of economy are the factors which Kajava considers to influence education. He also examines the influence of humanism and socialism on the practice of education and the role which democracy and nationalism plays in modifying the structures of education. After describing the education systems of the target countries separately, he traces back the common trends in their development: prolongation of compulsory schooling, comprehensivization and democratization of the systems, differentiation of curricula, advances in counseling, extension of vocational and technical education, etc.

Despite the work of the pioneers, Comparative Education did not catch on the institutional level. Only a few (e.g., Alanen and Paivansalo) carried on the work in the 1970s.

Reasons for the Marginal Status of Comparative Education

Social sciences adopted the hard research methods of positivism in the 1960s. Those few interested in Comparative Education stuck to soft humanism and did not keep up with the methodological advances. It was suppressed by experimental and empirical measuring. It was not included in the programmes of education or teacher training. So, junior researchers were not introduced to Comparative Education. When the field along with the expansion of education and reforms of the education systems started afresh in Europe and in the USA after the war, Finland lacked the material and intellectual resources to specialize in Comparative Education. The shortage of resources continues to be the main obstacle to research, especially if one tries to fulfill G. Bereday's demands for a genuine comparativist. A lot of traveling, even living in a foreign country, is necessary to gather information. Knowledge of foreign languages is a must. Personal contacts with colleagues in other countries are more necessary than in other fields of education. Collecting and analyzing versatile material, which sheds light

on the cultural background of different systems, requires in fact scientific group work. Multi-disciplinary research projects are hard to organize and painstaking to carry out. Methodological problems frighten, and lack of prestige holds back attempts (Paivansalo, 1973; Altbach, 1979, p.x). Why take the trouble, if there are no offices or chairs in the country in which the expertise in Comparative Education is seen as an advantage! A sheer desire for knowledge is not enough in a period of credit earning.

The linguistic isolation of the Finns is an extra obstacle to a comparative research of cultures. Not even cooperation with Nordic countries is effective, although Swedish is the second national language in Finland. (Only six percent speak it as a mother tongue.) A language is the product of a culture, the content and expressions of a culture are reciprocally linguistic. Thus the command of a language is a necessary condition to step into a foreign culture. For instance, a comparative research on curricula is impossible without knowledge of foreign languages. Written curricula are very seldom translated into other languages, and implemented curricula are immeasurable without a thorough knowledge of the language spoken in the classroom. The language barrier is felt the other way round, too: Finland is seldom a target country for comparative research. If you look at international journals of Comparative Education, the Nordic representative in international comparison of educational systems was almost always Sweden, occasionally Denmark or Norway, very seldom Iceland or Finland.

Those who were personally interested in Comparative Education equaled it to international and foreign education (*Auslandspädagogik*) or to area studies (e.g., *Kajava*). Many coupled it with the history of education. The first textbook which clearly considered Comparative Education as an independent subfield of educational sciences and dealt with its history and methodology, was written as late as 1984 (Raivola, 1984).

The Present and the Future

Comparative Education continues to have a marginal position in Finland. Among over a hundred professorships for education and teacher training, there is only one professor in Comparative Education (coupled with the sociology of education). The field is taught somewhat more widely both as independent courses or, more often, as a part of introductory courses in education. In most programmes of education or teacher training, students have to read some textbooks on it.

Compared to the teaching of comparative and international education, the research activity has been more intense. Fortunately, experts in the history and sociology of education are interested in international education. Finland has participated from the beginning in the IEA studies. The Institute for Educational Research, affiliated to the University of Jyväskylä, has been responsible for organizing the collection of Finnish data. The University of Joensuu was a partner in a more recent IEA study on pre-primary education. The Research Unit for the Sociology of Education (University of Turku) is working on joint projects on European higher education.

Besides the abovementioned institutional connections, individual research is on the move on a wide scale, just to mention some projects:

- school textbooks in Finland and other countries
- the European Union as a trainer
- Herbartism in European setting
- culture-bound self-evaluation among Finnish and American teachers

- structures of Open Universities
- cognition, expertise and learning in networks: Finland, Japan and the US
- the problems of education in developing countries
- the history of teacher training in four countries: implications for professionalism
- private and public education in the Nordic countries and in the UK
- Jesuit education in different countries

Doctoral dissertations are very rare in spite of the increased activity. About 3-4 percent of all theses mentioned in the annual national register of educational research are located under the title of Comparative Education while less than two percent of publications actually deal with it.

In future, Comparative Education will be split, even more than now, into two parts. International education investigates the origin, structure and change of educational systems, their steering philosophy, teacher education, curricula, etc. In a shrinking world this will be increasingly important. Comparability and transferability of study programmes and degrees must be guaranteed to place moving students in suitable programmes and to make sure of the qualifications of the graduates. International experiences can be used as an experimental laboratory for national development plans.

This part of Comparative Education is purely empirical and practical. It is taken care of increasingly by governmental agencies (especially by the Ministry of Education and the General Board of Education) in collaboration with international organizations, like UNESCO, OECD, the World Bank and the Commission of European Communities. These form the gateway to major international projects, which academics can join as project researchers. For example the Finnish Ministry of Education gave some researchers the chance to participate in a 3-year OECD project on Higher Education and Employment. It also asked three research groups to write their extensive comments on EC memoranda on vocational, higher and continuing education. Finnish authorities are also eager to participate in country and thematic surveys organized by the OECD. Now the situation has strengthened dramatically, of course, because of the ongoing PISA surveys. Finland has proved to be a top, even the top performer in every round of PISA measurements. The country is now a destination for 'educational travelers' from every continent and the Finnish politicians and administrators try to make every advantage of the reputation.

Thus understood Comparative Education is a means of educational planning and administration. Politicians and administrators can use research expertise in this connection as best they like.

The other part of Comparative Education is the theoretical side, which connects educational phenomena with the context, looks for causes and effects and tries to understand the functions and pressures of the systems. It uses changing cultural contexts to elaborate relationships found in one culture. In this context, Comparative Education can be understood as a subfield of educational sciences or, as I prefer, as a general science integrating the ever specializing field of education. Thus understood Comparative Education is a multidisciplinary point of view of educational problems. In this respect an individual researcher can contribute to scientific knowledge, even without the support of 'the critical mass'.

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Prof. Dr. Reijo Raivola
Tampere University
Department of Education
Finland
e-mail: Reijo.Raivola@uta.fi

Considérations sur l'éducation comparée en France

Considerations about Comparative Education in France

Denis Poizat

This paper intends to describe the situation of Comparative Education in France since its birth during the nineteenth century. The trends of Comparative Education are devoted to different objects and are taking place in different academic spheres. The striking consideration is the very low impact of Comparative Education on students' curriculum, due to the structure of universities and institutes for teacher training.

The number of publications, studies and theses is quite small with respect to the total number of theses in education. Despite this situation, the role of Comparative Education is growing in public policies especially in the field of school system evaluation. However, the traditional focus on scholarly studies is shifting to such foci as economics of education or special education. Efforts to support Comparative Education are organized by different scientific organizations.

En éducation, la discipline comparative fut longtemps tenue pour marginale. On lui a reproché un statut épistémologique fragile, un problème d'échelle (micro, meso, macro), un hiatus entre éducation comparée et éducation internationale, telles sont quelques unes des fragilités auxquelles fut exposée la discipline. En outre, on a glosé ici sur l'approximation des méthodes et des postures (sociologique, historique, économique, pédagogique, etc.) et, là, sur son zèle quantitativiste quand il ne s'agissait pas de dénoncer la collusion des chercheurs avec le pouvoir lorsque des universitaires-experts se mettent au service des organisations internationales. Dans le même temps, d'aucuns ont considéré la discipline comme un lieu de militance, une sorte de chambre d'enregistrement des plaintes contre le nord jugé coupable de saigner un sud déjà exsangue.

On le constate, cet ensemble d'opinions souvent mal renseignées qui a eu cours dans la communauté de chercheurs en éducation nous place à distance du fondateur de la discipline, Marc Antoine Jullien de Paris. Mais ces oppositions, pour tranchantes qu'elles paraissent, ne reflètent pas l'état d'esprit qui anime la discipline comparative. Cet article sera moins une étude méthodique¹ telle qu'ont pu la conduire Groux et Paul (1999) qu'un regard personnel coulé par un comparatiste sur sa propre discipline.

Pour un lecteur connaissant peu le paysage de la recherche française en éducation, il convient d'indiquer d'abord que les sciences de l'éducation sont en elles-mêmes un jeune attelage de disciplines puisqu'elles ne furent instituées dans leur forme actuelle qu'en 1967. Elles n'ont d'ailleurs pas reçu l'imprimatur du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS) comme d'autres secteurs des sciences humaines même si elles ont en propre des institutions de recherche en éducation.

¹ Elle pourrait être accomplie à la suite des travaux de Jacky Beillerot.

Les lieux d'enseignement de l'éducation comparée

Généralement, les sciences de l'éducation ne sont enseignées qu'après deux années de cursus universitaire en sorte qu'un étudiant français risque de ne pas découvrir la comparaison en éducation avant sa troisième année d'études. La vingtaine de facultés, de départements ou d'Instituts de sciences de l'éducation² apportent donc tardivement la possibilité d'étudier la comparaison internationale dans la formation initiale des futurs éducateurs ou des futurs planificateurs de l'éducation.

Si l'on prend le cas des 31 Instituts Universitaires de Formation des Maîtres (IUFM), qui forment l'immense majorité des futurs enseignants du secteur public³, le problème est équivalent car on n'y accède qu'après trois années d'études. Au mieux, dans les facultés ou instituts de sciences de l'éducation, les étudiants y auront bénéficié de 21 heures d'enseignement en éducation comparée en troisième année. La réduction des effectifs dès le master première année, encore plus sensible au cours du master deuxième année, concerne donc une population d'éducateurs assez réduite et assez peu formée.

Par ailleurs, la plupart des dispositifs de formation universitaire laissent aux étudiants un relatif choix de leurs contenus, en sorte que si la discipline n'est pas obligatoire, le nombre d'étudiants qui ont bénéficié d'un tel enseignement s'en trouve réduit. Il est donc possible, en théorie, pour un étudiant en sciences de l'éducation de suivre tout ou partie de son cursus sans qu'il reçoive une seule heure d'enseignement en comparaison internationale. Cependant, cela reste heureusement théorique car généralement, les étudiants s'inscrivent volontairement dans ce type d'enseignement. Le succès de la discipline tient essentiellement à l'intérêt des cours en eux-mêmes bien qu'un cours consacré à la mesure de PISA⁴ ait moins de succès qu'un cours sur les dispositifs éducatifs de défense des minorités culturelles dans le monde. Ainsi, la situation de l'enseignement de l'éducation comparée est donc tout à fait dépendante des lieux de formation en éducation, des préoccupations des chercheurs et des effets de mode.

La difficulté à mettre sur la voie de la comparaison internationale les étudiants a inmanquablement des conséquences sur le nombre de thèses de doctorat au cours desquelles s'accomplissent les travaux de recherche et d'où l'on peut espérer tirer un vivier de spécialistes pour enseigner à l'université ou participer aux travaux des organisations internationales privées ou publiques.

Thèses soutenues en éducation comparée

Quand 10% des thèses recensées sur Proquest⁵ concernent l'éducation dans le monde, en France, par rapport au nombre de thèses soutenues chaque année (43000 en 2005), à peine 1% concernent l'éducation. La part de l'éducation comparée est donc, en valeur absolue, extrêmement mince. Nous avons de plus des difficultés à identifier les

² Vingt-deux, en réalité, si l'on compte les territoires d'outre mer

³ Les enseignants du secteur privé essentiellement confessionnel catholique, sont soumis à un régime équivalent sur les formations délivrées aux enseignants.

⁴ Programme for International Student Assessment

⁵ Base de données académiques, research network, <http://www.proquest.com/>

thèses réellement comparatistes, les systèmes d'information disponibles pour les thèses renseignent insuffisamment la qualification des travaux dans ce domaine. L'interrogation de la base de données Cyber thèse⁶, TEL⁷ ou Proquest donne des résultats, comme l'avaient déjà remarqué Groux et Paul (1999), assez décevants. A titre d'exemple, on trouvera dans l'annexe quelques travaux de doctorat récents. Le nombre de thèses de doctorat de troisième cycle soutenues étant assez faible en éducation comparée, il l'est encore plus si l'on en écarte les monographies rangées parmi les études comparatives.

La situation française est préoccupante dès lors que l'on considère le nombre des thèses soutenues, mais l'on constate néanmoins que l'augmentation de thèses en éducation en cotutelle a entraîné *de facto* une dimension comparative, généralement terme à terme, entre différents contextes. D'autre part, l'internationalisation des références théoriques et des études de cas rend plus rare le recours à une dimension uniquement française. L'on peut, bien entendu, regretter que ne soient pas soutenues davantage de thèses spécifiques en éducation comparée mais l'on doit considérer néanmoins que la dimension comparatiste s'est largement répandue dans des travaux de haut niveau sans vocation comparatiste particulière.

La présence d'organisations internationales sur le territoire français et le recours aux travaux internationaux par les responsables politiques français nous conduisent à observer les institutions spécifiques au comparatisme en France.

Organisations spécifiques au comparatisme en éducation

Hormis les lieux traditionnels d'enseignement et de recherche en Education comparée, la France accueille des institutions internationales comme l'Institut International de planification de l'éducation, l'UNESCO, l'OCDE ainsi que diverses institutions de la francophonie mais ces organisations ne doivent pas, à l'exception du Centre International d'Etudes Pédagogiques, être considérées comme françaises.

Le monde politique français est en général assez soucieux de se doter des outils de comparaison internationale. Le Sénat et la Chambre des députés publient régulièrement des études comparatives, dont certaines ont trait à des problématiques éducatives. Par exemple, la question dite « du voile » qui agite, il y a quelques années encore, la société française fut l'occasion de commander des rapports législatifs comparatifs. D'autres institutions de recherche, telles que l'Institut de Recherche sur le Développement, ont développé depuis quelques années des perspectives intéressantes en éducation, avec un accent mis sur les pays en développement. Il peut se trouver parmi celles-ci des travaux monographiques et d'autres, en revanche, qui s'intéressent à des régions ou sous-régions. Tel est le cas de certains travaux conduits sur l'école coranique en Afrique sub-saharienne. Voyons maintenant quelques organisations ayant développé une compétence générale en éducation comparée.

Depuis sa création en 1972, l'IREDU⁸ est devenu l'un des pôles majeurs de recherche française en économie de l'éducation. Ses postures scientifiques, orientées vers la sociologie et l'économie de l'éducation, se sont ouvertes, entre autres, aux

⁶ Base de données de thèses en ligne, <http://www.cybertheses.org/>

⁷ Serveur de thèses multidisciplinaires, <http://tel.archives-ouvertes.fr/>

⁸ Institut de Recherche sur l'Education: Sociologie et Economie de l'Education.

questions liant éducation et développement. Certains des chercheurs de l'IREDU sont depuis longtemps très impliqués dans ce type de recherche.

Née en 1973, la plus ancienne des associations d'éducation comparée française, l'Association Francophone d'Education Comparée (AFEC), s'est ouverte à l'ensemble du monde francophone, ce qui lui a donné une audience plus large. Elle a organisé plusieurs dizaines de congrès thématiques et publié nombre d'actes de colloques et de rapports. Ses liens avec le Conseil Mondial des associations d'éducation comparée se sont renforcés dans les dernières années au point que la présence francophone dans les instances mondiales de la comparaison a été grandement améliorée. La nouvelle revue *Raison-comparaisons-Educations*, née en 2007, figure parmi les nouvelles revues françaises de comparaison internationale en éducation. Elle est née à l'initiative de l'AFDECE⁹, autre importante association francophone d'éducation comparée, qui organise chaque année diverses manifestations scientifiques. Une collection d'ouvrages publiée chez l'Harmattan accompagne les différentes activités de cette association.

Mais il est difficile de rendre compte de l'éclatement de la discipline comparative dans différentes sphères de la recherche, en sorte que la situation française semble se situer dans une évolution visible dans les publications en éducation.

Un entre deux

Dans une étude sur la recherche française en sciences de l'éducation à travers ses revues, Jeannin et Bouthors (2006) ont mis en évidence que seuls 2% des articles parus dans des revues à comité pouvaient appartenir au domaine de l'éducation comparée. Cela paraît en effet bien peu en regard des productions de plus de 400 enseignants chercheurs en sciences de l'éducation en France et d'un corpus d'un peu plus de 800 articles observés. Il est cependant difficile de faire un état de la recherche de cette discipline en fonction des critères de publications. Le problème posé à l'éducation comparée est celui, plus largement, des critères de scientificité des publications en sciences de l'éducation. Les systèmes de référencement et les diverses veilles scientifiques oscillent entre 55 revues scientifiques françaises en éducation et 224. Les auteurs, s'appuyant sur des travaux préalables de scientométrie et de recensement des publications scientifiques en éducation¹⁰ ont stabilisé un échantillon très large de 169 revues.

Sur un peu plus de 45 revues françaises centrales spécialisées en éducation (à l'exception des revues de vulgarisation) seul un petit nombre d'entre elles se situent dans un entre deux. En consacrant généralement une place importante à la situation française, elles concèdent aussi une rubrique internationale et comparative au sein de chaque numéro. Certaines publications ont ainsi adopté une posture semi-comparative. Tel est le cas, par exemple, de l'Association Internationale de Sociologues de Langue Française qui édite la revue *Education et sociétés* chez De Boeck. La revue *Reliance*, par exemple, propose depuis plusieurs années une série d'articles en comparaison internationale sur le handicap et l'éducation. Semblable posture se retrouve dans la revue *Carrefours de l'éducation* ou la *Revue française de pédagogie*.

⁹ Association Française d'Education Comparée et des échanges, née en 1998

¹⁰ Notamment sur ceux de Jacky Beillerot et de Marie Duru Bellat

L'APRIEF¹¹ organise régulièrement une Biennale de l'éducation et de la formation. Ces importantes manifestations sont le lieu de confrontation et de diffusion de l'innovation en éducation et présentent des travaux comparatistes. Le CERSE¹², à travers sa revue *Les sciences de l'éducation pour l'ère nouvelle* s'est ouvert à des problématiques internationales en éducation également. Le Centre International d'Etudes pédagogiques de Sèvres édite *La revue internationale de l'éducation*. Ses perspectives sont essentiellement celles du monde scolaire et de ses liens avec la société.

Pour conclure

Nous avons tenu sous silence les références théoriques en cours en éducation comparée en France. L'éclatement de la discipline dans des postures scientifiques distinctes ayant en objet l'éducation: anthropologie, économie, sociologie, etc. oblige à un éclatement symétrique des références théoriques. Il est donc extrêmement difficile de distinguer des paradigmes dominants, il faudrait pour cela mettre en place un protocole d'observation *ad hoc*.

A lire ces impressions, le lecteur aura peut être la sensation que la discipline comparative en France ne se porte pas très bien. Les critères de sélection des conférences aux grands congrès d'éducation comparée montrent bien que la part traditionnelle de la comparaison, telle qu'elle pourrait être décrite dans les travaux de John Stuart Mill ou de Jullien de Paris, sont aujourd'hui dispersés dans des protocoles disciplinaires spécialisés. Mais plutôt que de craindre la dilution, plutôt que de se draper dans un conservatisme nécosant, il faut se réjouir que la dimension comparatiste se soit répandue au sein d'autres sphères scientifiques. Il se peut que la discipline, dans cette ouverture, ne soit pas la gardienne de la méthode mais de l'esprit de la comparaison, seule dimension, après tout, qu'il importe de perpétuer.

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Denis Poizat, Doctorat de Lettres et Sciences Humaines
Université Lumière Lyon 2
Maître de conférences à l'Institut des sciences et pratiques d'éducation et de formation
86, rue Pasteur
69365 Lyon cedex 07
e-mail: Denis.Poizat@univ-lyon2.fr

Comparative Education as a Field of Teaching in German Universities

Dietmar Waterkamp

The scholarly field of Comparative Education can be traced back in German universities to more than a hundred years. Traditionally, it was closely interconnected with the field of Foundations of Education or Philosophy of Education, which in Germany is called 'General Education' (*Allgemeine Pädagogik*) which until now is the fundamental and leading discipline within the diversified academic field of education. Up to today Comparative Education in Germany is nearly exclusively to be found in university schools of education thus being interwoven into the internal faculty politics in these schools and the internal politics in the overall scholarly society for educationists in Germany: the German Society for Education (*Deutsche Gesellschaft für Erziehungswissenschaft*). Within this society comparativists form a Commission of their own which is called: Commission for International and Comparative Education (*Kommission Internationale und Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft*) and together with interculturalists they form a common Section in this Society which is named: Section for International and Intercultural Comparative Education (*Sektion International und Interkulturell Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft*). Interculturalists within this Section form a Commission of their own which is called Commission for Intercultural Education (*Kommission Interkulturelle Bildung*) because their focus of interest is mainly on the international student body in German schools and other educational institutions (see Waterkamp, 2007).

Infrastructure at German Universities

Beginning in the 1960s Comparative Education reached a high degree of independence in university schools of education when professorships were established which were exclusively dedicated to International and Comparative Education. Also, some units for Comparative Education in university schools of Education or outside universities with loose university affiliations were founded. The 1960s through the 1980s were years of growth for Comparative Education in Germany due mainly to developments in the field of Intercultural Education which grew in the context of the demands of the young migrant population in Germany. In those decades German comparativists made their most substantial contributions to the international academic bodies such as the Comparative Education Society in Europe and the World Council of Comparative Education Societies.

Several developments in Europe and the world inspired an increase of interest in comparative studies in those decades. West German comparativists often looked to the Middle and East European states and analyzed recent events in the field of education. This was done with respect to East Germany and the inner-German comparison. Self-descriptions published by authors in the communist states were regarded to be not reliable enough; therefore a steady reporting from a Western standpoint seemed to be necessary. East German comparativists too had a strong interest in observing education politics in West Germany and in overlooking the main developments in the West and the East from their viewpoint. The two communities of comparativists had only weak

mutual contacts, yet reacted to the same international developments. Those included the rise of the then so-called Third World countries and the increasing international aid programs in education from the side of international bodies such as the UNESCO and the World Bank, and also from the side of national agencies such as the West German Society for Technical Co-operation (*Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit*). It also refers to the process of European unification.

The decline of the communist empire, the political re-organization of the Middle and Eastern European states and the German unification did inspire Comparative Education research studies in Germany, but only for a few years. During the 1990s the position of Comparative Education in German universities weakened. Only the international students achievements studies, especially those conducted under the direction of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, named PISA (Program for International Student Assessment), managed in the beginning of the 21st century to attract public and political attention to the field of Comparative Education at universities. The units for Comparative Education either disappeared or substantially diminished their capacities for Comparative Education research and some university chairs for Comparative Education in the schools of education were re-dedicated for other fields of educational interest when professors retired.

Despite a certain loss in organizational strength, Comparative Education in Germany made some substantial theoretical progress since the nineties. This is mainly due to the fact that the two groups of academics who for nearly thirty years pursued different perspectives on international educational research began to co-operate more intensely, especially within the above mentioned Commission for International and Comparative Education. These were on the one hand the comparativists who used to focus their attention on the industrialized countries and, on the other hand, the Third World-related researchers who assembled their efforts under the idea of development. This fresh demand for co-operation allowed for widening the scope of international comparative research in education into a world perspective. Theories of the world system as a constituent power in educational politics in all countries, ideas of global learning, One World approaches, concepts of the world society and even the revitalization of the notion of humankind were started, discussed and more or less substantiated by research.

Comparative Education in German University Programs

No student in Germany is enrolled in a program named Comparative Education. Comparative Education runs among other disciplines such as philosophy of education, history of education, didactics or pedagogy of teaching, instructional science, educational psychology, educational sociology, educational research methodology, and sometimes also social work, adult education, vocational education, intercultural education, early childhood education, media education or special education.

Traditionally German study programs in education do not follow a fixed list of seminars and lectures but are organized from semester to semester, which means that in each semester the teachers offer a fresh set of seminars and lectures. Sometimes seminar and lecture topics are resumed after three or four semesters, while others are designed anew. The study program specifies the overall number of contact hours for the compulsory, obligatory and optional courses, as well as the number of papers to be delivered during the whole program. Students are not obliged to take a fixed number of

contact hours each semester; they may decide to lower or raise their load of hours in one semester and to compensate in one of the following semesters.

By this a professor of Comparative Education cannot identify students of Comparative Education but only those who, among their electives, concentrate on Comparative Education and more often than others attend the comparative seminars and lectures. In most programs the choice of the discipline for writing the final thesis is free and most professors wish to gain students for electing their specific discipline as the field for the final thesis. This is important also for gaining students as future Ph.D. students.

Comparative Education in Teacher Training Programs

In former years teacher training programs were the backbones of the schools of education in Germany. This is true although teacher students are not enrolled in the schools of education (except for those preparing for primary school teaching), but in the schools which teach their future teaching subjects. The amount of hours which future teachers shall spend in the schools of education differs from state to state in Germany. Some states such as Bavaria and Saxony still adhere to the traditional mode to require only a minimum amount of seminars and lectures in education for future teachers. These states rely mainly on the second cycle in teacher training which takes place in specific institutions under the rule of the government departments for schools. They offer a two-year training program to accompany probationary teachers in their steps into teaching practice after they graduate from universities. Other states have augmented the number of obligatory hours in the university schools of education for future teachers because they feel that teachers must have a knowledge of educational theories before entering the second cycle.

In the programs for educational studies within the teacher training programs of the universities, Comparative Education competes with other disciplines such as philosophy of education, sociology of education and history of education for the attention of students. Some disciplines such as didactics and educational psychology have been made obligatory. Thus Comparative Education is not a necessary part in schools of education in teacher training programmes. In some states future teachers are allowed to write their final thesis in an educational discipline, while other states require the future school subjects as regular fields for accomplishing a final thesis. In general Comparative Education has a weak foothold in teacher training programs. Only in those states which have advanced their demands for educational studies in teacher training is Comparative Education regarded as a valuable option among the specialties of education. Teacher training programs at universities end with a state examination. University faculty only assists the state supervisors with this examination. This is why states exert their influence on the study programs in teacher training and do not leave them to the decision-making in the universities.

Comparative Education in Full-time University Programs

In the decades of growth from the 1960s to the 1980s most university schools of education started full-time educational study programs. Two different types exist. One is the Magister program, the other the Diploma program. Both are university-based and do not fall under state control. In some schools of education only one of them exists, in others both of them. Diploma programs aim at specific professional knowledge and

competence. They exist, for example, in the fields of social work, which in Germany is part of some schools of education, in adult education, in vocational education as a supplementary option for students in the vocational teacher training program, and in early childhood education. Based on foundation studies in education they are centered on the professional specialty and comprise a half year internship. In addition two small minor subjects have to be taken, mostly psychology and sociology. The Diploma examination is not state-supervised.

The Magister program is more academic and originally was aimed at leading to doctoral studies. The whole program comprises twenty or thirty disciplines from several university schools out of which each student selects three disciplines, one of which is the major subject and two are the minors; sometimes two majors are also eligible. The Magister program offers a relatively broad range of choices within the register of seminars and lectures, and the students are free to form an individual profile. Depending on the chosen combination of subjects they shall identify professional career choices or establish their field of academic interest which they select for doctoral studies.

Comparative Education has got its best chances within the Magister programs (see Waterkamp, 2001 for the description of the Dresden example). In Diploma programs comparativists mostly offer their seminars and lectures as a choice within foundations of education. Seldom do Diploma students decide to write the Diploma thesis in the field of Comparative Education and if at all, the topic would be about international aspects of the Diploma specialty. Adult education and vocational education are specialties which have a rather good tradition of comparative studies, whereas social work is only beginning to set up an international focus, while comparative studies are seldom to be found in early childhood education. Students in the Magister programs may use their range of choices to opt for seminars and lectures in Comparative Education, especially when education is their major, and eventually write their Magister thesis on a theme of Comparative Education. Since students arrange their individual selection of seminars and lectures anew every semester, all disciplines within the school of education compete with each other to attract the interest of students.

The best chances for Comparative Education to attract students exist among the foreign students because many are interested in international themes. Yet, often the teachers must attend to these students' German language competences. The language proficiency of students plays an important role in Comparative Education. It is promising for the field to attract students who have one or two minors in languages. Students without language specialties tend to avoid reading much foreign literature. Professors of Comparative Education mostly serve in their seminars and lectures students of teacher training programs, of Diploma programs and Magister programs at the same time.

Due to the politics of the European Union, in the near future all these programs will cease and give room to new types of programs: Bachelor's and Master's programs. All three types of examination - state examinations, Diploma examinations and Magister examinations - will be eliminated. Universities in general and schools of education in particular differ much in terms of progressing towards this goal. Some schools of education have already accomplished one cycle of Bachelor's studies; others have not even designed any new program. This has to do with the differing levels of appraisal by which the state governments welcome the political innovation. Comparative Education

will have its best chances in Master's programs which are combined with postgraduate programs, while in Bachelor's programs Comparative Education might receive a fixed amount of credit points. As Bachelor's and Master's programs generally are composed of compulsory modules and are not easily to be changed, it seems important to demand for a good proportion of credit points. Bachelor's programs shall not lead to the teacher profession, but will form a first cycle upon which a Master's program for teacher training might be built and from which minor professional activities in the field of education might be approached. In Bachelor's programs of this kind Comparative Education will be part of foundations in education as has been the case in Diploma and Magister programs.

Master's programs might offer chances for more detailed and research-related studies in Comparative Education. The amount of comparative modules will depend on the character of the planned Master's program. There are Master's programs under construction which are professional in outlook and others which are more academically oriented. It is a question of negotiation in the schools of education and of making alliances between different disciplines to which degree Comparative Education will maintain its share in the program.

Since the new study programs will demand more teaching capacity than the traditional ones and as the teaching staff bodies in schools of education generally are shrinking, it might be expected that in the future Comparative Education has to be taught along with other educational disciplines. In the first half of the twentieth century professors in education who had an interest in international comparison were accustomed to also teach foundations of education, and sometimes also history of education, didactic, adult education or vocational education. There were not enough teachers to cover each discipline by one teacher, and specialization was not as detailed as it is today. Probably Comparative Education in Germany must go back to this arrangement because each individual teacher must be able to serve several parts of the curriculum. Obviously a merger of Comparative Education and Intercultural Education is under way and at least professors of Comparative Education in most cases started to teach Intercultural Education and conversely, at least some of the interculturalists adopt topics of Comparative Education for their teaching.

Curricula and Aims of Comparative Education Teaching in Universities

A common curriculum for teaching Comparative Education in German universities does not exist. Some attempts have been made to create such a curriculum, but without success. Several meetings of the above mentioned Commission have chosen this topic, yet they were limited to mutual information about how the field is presented at each of the universities. One attempt was undertaken by the correspondence university in Hagen which intended to combine the expertise of several professors of Comparative Education in Germany for a study program which would be delivered as a correspondence program into several universities. Yet unanimity on this project could not be reached.

Each professor who by appointment and by personal commitment teaches Comparative Education sets up the curriculum for this field within the study programs which the specific school of education delivers. The contents of these curricula depend on the goals of the study program and on the individual specialization of the professor. Specialization occurs in terms of geographical areas, e.g. Europe, Africa, Latin

America, North America, China, Russia, Japan, India and others. It also occurs in terms of educational institutions: schools, total education systems, adult education, vocational education and others. It also occurs in terms of methodology: testing and statistical methodology, qualitative methodology, historical thinking, and prevalence of sociological theories or of educational theories in close alignment with philosophy of education. Most professors try to broaden their scope in teaching Comparative Education in order to address a wide range of students, yet the specialization in research nevertheless influences the teaching.

A restriction exists on teaching Comparative Education by the fact that in the fortunate cases where a professorship for Comparative Education exists in a school of education there is only one professor. This is why the discipline of Comparative Education can seldom unfold its full possibilities. The co-operation among comparativists across universities remains an unfulfilled task, all the more because strong units with several researchers and several specialties no longer exist. Roughly it might be said that professorships for Comparative Education exist at 20 German universities. In most of these cases one or more younger fellows, researchers or sometimes even lecturers join the professor. Additionally there are certainly more than 10 researchers without the title of a professor who work on international topics in education at other institutes. If researchers who do comparative work in another educational discipline such as vocational education or adult education are counted, then the number of comparativists increases.

Textbooks

For a long time Comparative Education textbooks in Germany were non-existent; yet other publications were able to fulfill this role. Famous textbooks had been issued by pioneers of the discipline at the beginning of the 1960s such as Franz Hilker (1962) and Friedrich Schneider (1961) and also Fritz Seidenfaden (1966). A selection of articles from international scholars in the field was published in 1974 (Busch et al., 1974). A book on the methodology of Comparative Education appeared in 1975 (Röhrs, 1975) and this topic was resumed around two decades later in two books launched by Jürgen Schriewer in English (Schriewer & Holmes, 1992; Schriewer, 2000). A selection of writings by Saul B. Robinsohn who was a leading comparativist in the 1960s and 1970s, came out in 1992. The two volumes of the Festschrift for Wolfgang Mitter which appeared in the year 1997 gave rich insight into the state of the discipline (Kodron et al., 1997). With respect to Third World research in education, the memorial publication of Wolfgang Karcher, edited by Bernd Overwien, served a similar purpose (Overwien, 2000). Only recently two publications were aimed specifically at students in this field. In 2004 Christina Allemann-Ghionda issued an Introduction to Comparative Education for beginner students and in 2006, Dietmar Waterkamp followed with a textbook which addresses students at a somewhat advanced level. Probably the re-organization of the study programs in education will bring about new student-oriented publications.

Conclusion

The field of Comparative Education in Germany has a long and intertwined history with the educational disciplines. This is reflected in its scholarly society and its place in academic programs at universities. The current realignment of the German Higher

Education system with the rest of the European Union poses new opportunities and challenges to comparative scholars. It is hoped that the long historical roots of Comparative Education will bring forth new contributions not only within Germany but to the rest of the world.

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Prof. Dr. phil. habil. Dietmar Waterkamp
Professor of Comparative Education
Technische Universität Dresden
Germany
e-mail: dietmar.waterkamp@gmx.de

Comparative Education: The Case of Greece

Konstantinos Karras

The present study is based on two previous articles of the author (Karras, 2007a, 2007b). In addition, it gives emphasis on the 'roots' of Comparative Education in Greece, an interesting aspect for the Greek and international bibliography on the epistemology and methodology of Comparative Education in general.

Introduction

Studies on modern conceptualization on educational comparative *logos* (Kazamias, 2001; Kazamias, 2008, in press; Kazamias & Calogiannakis, 2003) propose that this *logos* could take into account some basic methodological and epistemological edifications of the key concepts dealing with ancient Greek *logos*: the method (technology/methodology - *the how it is*)¹, the history/inquiry (historiology - *the what it is*)², the knowledge/truth (epistemology/dialectology - *the reason, the whether it is*)³, the comparison (synkritology - *the relevance/comparison*)⁴.

Furthermore, it is proposed that this ancient *logos* can be offered as a general frame for contemporary comparative discourse in the sense that this kind of *logos*/discussion is very present as the analysis of *the what, the why, the whether, the how and the as to*. In this context it is evident that Comparative Education has to engage itself in reestablishing the very concept of comparison, placing it in the framework of ancient comparison (*synkrisis*) and dialectic reasoning concerning *the fact, the reason, the whether it is, the how it is*, and the significance, that is in an *inter/cross/multi* context (Calogiannakis, 1998a).

The 'Roots' of Comparative Education in Greece

The 'roots' of Comparative Education in Greece can be found especially in Crete, at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries. During this period the construction of the 'comparative educational paradigm' included different kinds of sources – in reality different comparative paradigms. *The traveling comparative paradigm* has a coincidental character, is based on personal approaches and is included in a wider cultural frame. Sources of this comparative example constitute the impressions of travelers mainly from Europe who visited Crete during the 17th to the 19th centuries and who compared the education and culture of Crete with their own countries, such as Dapper (1688), Tournefort (1700–1702), Sieber (1817), Pashley (1833–1834), and Loher (1877). *The political-legislative comparative paradigm* uses the comparative argument or counterargument and presents the tendencies in education in different countries. Sources of this comparative example are the discussions in the

¹ Plato. *Phaedrus*, 265d-277d.

² Thucydides. I.22.

³ Aristotle. *Nicomachean Ethics*, 1094a5.

⁴ Aristotle. *Prior Analytics*, 24a16-25a13, id., *Posterior Analytics*, 71a1-72b25, *Physics*, 187a31.

Parliament (e.g., on education in Cretan State, 1898–1913). The ‘trade-union’ comparative paradigm, which has a descriptive and informative character, uses a utilitarian comparative argument connected with educational policy and expresses mainly the opinions of teachers on educational policies. Sources for this comparative paradigm constitute the various educational magazines that circulated in the dawn of 20th century Crete.

In this framework we can say that the travel narrations/descriptions, the political-legislative arguments as well as the ‘trade-union’ information on foreign educational systems and activities, appear as pre-scientific comparative approaches to culture and education and give space for the growth of modern scientific comparative paradigms (Hourdakis, 2002; Calogiannakis, 2005a; Karras, 2007c).

Comparative Education as a Scientific Field of Study: An Overview

Comparative Education appeared in Greece at the beginning of the 20th century as a comparative analytical approach to the educational systems in other countries. Early writings focused on educational priorities and problems that characterized educational systems in Europe and elsewhere, attempting to formulate solutions and means for improvement. Works by important scholars in the field of education include A. Yiannaris (1908), P. Oikonomou (1903) and I. Perdikaris (1901), who also served as educational executives, were among the first to introduce the ‘comparative scientific paradigm’ in Greece.

Monographs dedicated to the field of Comparative Education appeared in the middle of the 20th century written by well known educators of the time, such as Petritis and Kitsos who served as directors of Greek Teacher Academies (Teachers Training Institutions). From the 1950s to the 1970s, marking the pre-scientific phase of Comparative Education in Greece, the *School and Living* journal in education (which is still circulating under the name of *The Science of Education*⁵) published a series of articles on various aspects of education in other countries. As works in Comparative Education these articles were incomplete, descriptive and speculative in nature. Over time works on Comparative Education evolved from mainly descriptive, unsystematic essays, often summarizing traveller’s observations, to more systematic and comprehensive studies authored by scholars from the field of Comparative Education and less from other educational disciplines. Articles on the science of Comparative Education appeared in the 1980s and 1990s (e.g. Eliou, 1982) along with several translations of French, Russian and German works in Comparative Education⁶.

In any case as a discipline, Comparative Education in Greece is developing at the university level especially after the publication of the Greek Studies in the 1980s and 1990s, with the title *Comparative Education* (Bouzakis, 2002, 2003, 2005). Consequently we have in Greece the progress of this scientific field with the establishment of the theoretical, scientific and methodological direction of Comparative Education as well as with the introduction of educational systems particularly from

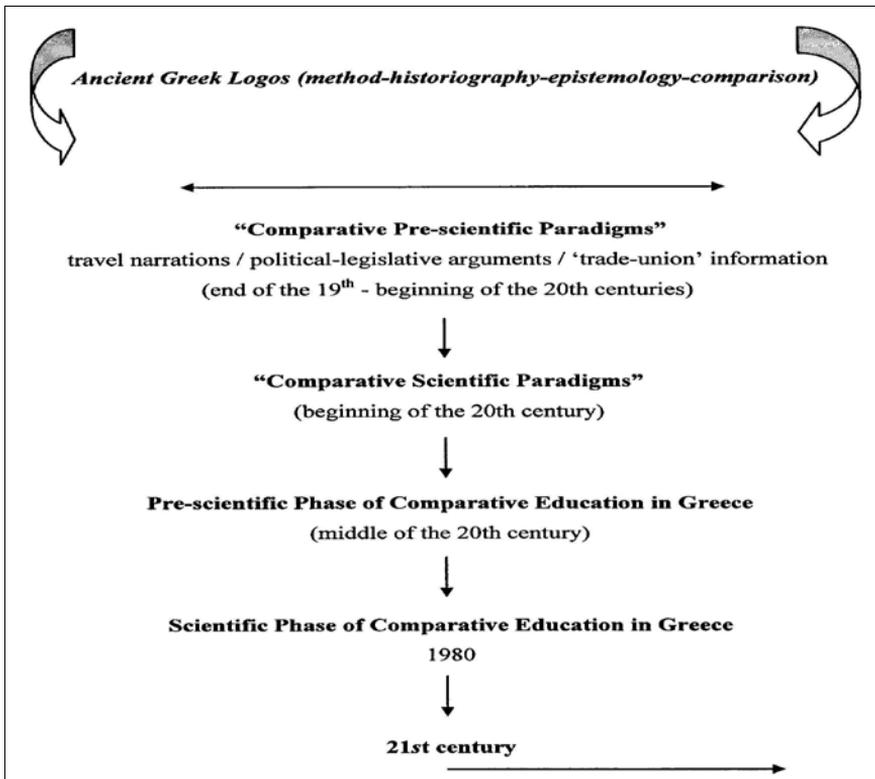
⁵ This journal is published today by the Department of Primary Education, Faculty of Education, University of Crete.

⁶ The announcement of the first scholarship by the National Scholarship Foundation appeared in 1982.

Europe. The field matured within Greek higher education institutions with original works written in Greek in the late 1980s, presenting all the key theoretical and methodological facets of the science of Comparative Education, often reviewing European educational systems. The founding of the Greek Comparative Education Society (GCES) in 1991 constitutes an important milestone in the development of the field of Comparative Education in Greece (see Mattheou, 2007 for a brief history of the GCES). The GCES publishes the *Comparative and International Education Review*, a scientific journal dealing with current issues in education in Greece and abroad.

The Greek interest in Comparative Education was furthered with the new publications and studies in the Greek language (Kazamias, 1990; Kazamias & Kassotakis, 1987; Bouzakis, 2002, 2003, 2005; Mattheou, 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Calogiannakis, 1998b, 1998c, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2005b; Calogiannakis & Makrakis, 1996; Karras, 2007d), along with the activation and operation of two very important Comparative Education Laboratories in the framework of the Departments of Education of the Universities of Patras and Athens. These were the Laboratory of the Historical Archives of the Modern Greek language and International Education under the direction of S. Bouzakis, and the Laboratory of Comparative Education under the direction of D. Mattheou. The latter is a specialized unit for teaching and research in comparative and international education, education policy and international relations in education.

In general, the ‘roots’ and the evolution of Comparative Education in Greece can be presented as follows:



Comparative Education as a University Discipline: The Case of Teacher Training Institutions

In the aftermath of the fall of the dictatorship in Greece (1974), the Hellenic Teacher's Association actively pursued, often through open demonstrations of its members, university level standard teacher education. The first University Departments for Teacher Education were founded in 1984 replacing the two-year Teacher's Colleges throughout the country. The new Departments aspired to establish a new role for teachers, that of the 'teacher-researcher' bearing a higher social standing and recognition. Along these lines teacher education curricula included from the very beginning seminars and practicums in addition to regular courses. Comparative Education was first taught as a separate course at the University of Crete by Andreas Kazamias, at the University of Ioannina by Maria Eliou, and in Cyprus by Panagiotis Persianis. The following years witnessed a progressive increase in the number of Comparative Education related courses offered to the future educators.

Comparative Education was first introduced as a core undergraduate course in the programs of study of Teacher Education Departments and was later made part of training programs for in-service teachers and educators. This trend paralleled the rapid growth of the science of education in these Departments. An important field in the science of education in its own right, Comparative Education was introduced into teacher preparation departments where it found a favorable environment among the other core courses in education. Assuming that pedagogical training will some time in the future become an integral part of the training of secondary education teachers, Comparative Education is expected to witness a similar growth within the Schools of Philosophy.

Currently, Comparative Education courses offered at Teacher's Education Departments in Greece cover the following topics:

- Methodology and Epistemology of Comparative Education
- Overview of the Early Historical Thinking
- The Founders of Comparative Education
- Current Trends in Comparative Education
- Educational Systems in Europe
- Global and European Dimensions of Education
- European Dimensions of Education: Special Issues
- Education Policy, Problems and Dilemmas
- Globalization, Continuing & Distance Learning Education (Teleconferencing).

The majority of Comparative Education courses focus on issues of method and epistemology, the founders of the field, and modern trends in education worldwide, with special emphasis on education in Europe and on the concept of globalization. A notable point concerns the absence of Comparative Education related courses in the degree plan of four (out of nine) Teacher Education Departments (in the Universities of Ioannina, Thessaloniki, Aegean, and Thessaly), although such courses are taught occasionally in other programs of study (e.g., Departments of Preschool Education, Special Education, and Departments of Philosophy, Pedagogy, Psychology and Social Studies, which are part of Schools of Philosophy).

It is widely known that the discipline of Comparative Education is considered to be an interdisciplinary field of science as far as its content, its themes, the epistemological and methodological perspectives, techniques and methods of research, and the ideology

on which the attempted comparisons are based. We note that the role of the course in *the European and International Perspective in Education* is of key importance for a substantial intervention and participation in the new social, political, economical and cultural world that is being formed in the new globalized society. According to a set of declarations of the European Union (24th May 1988), the fundamental role of education and training is considered to be decisive in the welfare of the citizens in Europe. Through globalization in education, modern societies are expected to deal with the chronic problems that concern: the availability of primary education to everybody, the need of post high-school education, the inability of governments to fund education and offer free education up to the university level to interested students, and the lack of linkages between the job market and the education of graduates to make them eligible for work.

It is a fact that Comparative Education remains, maybe permanently, as a scientific field in transition. In Greece and in many other countries worldwide as well, many terms and concepts are being questioned and educational perspectives redefined. These educational and societal challenges have led comparativists to reflect on and make new critical evaluations of contemporary challenges (redistribution of populations, rapid financial changes, important technological and scientific developments, the mass media and the international relations) in order to constantly reaffirm the importance of education internationally and domestically. New concepts such as 'Europeanization', 'globalization', 'multiculturalism', 'identity-diversity', 'domestic-international' have appeared. In this context, today's comparativist in education has to redefine and to set new frontiers to the subject and the units of the comparison and to define the comparative methods used.

Some fundamental questions that can be put forward are: In what way can we identify and compare educational facts and phenomena today? Which methods of comparison will be best? Which new facts constitute the basis of comparison and to which degree are they comparable? Which is the role of ethnocentrism as an analytical comparative category? What are the problems among different countries concerning the relationship of education-economy-culture? In what ways are the various interpretations of educational phenomena in the 21st century adopted?

It is true that the problem of the quality of education globally as well as the education and training of teachers is of critical importance. The need for an international perspective in education is as urgent today as never before. These concerns are of great importance to Comparative Education in Greece as they are considered to be critical in the education of the prospective teachers who must be familiar with these issues as they will have to be dealt with in their workplace.

Conclusion

In Greece the development of Comparative Education was determined by some basic factors such as the establishment of Comparative Education as undergraduate and graduate courses (elective and requisite), the presentation of doctoral theses by Greek students concerning Comparative Education, and the increasing interest in Comparative Education and especially education in other countries. Other factors were globalization, the foundation and operation of the GCES and the publication and circulation of the journal *Comparative and International Educational Review*, and especially the need for comparing 'ourselves' with the 'others' in a larger globalized setting.

In this perspective, research in the field of Comparative Education is re-evaluated taking into consideration the global societal and financial reforms. As a result, interest in comparison is constantly increasing, either with respect to the official educational policy of different countries or the statistics and facts of everyday educational problems and challenges. In this context issues relating to equal opportunities in education, development and educational planning as well as practices relating to teachers, their education, training and teaching are studied (Beauchamp, 2003; Karras, 2007e; Karras & Wolhuter, 2008, in press). There has been a lot of discussion on the decentralization of education in connection to privatization. In this light Comparative Education studies the 'new challenges' and the 'new examples' in education as those found and formalized in the present. They are usually related to the concepts of 'tradition' and 'change' in education, 'globalization' and 'globalized world', 'transition' and 'decentralization', 'cultural differences' and 'ideology', 'solidarity' and 'modernization' (Bray, 2003). Furthermore in the contemporary comparative educational discussion, there exist issues concerning a new 'humanitarian' approach for the educational phenomena and facts in the 21st century (Kazamias & Calogiannakis, 2003; Kazamias, 2001) as well as a cultural perspective and interpretation of the global educational process (Lê, 2001).

In the 21st century Comparative Education scientists have a duty to actively take part in the debate on the issues that ought to guide the modern science of education: globalization of all aspects of human activity, world-wide communication, diverse interdependencies, the contrast between local and global, understanding the world through the understanding of the 'other', participation in a democratic society, the struggle against discrimination and prejudice, the challenges of the new economy, crucial policy decisions, and reform and international co-operation. In this context, although Comparative Education researchers are faced with new challenges, they may also benefit from growing potentials.

Besides, the contemporary outlook of Comparative Education includes a number of topics that are common in Greece and abroad. These include: education systems across different countries, their structure, functions, and effectiveness, as well as processes and factors that affect education systems (globalization, European and universal dimensions in education, multiculturalism and civic training), promoting education reforms, exchanges within the international community and the broadening of school knowledge. The latter is accomplished through research on school curriculum and content across several countries rather than research on the school as a social institution in constant interaction with society.

Comparative Education attempts to revive the historical paradigm – historical-comparative-humanistic Comparative Education – that emphasizes human values and humanistic education (Kazamias, 2008, in press). We do believe that this kind of contemporary Comparative Education can contribute a lot to the formation and to the needs of the teacher of the 21st century.

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Dr. Konstantinos Karras
University of Crete, Greece
e-mail: kgkarras@edc.uoc.gr

The Role of Comparative Education in Hungary

Ildikó Holik

During the last decades, Hungarian education has gone through important changes and has had to face several new challenges. The directions taken by these changes in education were fundamentally influenced by expansion and globalization. Tendencies in the process of democratization and the need for lifelong learning and quality management are emerging, a market-oriented vision is coming forth in educational matters, and the society is expecting more and more from schools and teachers. As a consequence, educational institutions are becoming the object of comparison on local, national as well as international levels.

At the local level, the most important questions that arise are: Which is the appropriate school for the children? Where should parents inscribe them? The freedom of choice is increasing as educational institutions offer several alternatives to their clients and cater to the needs of the market.

At the national level, because of the expansion of schooling into several directions and its accessibility to the masses, a great emphasis is laid on comparing efficiency indices, thereby provoking rivalry between schools.

At the international level, comparisons of the educational system of different countries are undertaken so as to get acquainted with other systems and to adopt positive foreign education experiences and well-functioning innovations. Trends determined by foreign or regional cultures have a great impact on our lives. However, the questions that quite often arise are: How can we preserve our traditions, customs or personality? How can we change (if we need to change at all) our educational system? There is an increasing need to observe how other countries handle the particular problems of education in the 21st century, and to take into consideration other conceptions about what makes an effective school. Besides observing foreign school systems, we can also examine what methods and means other countries try to use to work out a more effective education, and in this way, strive to improve the quality of Hungarian education as well.

History of Comparative Education in Hungary

Initially, Comparative Education in Hungary used to serve for gathering international information. Three major periods are distinguished with respect to the appearance and development of this discipline (Kozma, 2006):

Preliminaries: the first half of the 20th century

Comparative Education is a relatively new branch of education sciences in Hungary. It cannot be considered as a separate discipline until World War II. In this preliminary stage, articles and studies treating foreign educational matters reflected theoretical pedagogical thinking rather than comparative and historical pedagogy. Comparative matters thus formed part of general pedagogy.

Evolution: the second half of the 20th century

Comparative Education, in the modern sense of the word, appeared in the scientific literature in Hungary after World War II. At this stage, the new discipline had a double role, having as an explicit aim the ideological battle against 'bourgeois education'. Nevertheless, an implicit aim was also present and consisted in giving a presentation of international trends in education. This period can be further subdivided as follows:

- *1945-1949: 'Discovery' of the Anglo-Saxon education sciences.* Before 1945, Hungarian education science was dominated by German pedagogy. After World War II, however, American scientific thinking took the upper hand. The period between 1945 and 1948 was one of getting acquainted with these new methods.
- *1949-1956: Adoption of Soviet pedagogy.* In 1949, under Soviet pressure the Communist Party in Hungary came into power. This drew along a shift from an international scope of research to one under Soviet influence. Soviet materials, textbooks and professional books were translated to Hungarian. If international education matters had been dealt with, they came from Soviet sources or were studied in accordance with Soviet principles. Former widening of the scope of research turned into an ideological battle.
- *1956-1989: 'Birth' of Hungarian Comparative Education.* A relative equilibrium between the ideological battle and information gathering on foreign pedagogies was established. As the political overturn of 1989-1990 was approaching, ideological overtones gradually disappeared from pedagogical works. In fact, it was this period, between 1956 and 1989, which saw the birth of actual Hungarian Comparative Education.

Catching up: the 1990s

With the political change of 1989-1990, the former ideological aim of Comparative Education ceased. In the spirit of democratization, several domains of education sciences were transformed and comparative studies gained an increasing significance (Illés, 1990). The study of international matters took new forms and they became more and more highlighted as Hungary got admitted into several international organizations (e.g. North Atlantic Treaty Organization-NATO, European Union). Building up international cooperation became a major part of education as well. Besides gathering information on foreign education systems, Hungarian Comparative Education had some specific tasks, such as examining pedagogical trends and education policies of neighboring countries so as to adjust education in Hungarian language to the reforms of education in the respective countries.

Recent Comparative Educational Research

Nowadays comparative educational research is carried out in two major fields.

- One of the major fields of comparative studies is *the theory and practice of teaching and education* (Kozma, 2006). It involves the presentation, elaboration and analysis of similarities and differences with respect to educational facts (Kovács, 1997). The researchers quite often have hands-on experience of the educational system of a given foreign country or are experts at a given topic (e.g. curriculum design, measuring and evaluation), and they disseminate this knowledge to the Hungarian public drawing parallels between foreign and Hungarian experience.

- The other field of pedagogical research is *education policy*, i.e. the system and management of education. Researchers give a thorough presentation of the educational system of different countries and they compare them to the Hungarian structure. These studies are vital preconditions to scientific prognosis and to education policy decision-making (Benedek, 1985; Ormándi, 2006).

There are several different approaches and points of view within the two major fields (Kozma, 2006):

- *Historical comparative studies*: Researchers describe pedagogical phenomena or educational systems in their social context, examining the changes throughout history and comparing the different historical stages. The most preferred issue of comparative studies is the establishment, development and future of different educational systems and policies.
- *System analyses*: Researchers compare different educational systems and structures.
- *Statistical comparative studies*: Research is carried out by gathering and comparing pedagogical statistics (e.g. learners' results and their background variables).
- *Cultural comparative studies*: These comparative studies deal with phenomena that cannot be grasped by statistics. Hands-on experience, school visits or other field investigations are interpreted by using methods and principles of cultural comparative research.

The Appearance of a 'European Dimension' in Hungarian Higher Education

Recent reforms in Hungarian higher education have been determined by the targets prescribed by European conformity (Szövényi, 2004). Hungary became a member of the European Union on 1st May 2004, and our adhesion not only expanded the sphere of tasks to carry out but brought forth the need for acting and thinking in a European context, and thus the appearance of new approaches and trends. These phenomena presuppose the presence of 'European dimensions' in determining the reforms in higher education.

One of the objectives of Hungarian education is to promote the mobility of students, teachers and academic partners, in the spirit of equal opportunities, in order to unify the common European Higher Education Area. Another goal is to initiate a cooperation based on comparable criteria and methods in the field of quality management, which claims its place as a system to guarantee that higher education becomes open, fulfilling the role of measuring performance on a common scale. This also involves the elaboration of criteria, methods and processes which make possible a comparison of the quality of different national higher education systems.

An additional task is to build on European dimensions in higher education, which in concrete terms means a common curriculum design, inter-institutional cooperation and integrated programs of learning. These concern graduate studies and research as well and contain elements of knowledge representing common values. The perspectives of higher education include the initiation of a transparent educational structure issuing comparable graduate and academic degrees, and the adoption of a common structural framework, which contributes to the mobility of a highly qualified workforce in the unified inner market.

Hungarian higher education has been restructured following the Bologna Process in the last years. This system is based on two cycles. The first cycle, which lasts at least three years, is a prerequisite for entering the second. After the first cycle, students get a bachelor's degree which is a qualification recognized by the European labor market. The second cycle awards a master's degree and may lead to a doctoral degree. In Hungary the Bologna system was first applied to those starting their university education in September 2006. Most of the master's programs have not attained accreditation yet.

The Role of Comparative Education in Hungarian Universities

There are no Departments of Comparative Education in Hungarian universities. However at the Departments of Educational Science, *research in comparative education* is going on and is gaining increasing importance as the necessity for considering educational facts and situations from an international point of view is growing.

Teaching Comparative Education has a highlighted role in the program of students majoring in pedagogy. In the new system, the basic program of the pedagogy major is divided into three parts. In the introductory stage of the program, students can participate in lectures and seminars in pedagogy, psychology, andragogy and philosophy. The core curriculum of the major contains theory and practice of the most important fields of pedagogy. The last stage of the program is specialization, during which students can choose optional seminars in a particular module. Specialized modules prepare students to become educational assistants, training assistants or research assistants. Comparative educational studies form part of the core curriculum.

Subjects in Comparative Education familiarize the students with the history of education in foreign countries, the structure of foreign educational systems, foreign educational economy and education policies. They get acquainted with the disciplinary framework, character, fields and methods of Comparative Education. Historical Comparative Education is also present in the list of courses. There are several subjects treating the issue of comparing global and regional programs.

Besides the strictly comparative subjects, comparative perspectives appear in many other seminars, especially in those on education policy, where examining educational matters on an international level largely contributes to better understanding. Seminars of Comparative Education make use of the most important works of Hungarian and foreign comparativists, as well as of the secondary literature describing foreign educational systems and international tendencies.

The teaching process reflects two different approaches to Comparative Education. The 'holistic' point of view treats the given problem globally; it is descriptive, lays emphasis on the common source of the described problems and phenomena and usually examines the whole educational system. The other approach, the 'systematic' one, deals with specific problems of different systems and focuses on examining specific phenomena (Bábosik & Kárpáti, 2002).

At the University of Debrecen, students examine economic, social and political aspects of education within the framework of comparative studies. They get acquainted with different interpretations of education and their international context, and with models of development determining current pedagogical practice and education policy-making. Considering worldwide political, economic and social trends as a challenge,

students observe what effect these factors have on the different layers of education (public education, vocational training, higher education, adult education). Searching for international parallelisms they focus on the 'European dimension'. In the course of their studies they get an overall view of the educational systems in European and other foreign countries, the structure of general and vocational training, and the main trends in the theory and practice of international comparative educational research. Within the framework of Comparative Education, students majoring in pedagogy may take the subjects Educational Systems and Economy, Educational Systems and Society and Euroharmonization in the 4th semester of the bachelor's program.

- The goal of the subject Educational Systems and Economy is to familiarize students with the economic context and background of education, with the help of related classical and recent articles and studies. Those taking the module will have an ample knowledge of the management and financing of the different layers in education, related international comparisons and homeland debates. This subject initiates the student into education demography, informs him of its subject-matter and its methods of investigation, namely of demographic processes and demographic policy. Taking into consideration these factors, students observe the impact of the increasing number of children on educational systems and how the planning body incorporates demographical data in education policy.
- The goal of the subject Educational Systems and Society is to familiarize students with the notions of educational sociology, as well as with the present state of social matters in education. This subject initiates the student into the social approach to education and higher education. It describes the school as a workplace with its official and hidden organizations, the conflicts within the institutions and their eventual sources and explanations, and gives insights on management theories. It examines the social context of schools (relationship of the school with parents, with the authorities and with the management), as well as the school as a part of the educational system, and gives a historical overview starting from the schools of small communities to state educational systems.
- The goal of the subject Euroharmonization is to familiarize students with the notions of comparative education policy, as well as with the present state of international matters in education policy. This subject deals with current issues of education policy from an international comparative perspective. It describes typically European educational systems and education policies concerning state education, higher education and out-of-school vocational training, and introduces the so-called 'actors' of education policy: teachers' and students' organizations and the labor market. At the end of the course, students examine some case studies of particular countries.

The University of Pécs also lays emphasis on courses in Comparative Education. They form part of the core curriculum of the bachelor's program of the pedagogy major.

At the University of Szeged, Comparative Education is taught to pedagogy major students from the 3rd to the 6th semester. Educational Systems and School Management, Organization and Management, Institution Assessment and Organization Development, are subjects offered to enlarge the scope of comparative studies.

In Budapest, at the University ELTE (Eötvös Loránd University), besides the bachelor's program in pedagogy, a master's program will be launched in September 2008. The core curriculum of the bachelor's program contains the field of Comparative Education, with related subjects taught from the 2nd to the 6th semester. The comparative subjects are: Intercultural Comparative Study of Concepts on Education and Children and of the Representation of the Man and the World; Comparative Study of Educational Systems; Comparative Study of the School's Inner World: Time and Space Management; Teaching, Disciplining and Rituals; and Comparative Study of Pedagogical Reform and Alternative Pedagogical Trends. The master's program also provides Comparative Education subjects, such as Educational Systems in the EU and Statistical Analysis in Education, taught in the 3rd semester of the two-year master's program.

- The goal of the subject Educational Systems in the EU is to give students an ample knowledge of state education policy. It enables the students to recognize and analyze the problems in current education policy. After completing the subject, students will have an academic knowledge of the legal and political aspects of education in Hungary and in the countries of the 'European Dimension'. This subject also prepares them to grasp the principles of education policy-making and to analyze the processes from a critical perspective. The subject gives an overview of the specific characteristics of the so-called continental educational systems, and compares them to the transatlantic system via certain chosen fields (e.g. management, structure of schools, systems of promoting students' output, relationship between the school and the world of work).
- Statistical Analysis in Education familiarizes students with national and international educational databases and statistics. Students get a clear picture of the structure, the function and the application of educational statistical databases and acquire the ability to carry out a comparative statistical analysis of educational issues. The subject gives an introduction to the history of statistical analysis concerning education and describes the different methods of gathering statistical data in education, as well as some methodological debates. It traces back the changes in educational system in the light of numbers and compares international numeric data to the national ones.

Conclusion

Economic, political and social changes in the last decades have had their impact on the Hungarian education system. Expectations from educational institutions have changed and the need for quality management and lifelong learning has emerged. Intercultural comparison of different educational systems and institutions is becoming increasingly important, which brings up the need for comparative educational research within the framework of educational sciences. The need arises to get acquainted with the methods and means other countries try to use to work out a more effective education. These studies are highly instructive and in the light of others' experience, the quality of Hungarian education can be improved as well.

Hungarian higher education has seen a significant transformation in the last years. As a result of the Bologna Process, the structure of higher education has been altered and the 'European dimension' has become salient in program descriptions.

Comparative Education is gaining more and more importance within the bachelor's program of pedagogy major as it serves to explicate pedagogical facts and situations from an international point of view. The program imparts a cross-cultural interpretation of education and teaching by giving an insight as to how different nations respond to the demands of school clientele and to their ever changing needs. It keeps up-to-date record of curriculum design in different countries, of the educational policy matters taken into account during program-planning, of the educational laws valid in different countries, of the characteristics of educational administrative and financing systems. Thus, in the course of their studies, student teachers get an ample knowledge of training forms and structures, and their direct and indirect objectives and results. Experience gained from such international, multicultural and development-oriented studies offer student teachers a wider range of opportunities in an increasingly 'Europeanized' and globalized Hungarian educational context.

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Dr. Ildikó Holik
College of Nyíregyháza
Hungary
e-mail: holiki@nyf.hu

Comparative Education in Italian Universities: A Renewed Vitality

Donatella Palomba & Anselmo R. Paolone

An Introductory Outline

It can be said that the tradition of comparative studies has a relevant role in educational research and in higher education in Italy, even if these studies are often not singled out as such, but rather are linked to those on general education or on history of education.

Until recently, there were in higher education relatively few courses in Comparative Education. However, some of the most eminent academic scholars in education in post WWII Italy were actively engaged in comparative research, as well as in associated organizations. We can mention Lamberto Borghi, Aldo Visalberghi, Mauro Laeng, and Vittorio Telmon, who was engaged in different ways, sometimes with executive responsibilities, in international societies of Comparative Education, such as CESE (Comparative Education Society in Europe), and who established and promoted SICESE (*Sezione Italiana della CESE*), the Italian Society of Comparative Education.

This engagement went naturally together with an intense activity of comparative research, such as the participation of Visalberghi and Laeng in the IEA research already in the early 1970s, or the *Six Subject Studies* in following years, which was reflected also in their academic teaching.

In the cultural tradition of educational studies in Italy, where *pedagogia generale* has always tended to embrace all the manifold approaches through which the complex field of education can be studied, Comparative Education could be found. It was therefore possible to find, in the curriculum of the same course of *Pedagogia*, an historical section, a philosophical one, and a part of empirical or comparative research. The concept of *pedagogia* should not be equated with the English term *pedagogy*, but means, essentially, a general reflection on education.

However, over the decades, the different branches of educational research and teaching gradually acquired a degree of academic autonomy, though Comparative Education had still some difficulties, more than other sectors of study, in 'emancipating', so to speak and gaining its own ground. The discipline has for long remained linked with the field of historical-institutional studies (to which it was bound in the classification of disciplines made by the Ministry of Higher Education).

In recent times, however, we can register with some satisfaction a growth both in research interest and in academic teaching of Comparative Education in Italian higher education. In a first survey made in 1986, Battista Orizio registered less than 10 courses at university level. Almost twenty years later, in the academic year 2003-2004, a second survey by the same author showed a very modest increase, counting only a few more (less than 15). According to the present survey, however, in relatively few years the number has grown to more than twenty, up to 25 if we include some courses that teach Comparative Education even if with a slightly different label.

A Survey of Comparative Education Courses in Italian Universities

The author of this section is Anselmo R. Paolone. The intention is focused on screening all the existing Comparative Education courses in the most recent academic years, and any omission is involuntary. The survey is based on the data available for the academic year 2007-2008.

Most courses of Comparative Education are taught in Faculties of Educational Sciences or in Faculties of *Lettere e Filosofia*. Some courses belong to teacher training degree courses (in Faculties of Educational Sciences), such as the *Laurea in Scienze della Formazione Primaria*, for elementary school teachers (Udine, Bolzano, Perugia, Aosta). As for the courses for secondary school teachers' training (*Scuola di Specializzazione per Insegnanti Secondari*, SSIS) it is more difficult to say, as syllabi change constantly and are often not clearly publicized. In fact SSIS is a peculiar institution, on the verge of being abolished (to be substituted with a special MA) and usually its professors are hired for short periods.

Broadly speaking, Italian courses on Comparative Education can be divided into four main groups. Some are more traditional history-based Comparative Education courses. Another group deals with intercultural education and related topics, such as development education, peace education, etc. The biggest group is the methodological/institutional, which has a more synchronic and structural approach and deals more specifically with the methodological aspects of comparison. Lastly, there is a smaller group of courses inspired by an anthropological/ethnographic approach.

Historical / Institutional approach

The traditional historical and institutional comparison between school systems of various nations is taught in a few universities and mainly by historians of education. In Udine, Angelo Gaudio belongs to this first group which shall be called 'historical/institutional'. His course is divided into two parts: the first is about basic historical and systematic notions for the analysis of educational systems in the contemporary world. The second part deals with some European educational systems in detail, using contemporary sources (in the original languages) such as 'International review of curriculum and assessment', 'Comparative tables and factual summaries', but also systematic descriptions in historical and institutional terms such as Aldrich's on Britain (1996) and Albertini's on France (1992). A deeper level of sociological elaboration is assured through the use of authors such as Margaret Archer and Marzio Barbagli. Textbooks include:

- Aldrich, R. (1996): *Education for the Nation*. London: Cassell.
- Albertini, P. (1992): *L'École en France. XIXe - XXe siècle, de la maternelle à l'Université*. Paris: Hachette.

In Modena and Reggio Emilia, Nicola Barbieri also teaches Comparative History of Education. It is an offspring of the History of Educational Institutions course and it deals with the methodology of comparative research in education and with the critical knowledge of key moments in its development, starting from the 18th century. The second part of the course deals with field research in Comparative Education. Textbooks are:

- Pampanini, G. (2004): *Critical Essays on Comparative Education*. Catania: CUEMC.
- Barbieri, N. S. (2004): *Istituzioni educative e formative: lineamenti storici, configurazioni strutturali, modalità operative*. Padova: CLEUP.

In Padua, Mirella Chiaranda has a course on the comparative history of pedagogy and school. It is meant to show the intertwining of the historical-pedagogical and historical-institutional dimensions, and to compare different educational theories and school reforms. There is an introduction to the epistemology and methodology of the comparative history of pedagogy in Europe and America. Course readings include:

- Orizio, B. (2000): *Storia e comparazione dell'educazione in Europa*. Verona: Libreria Universitaria Editrice.
- Orizio, B. (ed.) (2004): *Studium educationis. Educazione comparata*, No.1.

In Catania, Letterio Todaro has a course which integrates the History of Education with Comparative Education. Its general perspective insists on the development of education models and pedagogical theories in the contemporary world, considering the growing need to scientifically organize and globally spread education practices.

Textbooks of the historical part are:

- Chiosso, G. (1997): *Novecento pedagogico*. Brescia: La Scuola.
- Todaro, L. (2006): *L'ordine pedagogico. Modelli epistemologici, immagini della scienza, teorie dell'educazione tra Ottocento e Novecento*. Soveria Mannelli: Rubbettino.

Textbooks of the comparative part are:

- Gallo, L. (2006): *Problemi e prospettive dell'educazione comparata*. Bari: Laterza.
- Gandolfi, S. (2006): *Il diritto all'educazione*. Brescia: La Scuola.

Also in Catania, Natalia Giammona has a course with a less historical approach, in which the specialist part deals with recent school reforms in Italy and with educational experiences in Lebanon and Brazil. The textbook is:

- Lastrucci, E. (2005): *La nuova scuola delle due riforme*. Roma: ANICIA.

In Verona, Battista Orizio's course is based on the traditional approach of George Bereday. It gives an overview of the development of Comparative Education before positivism, traces the remote origins of the approach to the Middle Ages and spans through forerunners such as Benjamin Constant and his comparison of the Ancient and the Modern. Orizio's aims include the epistemological analysis of comparison in general as a scientific research method, and its specific use in pedagogy. Here Orizio differs from other specialists in that he speaks of Comparative Pedagogy, not Education, the latter being, in his vision, a definition more descriptive and less intentionally aimed at building the individual person. In this approach, Comparative Education means comparing school systems mainly in institutional terms, while Comparative Pedagogy means comparing, for instance, the work and thought of pedagogues such as the Swiss Pestalozzi and the Italian Lambruschini, or the pedagogy for the handicapped in different times and settings. Aside from Orizio (2000) cited above, course readings include:

- Orizio, B. (1977): *Pedagogia comparativa*. Brescia: La Scuola.
- Orizio, B. (2006): La pedagogia speciale nei diversi Paesi europei. In A. Lascioli, A. & Onder, M. (eds.): *Atti del Simposio internazionale di Pedagogia speciale*. Verona: Libreria Editrice Universitaria.
- Orizio, B. (ed.) (2004): *Studium educationis. Educazione comparata*, No.1.

Also in Verona, Paola Dal Toso has a more historical approach. She tries to problematize the concept of education through comparison between various historical, social and cultural models, and contemporary aspects. In addition to Gallo (2006) cited above, textbooks also include:

- Cagnolati, A. (ed.) (2008): *Tra Natura e Cultura. Profili di donne nella storia dell'educazione*. Roma: Aracne.

In Bologna, Corrado Ziglio teaches a course entitled Comparative Analysis of Training Models. His position is somewhere in between the historical/institutional approach and a more anthropological/culturalist approach. Textbooks include:

- Todeschini, M. & Ziglio, C. (1992): *Comparazione educativa. Studiare l'educazione attraverso la comparazione*. Firenze: La Nuova Italia.
- Ziglio, C. & Boccalon, R. (1996): *Lei vede ma non osserva* Torino: UTET.

Anthropological / Culturalist approach

A more openly anthropological/culturalist approach is taught in Verona by Gabriel Sala. Though his course is labelled 'Comparative Education', it is different from the traditional approaches described so far. His aim is to teach forms of cultural mediation and his approach is that of the anthropology of education, ethno psychiatry and intercultural education. He focuses in particular on comparison in research, in therapy and in education, and on rites of passage and forms of mediation in different anthropological contexts. The comparative methodology is expressed also at an individualistic level, for instance in the comparison of life histories. Textbooks include:

- Lê, T. K. (1999): *Educazione e civiltà*. Roma: Armando.
- Morineau, J. (2000): *Lo spirito della mediazione*. Milano: Franco Angeli.
- Devereux, G. (1967): *From anxiety to method in the behavioural sciences*. Paris: Mouton-The Hague.

In the University of Rome III, Mirella Zecchini apparently mixes a culturalist lifestyle analysis with a more traditional institutional comparative approach. She starts from a general definition of the field: in her words, "comparing means showing the similarities and differences of various education systems". She also compares lifestyles of youth in different countries, with the help of audiovisual texts. Textbooks include:

- Zecchini, M. (ed.) (2005): *Oltre lo stereotipo nei media e nella società*, Roma: Armando.
- Mincu, M.E. (2004): *Educazione e cittadinanza nel post-socialismo. I cambiamenti nell'Europa dell'Est dopo il 1989*. Torino: SEI.
- Bialecki, I., Fatyga, B., Kosela, K., Kurczewski, J. & Zielinski, P. (2005): *The bridge generation, (Complexities, Issues and Perspectives of youth in Poland)*. Milano: Mondadori.

In the University of Rome 'Tor Vergata', Anselmo R. Paolone teaches a course entitled Ethnography of Education, but spans through different forms of cultural analysis and comparison. As traditional research units such as the nation-state seem to become weaker, leaving space to new realities such as networks and transversal groups, ethnography is considered as a tool which can be used to compare educational settings and problems in complex societies. Readings include:

- Paolone, A. (1996): *L'approccio interazionista nella ricerca pedagogica*. Genova: De Ferrari.
- Paolone, A. (2006): La critica al sistema scolastico selettivo e la nascita dell'etnografia britannica della scuola. *Annali di storia dell'educazione e delle istituzioni scolastiche*, Vol. 13, pp. 297-318.

Institutional / Methodological approach

In the University of Rome 'Tor Vergata', in the academic year 2007-2008 there will be for the first time a specific course of Comparative Education that will be taught by Donatella Palomba. The course is entitled Comparative Method and International Context in Educational Research: An Introduction. Its main aim is to analyze different methodological approaches to comparative research in education and to question their relationship with international policy dynamics. In addition to Todeschini & Ziglio (1992) mentioned above, textbooks also include:

- Schriewer, J. & Holmes, B. (eds.) (1992): *Theories and Methods in Comparative Education*, (Italian translation).

In the University of Udine, in his course entitled International Education Policies, Francesco Russo teaches the basics of education systems, of the comparative approach and of the European Union policies to explain the contemporary developments of what he defines the 'educational laboratory' of South Eastern Europe. To do so he previously analyzes four different models: the Scandinavian, the Anglo-Saxon, the German and the Mediterranean, and then discusses the relationship between professional training and the job market. The textbook is:

- Russo, F (2005): *Una scuola per entrare in Europa*. Bologna: Il Mulino.

In the University of Rome III, Giorgio Porrotto's course deals with international political and educational trends (especially those of UNESCO, OECD, EU) and educational democracy and quality of educational systems. The course also deals with educational culture in the learning society, learning politics and lifelong learning, reforms of educational systems in terms of teacher training, curriculum design and teaching autonomy. Course books deal in comparative terms with specific aspects, mainly political, of education:

- CERI-OCSE (1996): *Il potere decisionale nei sistemi educativi di 14 paesi dell'OCSE*. Roma: Armando.
- De Groof, J. & Glenn, C. (2002): *Un difficile equilibrio - Sistemi scolastici e libertà di insegnamento nell'Europa continentale e mediterranea*. Roma: Armando.

In Rome-LUMSA, Comparative Education is taught by Antonio Augenti. His course is a general introduction to the comparative dimension in the study of education systems. Contents are: Comparative Education as interdisciplinary methodology; its utility and its tasks, its instruments and sources. Augenti also deals with the main educational international experiences and with European perspectives of education systems. He also focuses on some areas of applied Comparative Education: cultural integration, especially concerning the French model. Augenti uses his own handbooks:

- Amatucci, L. & Augenti, A.N. (1998): *Le organizzazioni internazionali e le politiche educative*. Roma: Anicia.
- Amatucci, L., Augenti, A.N. & Matarazzo, F. (2005): *Lo spazio europeo dell'educazione*. Roma: Anicia.

In Bari, Luca Gallo's course aims at giving an introduction to the historical, theoretical and methodological aspects of Comparative Education and to intervention sectors in today's educational scene. It deals with the contemporary problems and perspectives of Comparative Education: globalization, cultures and interculturality, international organizations, the European Union and the Mediterranean area. Textbooks include Amatucci, Augenti & Matarazzo (2005) and Gallo (2006), both cited above.

In Chieti, Claudio Crivellari, who also has a course on the evolution of school systems in the EU, teaches Comparative Education with a special interest on the contributions of other social and educational sciences to this field of studies. Crivellari deals with the evolution of education systems and considers future scenarios and emerging problems. Textbooks once more include Amatucci, Augenti & Matarazzo (2005) as well as:

- Burns R. J. & Welch A. R. (eds.) (2002): *Prospettive contemporanee di educazione comparata*. Catania: Le Nove Muse Editrice.
- Bognianti L. (ed.) (2002): *Scuole dell'autonomia in Europa*. Brescia: La Scuola.
- Brint S. (2002): *Scuola e società*. Bologna: Il Mulino.

In Perugia, Lanfranco Rosati focuses on comparing the differences in teacher training in the wider context of cultural differences between nations. The course is also aimed at students/future teachers willing to experience a different culture through the Erasmus programme. Among others, the course prepares them to understand different forms of school organization. Rosati has especially studied the aspects of the comparative method as a research method in general. Textbooks include:

- Rosati, L. (2005): *Il metodo nella didattica*. Brescia: La Scuola.
- Rosati, L. (2005): *Dentro l'anima*. Perugia: Margiacchi-Galeno.
- Bovi, O. (ed.) (2007): *Educazione comparata*. Perugia: Morlacchi.

In Bolzano/Bozen (in the bilingual district of Alto Adige), Martin Dodman teaches Comparative Education. His aim is to compare different school systems in Europe, especially those elements that determine policy choices and have characterized each school system in the last two decades. The course shows the evolution of school systems, the criteria and limits of qualitative and quantitative comparison of school systems, and the comparative study of European school systems by analyzing and synthesizing analogies and differences. The chosen textbook is:

- Cuconato, M. (2000): *Educazione comparata. L'internazionalizzazione dei sistemi formativi*. Bologna: Pitagora.

In Messina, Rosa Anna Impalà teaches a course entitled Comparison: Field, Implications and Methodological Problems. She deals especially with what she calls the 'dangers of scientism and methodologism'. Then she shows that education is a complex reality that goes far beyond scholarly institutions. In the end, comparison is a way of learning. Textbooks of her course include Todeschini & Ziglio (1992) cited above, as well as:

- Piscopo, C. (1984): *L'educazione comparata: problemi e prospettive, fondazione storica*. Edisud: Salerno.
- Munari, A. (1999): *Il sapere ritrovato. Conoscenza, apprendimento, formazione*. Milano: Guerini e associati.
- Alberti, P. & Ziglio, C. (1986): *Concetto e metodologia dell'evoluzione comparata*. Firenze: La Nuova Italia.

In Cagliari, Michele Zedda teaches a course in Comparative Education aiming at a global vision of the topic, by studying its basic elements, the main theoretical and methodological problems and the overall historical evolution. In addition to Cuconato (2000), textbooks used include:

- Gobbo, F. (2003): *Pedagogia Interculturale*. Roma: Carocci.

Intercultural approach

In Turin, Andrea Pacini has a course on institutional comparison with a culturalist turn entitled Values, Religions and Societies: Educational Perspectives in a Context of Cultural Pluralism, which discusses the epistemological basis of Comparative Education and shows the educational influence of cultural traditions (especially the European – western and eastern, and the Islamic) in contemporary societies, exploring the connections to intercultural education. Readings include:

- Gallo, L. (1998): *Questioni di educazione comparata*. Bari: Laterza.
- Pacini, A. (1998): L'Islam e il dibattito sui diritti dell'uomo. *Dossier Mondo Islamico* 5. Torino: Edizioni della Fondazione Giovanni Agnelli, pp. 1-52, 103-166.
- Mancini, R., Compagnoni, F., Astorri, R., Levi Della Torre, S., Ennaifer, H., An-Na'im, A.A., Tozy, M., Dayatmananda, S., Atyre, S., Bhikku, M. (2002): *La libertà religiosa tra tradizione e moderni diritti dell'uomo*. Torino: Centro di Studi Religiosi Comparati, Edoardo Agnelli.

In Bergamo, Stefania Gandolfi, a specialist of education in Africa, teaches a course entitled Comparative Education, but in fact the topics belong to the field of peace education and development education. The goals are to examine several educational systems in societies in conflict, and to develop comparative analytical methodology with UNESCO's IIEP (International Institute for Educational Planning), OECD and Breda indicators. Through case studies, the course also examines how education, by combining unity and diversity, must build a democracy founded on mutual support as the paradigm of social interaction. Textbooks include:

- Gandolfi, S. (2002): *Educazione e conflitti sociali*. Brescia: La Scuola.
- Jacobucci, M. (2005): *I nemici del dialogo*. Roma: Armando.

A second course is taught by Claudia Cremonesi whose goals are: to get a better knowledge of education systems and to test the application of the right to education in different contexts. The course aims to move away from the six objectives of *Education For All* (EFA) that emerged at the World Forum on Education in Dakar and are to be realized by 2015. Textbooks include:

- Gandolfi S. & Rizzi F. (2001): *L'educazione in Africa*. Brescia: La Scuola.
- Cremonesi, C. (2007): *Mediterraneo. Le identità possibili*. Troina: Città Aperta.
- Ki-Zerbo, J (2005): *A quando l'Africa*. Bologna: ed. EMI.

In Aosta, Maurizio Piseri has a course entitled Comparative Education, but is in fact about Development Education. It introduces students to the sources of Comparative Education, but then focuses on literacy and illiteracy in the 20th century, Paulo Freire and literacy as a hope for the Third World, educational systems of the OECD area and their future. Textbooks include:

- Piaget, J. (2000): *Dove va l'educazione*. Roma: Armando
- Freire, P. (2002): *La pedagogia degli oppressi*. Roma: Edizioni Gruppo Abele.
- CERI (2001): *Quel avenir pour nos écoles?* Paris: OECD, Paris.

By Way of Conclusion

The teaching of Comparative Education in Italian universities is expanding with a variety of approaches and visions, whose multiplicity has been here tentatively regrouped into a number of clusters, but whose diversity would not admit a rigid categorization.

It can be asked why in recent times is there an accelerated provision of Comparative Education courses, after many years of slower growth. Beyond the obvious and by now banal consideration that the themes in whatever way linked to ‘internationality’ are gaining an increasing relevance in the present times, it can be observed that the growth of Comparative Education courses has corresponded with the time span in which Italian universities have been engaged in the implementation of the reform following the Bologna Process. Started at the end of the 1990s, the Bologna Process gradually evolved so much that it concerns, at the present day, virtually all European countries, well beyond the borders of the European Union.

While following some directions common to all participating countries, the ‘Process’ takes shape quite differently in each one of them. In the case of Italy, the numerous measures that have been adopted from 1999 until today in the name of its implementation, have asked universities to re-think their educational offer following new criteria, but at the same time have given them more autonomy in the establishment of new courses. It is interesting to note that universities seem to have made use of this increased autonomy to give more space to Comparative Education, which may also be in line with the renewed sensibility for the ‘international’. This is even more significant considering that, conversely, at the central level, the Ministry did not prescribe a place for it.

This chronological correspondence by itself does not obviously prove any cause-effect relationship. It is however an issue which is worth investigating, taking the present survey as a point of departure.

The question however remains: Which Comparative Education? This question arises not only because of the diversity of approaches to Comparative Education co-existing in the Italian setting. The question about the nature and identity of the discipline continues to be a matter of lively debate also at the international level. The new developments in the Italian context will certainly profit from this debate and, hopefully can also bring to it their own contribution.

Prof. Donatella Palomba
Università di Roma ‘Tor Vergata’
Facoltà di Lettere e Filosofia, Roma
Italy
e-mail: palomba@uniroma2.it

Dr. Anselmo R. Paolone
Università di Roma ‘Tor Vergata’ / Università di Udine
Italy
e-mail: arp3@libero.it

Comparative Education in Lithuania

Rimantas Zelvyš

Introduction

During the last two decades Comparative Education has played an important role in the development of Lithuanian educational science. After the fall of the communism there was an urgent need to replace the former Soviet model of education. Educational reformers expected that Comparative Education would help to find answers to questions concerning which structures and models of education are most preferable for the newly independent state. The currently existing system of education in Lithuania is, to a large extent, a result of comparative analysis and implementation of different educational ideas and approaches. Institutions of Lithuanian higher education and the academic community are also being increasingly affected by international trends and global tendencies in education. Membership in the European Union and international educational organizations further contributes to the development of Comparative Education in the country.

History of Comparative Education as a Field in Lithuania

Comparative Education in Lithuania between the two World Wars (1918-1940)

Comparative Education as an academic field has had a relatively short history in Lithuania. At the end of the nineteenth century, when Comparative Education emerged as a separate academic discipline, Lithuania, which was at that time under the rule of the Russian Empire, had no institutions of higher education of its own. Vilnius university, founded in 1579, was closed down in 1832 after the Lithuanian-Polish rebellion against the Tzarist regime. Only after becoming an independent state in 1918, Lithuania was able to re-establish a national university. The University of Lithuania was founded in 1922 in Kaunas, and here the discipline of Comparative Education was introduced for the first time. The most prominent representative of Comparative Education at the University of Lithuania (since 1930 the university changed its formal title and was named the Vytautas Magnus University) was Pranas Dielininkaitis. After graduation from the University of Lithuania he continued his studies in Sorbonne University in Paris, where in 1933 he defended a doctoral dissertation "*La liberte scolaire et l'etat* (Freedom of Schooling and the State)". In his dissertation he analyzed and compared the Soviet, French, Belgian and Dutch systems of education, described social preconditions of their development and reforms, ideas of cultural autonomy, etc. After receiving a doctoral degree, in 1933 Pranas Dielininkaitis returned to Vytautas Magnus University and worked there until his death in 1942.

Another graduate of the University of Lithuania, Jonas Lauzikas, continued his studies in the University of Zurich, where he defended a doctoral dissertation in 1940. At the same year he was appointed a director of Vilnius Pedagogical Institute, which was established in 1935 as the main higher teacher training institution in the country. A number of works of Jonas Lauzikas are related to the issues of Comparative Education. In, particular, in his book *Self-Governance of Students* (Lauzikas, 1929), Jonas

Lauzikas describes models of self-governance in American, European and Soviet schools, and points out the advantages and shortcomings of each model. The major work of Jonas Lauzikas in the field of Comparative Education is *Educational Reform* (Lauzikas, 1934). The book provides guidelines for school reform in Lithuania and presents the critique of the “old” traditional school, based on mechanical learning, strict discipline and control. As an alternative Jonas Lauzikas suggests a “new” school, based on innovative principles, and provides examples of progressive educational reforms. The most interesting from a comparative perspective is the second part of the book, where Jonas Lauzikas presents the Austrian school reform as a positive example of reforming education. In the third part of the book the author provides a shorter description of the school systems in Switzerland, England, United States, Latvia and Germany as other positive examples to be followed in order to implement a successful educational reform. In the final part of his book he presents the main thesis for the forthcoming school reform in Lithuania.

In general, in his comparative studies Jonas Lauzikas was mainly analyzing the experience of the German-speaking countries: Switzerland (Lauzikas, 1931), Austria (Lauzikas, 1934) and Germany (Lauzikas, 1937). He as well as other educational researchers who worked in the University of Lithuania and the Pedagogical Institute were graduates or conducted their research in German-speaking universities. Moreover, the educational system in Lithuania between the two World Wars was mainly developed in accordance with the educational model of the German-speaking countries. However, other researchers were also analyzing and comparing the school systems of the Soviet Union, France, Belgium, the Netherlands (Dielininkaitis, 2000), Denmark (Salcius, 1929), and England (Eretas, 1926).

Comparative Education in Lithuania during the Soviet period (1940-1990)

The subject of Comparative Education was not taught in Lithuanian institutions of higher education after the incorporation of the formerly independent country into the Soviet Union in 1940. The reason for such an ignorant outlook was evident – for ideological reasons the Soviet system of education was considered to be “the best” and it was assumed that Soviet Union had nothing to learn about education in other countries, especially from examples coming from the Western world. Some elements of Comparative Education were included into the course on History of Education, which was taught to the undergraduate students in universities and teacher training institutes. However, Western educational thought was mainly presented in a negative context in order to point out the advantages of the socialist education system. A number of publications were dedicated to the critique of Western educational models, for example, the criticism of the so-called “new education” (Mikenas, 1970). On the other hand, some educational researchers in their publications analyzed the “positive” experience of socialist countries, for example, the system of vocational guidance and consulting in Poland (Galkyte, 1968), or the personality development in the educational system of Bulgaria (Kolevas, 1976).

Comparative Education in Lithuania after the fall of the communism (1990-2010)

The urgent need for revival of Comparative Education as an academic discipline was felt after the restoration of independence of Lithuania in 1990. It was evident that the former Soviet system of education had to be dismantled and replaced by a different model; therefore, comparative studies became vitally important in order to choose the

further way of development of national education. During the last two decades comparative studies have been conducted almost in all major fields of education. General education is perhaps the most popular area for comparative studies. In 1993 Lithuania became a member of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). In 1995 Lithuania started to participate in international comparative studies. Lithuania took part in IEA TIMSS (1995, 1999, 2003 and 2007), IEA PIRLS (2001, 2006) and IEA ICCS (2009) international comparative studies. At the present moment Lithuania is not yet a member of the OECD; however, the country participated in OECD PISA (2006) and OECD TALIS (2008) studies. The coordinator of these studies in Lithuania is the National Examination Centre, but the research work is done mostly by university researchers. The comparison of Lithuania's educational achievements with those of the OECD countries is also the focus of attention of Lithuanian educational researchers (Pruskus, 1998).

With the collapse of the planned economy, the sector of vocational education and training underwent major changes. Reform efforts in the vocational sector evoked a need for comparative research. In the field of vocational education the theoretical and organizational problems of vocational training were compared with developments in the USA, Japan and the United Kingdom (Petrauskaite, 1996). In the field of lifelong education, different systems in Europe were compared and analyzed (Beresnevičienė, 1996, 1997, 1999). Comparative analysis of the integration of information and communication technologies into the system of education in Lithuania and other European countries, mainly United Kingdom, Finland, Hungary and the Netherlands, was conducted by a group of researchers (Dagiene & Kurilovas, 2009).

Higher education seems to become one of the most sensitive areas to the newly emerging international trends and tendencies. The Bologna process increasingly encourages comparative analysis of higher education systems in order to assure their compatibility, credit transfer and mutual recognition of higher education degrees. In the field of higher education the comparative analysis of higher education visions in Lithuania, Norway, Slovenia, Finland and Hungary was done by a group of researchers (Morgan, 2007). An international team of researchers explored outlooks of Lithuanian and Finnish students towards the competences of the teachers of music (Lasauskiene & Juvonen, 2005). The indicators for accreditation of higher education institutions in Eastern, Central and Western Europe were compared in order to work out a valid model for Lithuania (Zilinskaite, 2005a, 2005b). Another important topic for comparative research is the internationalization of Lithuanian education in the context of globalization (Bulajeva, 2005).

Educational change and successful implementation of education reforms have been one of the key topics for Lithuanian education for the last two decades. Countries of Central and Eastern Europe are usually selected for comparing social and educational changes during the post-communist period. In the field of educational change, education reforms in Central and Eastern Europe are analyzed or compared to those taking place in the Western countries (Zelvys, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c). The attitudes of young people towards social changes in Central and Eastern Europe were also studied in research publications (Zaleskiene, 2006).

The process of joining the European Union further contributed to further development of comparative European studies and thus a European dimension in education became increasingly important. A number of publications are dedicated to education (Zelvys, 1997, 2004a, 2004b, 2005) and research (Daujotis et al., 2002)

policy of the European Union as well as to the impact of the Lisbon strategy on Lithuania (Alisaukas & Dukynaite, 2005).

Comparative Education in Lithuanian universities

The Lithuanian academic society rather quickly reacted to the changing needs of educational training. Courses on Comparative Education were included into the teacher training programs of major Lithuanian universities. In 1993 Lithuania introduced a three-level (Bachelor, Masters and Doctoral) model of studies. Courses on Comparative Education were mainly concentrated on the Masters level of studies. Some universities, e. g. Vilnius University, introduced elements of Comparative Education in an integrated course on Historical and Comparative Education for Bachelor students. In some cases, for example in Vilnius Pedagogical University and Kaunas Technological University, an extended course on Comparative Education also appeared in the Doctoral study programmes. A number of Doctoral dissertations were defended during the first decade of the independence, which analyzed different aspects of Comparative Education. Most of the Doctoral dissertations in the domain of Comparative Education were aimed at comparing either the systems of education or different didactical approaches to teaching in some selected countries. For example, a couple of dissertations defended in Kaunas University of Technology were dedicated to comparing Lithuanian and Swiss educational systems (Sermuksnyte, 1996), comparing the development of the *folkeskole* movement in the Nordic countries (Kuprys, 1996), comparing Lithuanian and British systems of lifelong education (Taruskiene, 1997), etc. Other dissertations analyzed teaching of mathematics in Lithuania and Scandinavian countries (Zybartas, 2000), structures and activities of social pedagogical services in Lithuania and Germany (Majauskiene, 2008).

The academic discipline of Comparative Education is being currently taught to Masters and Doctoral students in Vilnius University, Vilnius Pedagogical University, Kaunas University of Technology, Vytautas Magnus University, Siauliai University and Klaipeda University. There are no departments of Comparative Education and the courses on Comparative Education are provided by lecturers from other educational departments, centres or institutes. The typical structure of the course is the following: the definition and development of Comparative Education, methodology and methods of Comparative Education, educational systems in different countries, recent trends and developments in Comparative Education (Dautaras, 1994). Textbooks on Comparative Education and Comparative Didactics were published in Kaunas University of Technology (Janiunaite, 1999), Klaipeda University (Kucinskiene, 2000) and Vilnius Pedagogical University (Vaitkevicius, 2001). They describe the object and aims of Comparative Education, the historical and methodological background of the discipline, the development of Comparative Education in Lithuania and worldwide, current methods of teaching and directions of future development of Comparative Education. The monograph *Comparative Education*, published in Kaunas University of Technology (Juceviciene, 1997) is so far the largest publication in the country dedicated to Comparative Education. The monograph addresses a number of important topics of Comparative Education, namely, the place of Comparative Education among other educational sciences, the main theoretical ideas and research methods in Comparative Education. Specific areas, which could be chosen as objects for comparative education research, for example, education policy, the economics of

education, teacher training, educational administration, etc. are described in the first part of the monograph. The second part of the monograph is dedicated to descriptions and analysis of the national education systems in the Baltic states, Scandinavia, Eastern, Central and Western European countries, North America, Japan, Middle East, Africa and Latin America.

Conclusion

Comparative Education in Lithuania has had a tradition of almost one hundred years. However, during the period between the two World Wars the academic discipline of Comparative Education in the University of Lithuania and the Pedagogical Institute was only episodically represented by several researchers. During the times of the communist rule after the incorporation of the country into the Soviet Union, Comparative Education was almost totally neglected and manifested itself only through the critique of Western education and by providing some “good” examples from other socialist countries. The newly gained independence in 1990 and the collapse of the communist regime provided so far the strongest impetus for the development of Comparative Education in Lithuania. During the last two decades comparative studies have been conducted almost in all major fields of education. The academic discipline of Comparative Education has been introduced into the study programs of most of the Lithuanian universities. On the other hand, the faculties of education in these universities have no separate departments of Comparative Education. Comparative Education courses are provided and research is conducted by the departments, centres or institutes of general education.

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Prof. habil. dr. Rimantas Zelvyš
Vilnius Pedagogical University
Vice-Rector for Research
Lithuania
e-mail: Rimantas.Zelvyš@vpu.lt

Comparative Education in the Netherlands and Flanders

**Edzard. J. Boerma, Sylvia van de Bunt-Kokhuis &
Sjoerd Karsten (The Netherlands)
Antoon H. Louwyck & Roger O. F. Standaert (Flanders)**

Introduction

The Netherlands and Flanders (the Dutch speaking part of Belgium) started relatively late with the study of Comparative Education. One of the reasons for this late start is the fact that in both countries, teacher training for primary education and some parts of secondary education was not taught at universities. Comparative Education originated as a scientific discipline from pedagogy (educational theory) at university level. Moreover, educational theory arrived considerably late to the Netherlands and Flanders. Gunning in 1902 and later on, also Kohnstamm and Casimir were private lecturers in educational theory before they achieved academic status. Also in Flanders, Decoene and Verheyen started their career as school directors, editors of a Flemish pedagogical magazine and school inspectors before working at university. A milestone was the foundation of the Dutch-speaking Society for Comparative Education (NGVO) in 1973. This collaboration between the Netherlands and Belgium in the field of Comparative Education continued in common research and publications but also in active participation in the European (Comparative Education Society in Europe- CESE) and world conferences (Bunt-Kokhuis & Van daele, 2007).

This chapter starts with a brief history of Comparative Education in the Netherlands and Flanders, and the foundation of the NGVO. Subsequently, in the pioneers-phase Comparative Education gained stature in university training of teachers and educational sciences. The second generation of comparative researchers gave even more attention to education policy and international education. An overview of current education and research is presented *anno* 2008. A list of references and an appendix of other important publications completes this article.

Brief History

It is remarkable that in the history of Comparative Education various foreigners visited the Low Countries, but not much is known of Dutch or Flemish educationalists travelling to other countries. However, the most respected educational journal *Pedagogische Studiën* (Studies in Educational Theory) dedicated from the start a lot of attention to education in other countries. Already in 1920, the first year of publication, there was a reference to amongst others the *Reform of the Gymnasium in Saksen*. The first systematic comparative contribution is an article from 1924 from Kohnstamm: *Travel Impressions from England*. In 1925 Wartena gave a similar description of *The Education System in America*. This trend continued in the following years.

Only after World War II did Comparative Education blossom. In the Netherlands, professors in general education also lectured in Comparative Education: Idenburg (1956 in Amsterdam), van Gelder (1964 in Groningen) and Velema (1967 in Nijmegen). In Flanders, especially the professors in history of education expanded their

lectures with Comparative Education: Plancke with 'Comparative Education Legislation' in 1951 in Ghent, and De Keyser with 'Historical, Theoretical & Comparative Education' in 1970 in Louvain.

Pioneers-phase in Comparative Education

After holding administrative functions at the Central Bureau for Education-Statistics in The Hague, Idenburg was appointed director of the research-centre 'Nutsseminarium for Education' and later on professor at the University of Amsterdam (UvA). With his pioneering publication *Introduction to Comparative Education* (Idenburg, 1959), Idenburg became the undisputed leader. Pioneers in Flanders were Plancke and De Keyser. In Ghent, Plancke founded a 'Seminary for Historical and Comparative Education', where many Flemish specialists in Comparative Education were trained: amongst others De Clerck & Simon (1997) and Van daele (1993). Before his appointment, De Keyser (1972) initiated in Louvain the 'Latin-American Seminary for Educational Planning'. As the first chairman of the NGVO, he had a lot of influence on many Flemish educational scientists, such as Leirman, Wielemans and Standaert.

One of the first projects in Dutch that could compete with foreign work in the domain of foreign educational systems is the large section *Educational Systems* in the *Losbladig Onderwijskundig Lexicon* (Loose-pages Educational Dictionary) edited by Wielemans (1977a). After his introduction *Comparative Education: Methods and Theories* (Wielemans, 1977b), Flemish and Dutch colleagues described educational systems of countries worldwide, for example: *Foundation of education and training systems in Europe* (Branger, 1978), *Education in Russia and Eastern European countries* (Velema, 1980), *Education in Africa* (Dubbeldam, 1979), and *Education in Asia* (Dumasy & Koetsier, 1983).

Preceding the millennium, the Social Sciences Faculty of the Open University took a remarkable initiative by founding, under chairmanship of former Dutch minister of education van Kemenade, a Comparative Education project: *Education in the European Union: Unity in Diversity*. The program board consisted of the Dutch Claessen, Karsten, Stijnen, and the Flemish De Clerck, Standaert and Wielemans. The project produced an elaborate series of as many as twenty (small) books with descriptions of education in the various member states of the European Union. In addition, there were also general and thematic introductions such as: *Comparing in education* (Wielemans, 1995), *The role of the teacher and his training in European member states* (Stevens & Van Heule, 1995), *Educational Policy in European Perspective* (Wielemans & Roth-van der Werf, 1996), and *Adult Education in European Perspective* (Van Damme, 1996).

Second Generation Comparative Educational Scientists

Collaboration remained a characteristic feature for Comparative Education in the Low Countries. Rupert and his colleagues in Groningen and Wielemans and his colleagues in Louvain started a long-term Socrates/Erasmus network for Comparative Education within the European Union. The project received subsidies from the EU for three terms of 'Intensive Programs' between 1998 and 2007. The meetings were held at different locations every time: Madrid, London and Oslo for the first program; Dresden, Thessalonica and Prague for the second program; and Oulu, Madrid and Freiburg (Breisgau) for the third program and resulted in a reader (Kotthoff & Moutsios, 2007).

The Netherlands

In 1987, the elaborate article *On General and Comparative Education* (Vos, 1987) offered a coherent vision on Comparative Education, but the times were changing. The second generation comparative educationalists shifted their attention to a wide range of loosely related subjects, sometimes out of sight of Comparative Education. It did disappear from the horizon at the University of Nijmegen and partly at the Free University of Amsterdam after the death of Vos in 1996. Sarah Blom (1995) had nevertheless just prepared her interesting dissertation on participation in intellectual training in French and Dutch secondary education. Van de Bunt-Kokhuis, from 1995 onwards president of the NGVO, is active in the field of lifelong learning from a comparative perspective. At the University of Utrecht, Comparative Education reappeared in educational history and educational policy by Professor Braster.

In University of Amsterdam after Kallen (1969), Van Wieringen focused attention on educational policy. Karsten (1994, 1995, 2001) did some comparative studies, commissioned by ministries and international organizations related to current policy issues, for example, educational politics and values, segregation in education, evaluation of European Social Funds (ESF) grants in priority regions, training in citizenship, public performance data of schools and vocational education and lifelong learning. The (educational) sociologist Dronkers published in many fields and became in 2001 professor for Social Stratification and Inequality at the European University Institute in Florence. His work regularly has a comparative character.

In Groningen, Van Gelder was succeeded by Creemers. He concentrated on the effectiveness of education. For the students of educational science, the comparative branch maintained its prominent position: Heinink, Riddersma & Braaksma (1986), as well as Rupert, Koetsier and Santema. Later on the course 'Education in Europe' was launched by the lecturers Boerma (2007) and Tillekens. Santema frequently published on vocational education (Santema, 1968). In 1998, Rupert took the initiative, in collaboration with the NGVO, to organize the 18th CESE Conference on 'State-Market-Civil Society: Models of Social Order and the Future of European Education'. Peschar & Van der Wal (2000) took over the organization. Peschar became OECD-project leader of the PISA-research program for the development of education indicators in the domain of cross-curricular competences (Peschar et al., 1999).

Also in Groningen, initiatives were taken by Van der Kamp in adult education and Pijl & Meijer in special education, for example:

- Comparative research about 'Literacy and Adult Education' with programs in Mozambique and South Africa; and
- International comparative research of special needs education, linked to the 'European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education'.

In the nineties, several Dutch educational scientists and sociologists performed comparative studies or participated in extensive international projects. Examples are to be found amongst the professors Rupert, Peschar and Waslander (Groningen), Scheerens and Wende (Enschede), or Dronkers and Karsten (Amsterdam).

Flanders

The leadership of the NGVO starting with De Keyser (Louvain) was continued in the eighties and nineties by his successors, Wielemans and Standaert. Comparative research was also performed in Ghent, notably by De Clerck, Van daele and Louwyck.

In his thesis, Louwyck (1976) found, amongst others, that school directors give more attention to end objectives for further study or on the future profession of their students than teachers do, who generally gave more attention to the individual's development. Participation and new initiatives also came from new directions, for example Brussels, Antwerp and Hasselt.

In the eighties, De Clerck (aided by Van daele) attracted a number of co-workers at the 'Seminary for Historical and Comparative Educational Theory' of the University of Ghent in The Centre for Comparative Study in Higher Education. The research focused on informing and describing the reforms of Higher Education in Europe. Papers were published for example on *Teacher education in Sweden* (Laureys, 1973) and Van der Motten (1973) wrote *Accreditation of higher education in the USA*. De Saedeleer (1973) studied *Open University: projects and realization in five countries* and Van Der Auwera (1980) investigated *Training of lecturers at Dutch universities and colleges*. Furthermore reports were given on *Teacher education in Yugoslavia* (Cardon, 1971).

The comparative research of Standaert in the Research Centre for Comparative Education Louvain (led by Wielemans) started with a descriptive study, focusing on secondary education in France, England and Wales, and the Federal Republic of Germany. It involved an extensive literature study on the evolution of educational policy in these countries and field trips in the period 1980-1988. Research focused on the ideology in education that was created by educational policies. In 1990 a thesis followed, and in 2003 the important book *Comparing Educational Systems* (Standaert, 2008) as a successor of the book *Comparing in Education* (Wielemans, 1995). After an extensive historical sketch, Standaert treats an array of diverse trains of thought. Also models and thinking schemes are considered. The work then follows with a comparison of educational structures using international indicators. Examples of research are given for Germany, England, France and the Netherlands.

The University of Antwerp hosted the 12th CESE conference (1985) on 'The Impact of Technology on Society and Education'. It also hosted the colloquium 'Vital Mentoring in the Netherlands and Flanders' (1996) that resulted in the publication of the Lexicon *Vital Mentoring in the Netherlands and Flanders* (Louwyck, Vermeulen & Weyts, 1996).

Overview of Current Education and Research

Specific chairs for Comparative Education currently can only be found at the University of Ghent (Standaert), Groningen (Bosker) and Louvain (Wildemeersch). However, in most universities some research in Comparative Education is undertaken.

The Netherlands

University of Amsterdam (UvA): In the second year of the bachelor program in educational science, the course by Wendrich 'Comparative Science: Contexts, Theory and Practice' does ensure that students acquaint themselves with comparative perspectives in educational science. The Minor 'International Development' contains two courses: a first one as a general introduction to the issues of education in developing countries and a second one on processes of globalization, which can lead to social exclusion of children and adolescents. Also the Master's degree has a module 'Policy and Organization' by Karsten in which several comparative studies are touched upon, particularly the differences between public authority and private education.

VU University of Amsterdam: At the Faculty of Economics both in research and in the Master's courses 'Human Resource Development' and 'Cross-Cultural Management', much attention is paid to comparative topics like cross-country comparisons of learning styles and talent development coordinated by Van de Bunt-Kokhuis. She coordinated the three year European and comparative research program FILTER on e-learning and culture, that resulted in the book *World Wide Work* (2006).

University of Groningen: In the framework of the Bachelor's degree in education, the subject 'General Comparative Education' is taught by Maslowski. Included are subjects such as organization of the pre-school care and education; international survey research in education: education in Europe and Europe in education; or lifelong learning from an international comparative perspective. Standaert's book *Comparing Educational Systems* (2007) is used as literature in the course. Additionally, during the third year of the Bachelor's degree, the course 'Comparative Education of the Family' is given by Pieters. Also in the Master's degree in 'Educational Sciences', attention is paid to Comparative Education in the course 'Capita Selecta Educational Policy' taught by Hofman. In this course, students can choose topics such as 'International Comparison of Educational Systems'. In the Groningen Institute for Research in Education (GION), comparative research is performed in the domain of good governance and school management.

The Hague University of Professional Education: Within the Human Resource (HRM)-Lectorate (Van de Bunt-Kokhuis), one of the main topics is workplace learning with a strong comparative perspective. The lectorate research work resulted in 4 international symposia and the book *Handboek Internationaal Talent* (Bunt-Kokhuis, Potting & Veldman, 2007).

University of Twente (Enschede): At the University of Twente a university wide course is offered in English entitled 'The Role of Education Development' by Beverwijk and others from the Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS). The main objective of the course is to provide students with general knowledge and a critical understanding of education in developing countries. Also, regular comparative studies are conducted within the CHEPS' research program.

University of Utrecht: At the University of Utrecht the study of Comparative Education is limited to the optional course 'Educational History' by Braster in the first year of the Bachelor in educational science. He considers the problems in education from a historical and comparative perspective. In the second or third year of the Bachelor's program, the course 'Educational Policy' is taught by Vlaanderen. In this course, education and educational policy in the Netherlands is compared with that of other countries.

Flanders

University of Ghent: In the second year of the Bachelor's degree, the subject 'Comparative Education' is taught to the entire group of students of the psychology and pedagogy faculty. The course structure is:

- A historical sketch of Comparative Education
- An overview of different trends within comparative educational theory
- Comparing the use of international indicators
- Comparing educational structures
- An overview of the main themes contained in comparative educational theory
- Models: rationality theory, systems and rotate-model of relations by Wielemans

- Education in neighbouring countries: England, France and the Netherlands.

Standaert uses his book in its second edition *Comparing Educational Systems* (2007). In the second year of the Master's course, he delivers the subject 'Globalization and Education within contexts'. A book with the same title (Standaert, 2008) is used as literature.

University of Louvain: In the second year of the Bachelor's program of the Department of Psychology and Pedagogy, students are taught in the field of 'Intercultural and Comparative Education' by Wildemeersch. The first part of the course begins with a chapter from Standaert's 2007 book (in which the different trains of thoughts in Comparative Education are discussed), followed by Wielemans' 1995 work, *Comparing in Education*. The second part of the course about 'Multi- and Interculturalism and Inclusive Education' is supplemented with Wildemeersch's own articles (in collaboration with Celis) as well as articles by colleagues from Amsterdam such as van de Ruijter, Leeman, Suijs, van Dam, and others.

As a conclusion, Comparative Education has become less visible as a distinct scientific discipline in the Netherlands and Flanders. However, at this moment probably more comparative research and teaching is carried out as ever before.

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Drs. Edzard J. Boerma em.
University of Groningen, Institute of Education, Groningen
The Netherlands
e-mail: e.j.boerma@rug.nl

Dr. Sylvia van de Bunt-Kokhuis
The Hague University of Professional Education, The Hague
The Netherlands
e.mail: sbunt@feweb.vu.nl

Prof. Dr. Sjoerd Karsten
University of Amsterdam, SCO-Kohnstamm Institute, Amsterdam
The Netherlands
e-mail: s.karsten@uva.nl

Dr. Antoon Louwyck em.
University of Antwerp, Institute of Education, Antwerp
Flanders (Belgium)
e-mail: antoon.louwyck@euphony.net.be

Prof. Dr. Roger Standaert
University of Ghent, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Ghent
Flanders (Belgium)
e-mail: roger.standaert@ond.vlaanderen.be

Comparative Education in Norway

Birgit Brock-Utne & Tone Skinningsrud

Introduction

The first part of this article will deal with the history of the field of Comparative Education in Norway. The early writers in the field might have given some lectures on Comparative Education when teaching the history of education but they did not teach courses designated 'Comparative and International Education'. Four Nordic organizations working in the field will also be briefly mentioned at the end of the first part of the article.

Comparative Education as a study field in Norway has one of its institutional bases at the Institute for Educational Research at University of Oslo where the Master's Programme (M.Phil) and a Bachelor's course in Comparative and International Education is based. Furthermore, Oslo University College started in 1996 a Bachelor's programme and in 1997 a Master's course in Development and Multicultural Education. The founder of both of these studies is Anders Breilid. The history behind these programmes, the aims and structure, curricula and main textbooks will be described in the second part of this article.

History of the Study of Comparative Education in Norway

Norway was established as a separate nation state with its own constitution in 1814, after an almost 400-year union with Denmark. After 1814 a separate Norwegian government was established in the capital of Christiania (later renamed as Oslo) and Norwegian state authorities assumed responsibility for education within its geographical boundaries.

The Study of Foreign Schools for Educational Policy Borrowing

The first Norwegian studies of education in other countries were undertaken in a new nation to collect information that would be of use to the development of education at home. At an early stage of nationhood, the Norwegian government financed a number of studies by prominent members of Norwegian society who travelled abroad to learn how to develop their own home institutions. In 1836-37, Fredrik Moltke Bugge (1806-1853) spent one year in Germany and France on a state scholarship and published three volumes which presented the German educational system to the Norwegian public (Bugge, 1839). In 1853, the educationist and ministry official Hartvig Nissen (1815-1874), likewise travelled on a state grant to Scotland to study their elementary education. His journey resulted in a publication on the Scottish common school with recommendations for the improvement of its Norwegian counterpart (Nissen, 1856). Both Bugge and Nissen used the knowledge they had gained abroad to develop and promote ideas of educational reform in Norway.

The impressive scholarship behind these 19th century educationalists' ideas of national educational reforms was not based in the academic discipline of education. Both Bugge and Nissen were linguists by training. In Norway, during the 1800s, education was not yet established as an academic discipline in its own right.

The interest among Norwegian educators in educational ideas from abroad has not only been in the macro-policy of educational institutional arrangements, but also in philosophies and ideas about the intrinsic nature of educational processes. In the 1930s the ideas of progressive education gained a following in Norway. Anna Sethne (1872-1961) was the leader of the Norwegian branch of the international progressive education organization, New Education Fellowship, for 20 years, from 1929 to 1949. She implemented many of the ideas of progressive education in her work as the head of a school, as a leader of the National Association of Women Teachers, as the editor of the teacher journal *Vår skole* (Our School), as a member of the Labour Movement and as a teacher representative in various official committees. Anna Sethne was actively engaged in establishing educational research as a distinctive field at the academic level (Dale, 2004).

Comparative Education as an Academic Discipline

The first professorship in education at the University in Christiania was established in 1907, but the Institute for Educational Research at the University of Oslo was not established until 1938. The first Director of the Institute was Helga Eng, a prolific researcher who wrote very critically about experimentalism – an educational philosophy she had encountered on her many study tours to Germany and Britain (Eng, 1937).

Otto Anderssen, the first appointed professor of education attached to the seminarium, took a scholarly interest in the study of Comparative Education. In one of his books *Portraits of the History of Education*, he compared the historically changing relationship between education, state and church in Western democracies (Anderssen, 1914).

In the study of education at the Institute for Educational Research at the University in Oslo, established in the late 1930s, Comparative Education became part of the undergraduate curriculum. The main textbooks were Sandven (1948) on educational ideas in the US and Sjøstedt and Sjöstrand (1952) on the educational system in Sweden and other countries. Sandven's book was written within the tradition of learning from another country. Sjøstedt and Sjöstrand provided a comparative description of educational structures in various countries.

During the 1960s, the debate concerning the scientific standing of the sub-discipline comparative education was gaining momentum. In a programmatic article of 1964, Per Rand presented a state of the art survey of the international literature in the field (Rand, 1971). He argued for a more scientific comparative approach by dismissing the 'national character' explanations of educational uniqueness in individual countries. He also made a case for systematic comparisons between countries, not just descriptions, and he urged a change of emphasis from a sociological to a more genuinely pedagogical perspective. He advocated for empirical comparative studies based on contemporary statistical data, and cited the early international studies of educational achievements in mathematics as exemplary.

The Nordic Organizations: NASEDEC, NOCIES, NICE and NETREED

The oldest of the Nordic organizations within the field of international education is NASEDEC (Nordic Association for the Study of Education in Developing Countries). This is also the organization which has had the most members and most activity. This

may not come as a surprise as many of the internationally oriented educational researchers in the Nordic countries have been involved in research and evaluation projects as part of Nordic development aid. Since the start of NASEDEC in 1981 (Brock-Utne & Nagel, 1996) and approximately for twenty years, the yearly NASEDEC conferences were the most important meeting places for Nordic researchers interested in education in developing countries and countries in transition. The development agency in the country where the conference was hosted always came up with a good grant for researchers from the developing countries to attend the conferences. The conservative government which took over in Denmark at the beginning of the new millennium did not want to grant money for NASEDEC, and made cuts in the development aid budget. At that time the NASEDEC secretariat was based in Denmark. The organization never recovered from this blow.

A smaller organization with more focus directed to Europe, NOCIES (Nordic Comparative and International Education Society) was formed in 1991 (Winther-Jensen, 1991). NOCIES was regarded as the Nordic branch of CESE (Comparative Education Society in Europe). The founders, Thyge Winther Jensen in Denmark and Torstein Harbo in Norway, saw to it that NOCIES became a member of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies. In 1996 Elisabeth Buk-Berge was elected Chair of NOCIES. She applied for money from the Nordic Academy for Researcher Training (NorFa) but was told that money had been given to another Nordic network, NICE (Nordic International and Comparative Education). NOCIES had since become dormant until its revitalization in 2007 under the leadership of Mina O'Dowd and Lennart Wikander.

NICE was a network run for four years by Arild Tjeldvoll (1996-2000) at the Institute for Educational Research at the University of Oslo (Tjeldvoll, 1998). When the funding of NorFa ceased, the network collapsed. NICE was mostly a meeting place for PhD students from the Nordic countries working with theses related to International and Comparative Education.

NETREED (Network for Research and Evaluation of Education for Development) started in 2001 with money from the Norwegian Research Council. NETREED had a well-developed web-page (<http://www.netreed.uio.no>) which kept track of researchers and evaluators based in Norway working with education and development and of physical meetings between the researchers, evaluators and administrators of research. At the time of writing, the future of NETREED was under discussion.

Comparative and International Education at the University of Oslo

History of the Programme

When Birgit Brock-Utne returned 1992 from Tanzania where she had worked as a Professor of Education at the University of Dar es Salaam for nearly five years, she started teaching a course in English called 'Education in Africa'. The Director of the Institute for Educational Research at that time, Anton Hoem, started a series of meetings of a group of academics at the Institute interested in Comparative, Multicultural and International Education. In 1995, Hoem also asked Torstein Harbo and Birgit Brock-Utne to cooperate in working out a series of lectures on Comparative and International Education to be given in the introductory course. Harbo had co-edited a book on Comparative Education in the Nordic countries with a Danish colleague (Harbo & Winther-Jensen, 1993) and used that book extensively in his teaching. The

chapters in the book were all written in Norwegian or Danish with the exception of the chapter on Comparative Education in Finland written by Reijo Raivola (1993) from the University of Tampere which was written in English. Torstein Harbo (1993) wrote on comparative, international and multicultural studies in Norway. Thyge Winther-Jensen (1993) wrote about the development of Comparative Education in Denmark. Birgit Brock-Utne lectured mostly on education in Africa and aid to the education sector in developing countries. She had written on both of these topics and some of these texts were introduced into the curricula of the introductory course (Brock-Utne, 1993, 1995a, 1995b). Two other academic staff members at the same Institute were at the same time teaching courses dealing with other cultures. Kamil Øzerk taught a course in Multicultural Education, and Arild Tjeldvoll in Educational Leadership International.

In 1997 Birgit Brock-Utne took the initiative to create an international Master's programme in International Education at the Institute for Educational Research. The programme built on the two courses given in English 'Education in Africa' taught by Brock-Utne and 'Educational Policies and Planning' taught by Tjeldvoll. The programme has been taught in English since its start and most of the students come from other countries, many from developing countries especially from Africa.

Structure and Organization of the Programme

When the programme started in 1998 the students had to choose right from the start a specialization in 'Educational Policies and Planning' or in 'Education in Africa'. The evaluations from the first couple of years showed that the students wanted to have the first semester together, and this request was implemented. Starting in Fall 2000, the first semester of this two year Master's programme was a common introductory semester. With more student enrollees from Asia and Latin America, Brock-Utne decided to call her specialization 'Education and Development' rather than 'Education in Africa' thereby including other developing countries.

The Master's programme in Comparative and International Education consists of four semesters. The first semester gives

- a short introduction to the field of Comparative and International Education and to Curriculum Development. (10 ECTS credits; European Credit Transfer System)
- an introduction to the two specialization areas: 'Education and Development' and 'Educational Policies and Planning' (10 ECTS credits)
- an introduction to research methods and statistics (10 ECTS credits).

In the second semester students continue with a second course in research methods (10 ECTS credits). In addition, the two specialization areas within Comparative and International Education are offered. The areas of specialization are:

- Education and Development II (20 ECTS credits)
- Educational Policy and Planning II (20 ECTS credits).

Since the lectures for the two specialization areas are now offered sequentially, and not parallel, students also have the opportunity to attend some of the lectures for the specialization area they have not selected. At the conclusion of the second semester, the students attend a research proposal seminar (5 ECTS credits) in preparation for their thesis work. The third semester offers targeted research method courses at an advanced level (5 ECTS credits). In addition the students will start work on their thesis (20 ECTS credits). All students may combine their thesis work with field work. Students who

have chosen Education and Development II as their specialization, are also highly recommended to conduct field work in developing countries in connection with their thesis writing. In the fourth semester students are to concentrate fully on thesis work (30 ECTS credits) and complete it at the end of the fourth semester.

Aims of the M.Phil. Programme in Comparative and International Education

The aim of the Master's Programme in Comparative and International Education (CIE) is to prepare professionals to be capable of critically assessing and evaluating educational practice, policies and initiatives taken in a wide variety of social and educational settings. Since Comparative Education is such a broad field, participants will be trained in solving complex issues within a wide range of theoretical frameworks and provided with a variety of methodological tools. In addition to providing students with a broad understanding of the field, the programme also requires students from the second semester to concentrate their course work on one of the two areas of specialization offered. The intention of the programme is also to make the students develop a deeper insight through writing an academic thesis.

The approach of the Programme is interdisciplinary and emphasizes the acquisition of a broad understanding of and a critical outlook on educational institutions, systems and their programmes and curricula.

The Programme emphasizes the acquisition of a broad understanding of educational institutions, systems and their programmes/curricula, stressing an understanding of the political, cultural, socio-economic and technological aspects of educational development and change.

The role of research and innovation in educational development is emphasized, as well as the acquisition of planning, management and evaluation skills to be applied within national, regional, and international contexts. Many of the students who have chosen the specialization area Education and Development have participated in the LOITASA (Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa) project conducted by Birgit Brock-Utne. The main textbook is *Whose Education for All? The Recolonisation of the African Mind* (Brock-Utne, 2000).

The Bachelor's Level Course in Comparative and International Education

A Bachelor's course in Comparative and International Education was first taught by Elisabeth Buk-Berge in 2002 and was later taught by Halla Holmarsdottir. A textbook for the teaching of the course in Norwegian was developed in 2006 (Brock-Utne & Bøyesen, 2006). The book is divided into three parts. The first deals with multicultural education in Norway. The second part of the book starts with a chapter discussing comparative perspectives on school systems introduced and maintained by the State (Skinningsrud, 2006). This second part further deals with comparative international studies like TIMSS and PISA. It follows up ideas already discussed by Per Rand (1971). The third part of the textbook deals with education and development. It both looks at education in developing countries and Norwegian assistance to the education sector in developing countries.

Conclusion

As seen from this account Comparative Education as an organized graduate study in Norway is of recent origin. Yet Comparative Education in Norway has long roots. It started out by leading educators travelling to other countries to bring home educational ideas from abroad. They travelled mostly to other West European countries. The aim of their travels was a practical one. They were to bring home ideas from abroad that could be used in the Norwegian educational system.

A study of Comparative Education for academic purposes formed part of the curriculum of the study of education at an undergraduate level at the Institute for Educational Research at the University of Oslo throughout the 1950s and the 1960s. The main textbook was a volume in Swedish by Sjöstedt & Sjöstrand (1952). The professors lecturing on the book came from the discipline History of Education. A book by Sandven (1948) on educational ideas in the US was also in use.

Though the organization NASEDEC started in 1981 and thus showed the interest of also Norwegian researchers for working academically with education and development, it was not before the 1990s that both the University of Oslo and Oslo University College offered graduate studies in Education and Development. While Oslo University College has included the field of Multicultural Education in their international Master's programme taught in English, the University of Oslo teaches this field only at an undergraduate level and in Norwegian. The University of Oslo has, however, placed an emphasis on Comparative Education not found in the international Master's at Oslo University College. It may be correct to say that now the field of Comparative Education in Norway focuses both on Multicultural Education & Comparative Education worldwide, and Education and Development.

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Prof. Dr. Birgit Brock-Utne
University of Oslo
Norway
e-mail: birgit.brock-utne@ped.uio.no

Tone Skinningsrud
University of Tromsø
Norway
e-mail: tones@sv.uit.no

Comparative Pedagogy in Russia: Historic and Current Discourses

Reinhard Golz

Introduction

In respect of its geopolitical structure, cultural heterogeneity, but also its many borders to other states, Russia has no equal (Golz, 2001, p.86f.). This country plays a major role in both historic and current globalization and transformation processes. Russia's current societal development and thus also the development of its educational system are characterized to an extent by the area of tension between being aware of the nation and international openness. Given all this, in the Western world there is only insufficient information about Russian educational science and particularly about Russian "Comparative Pedagogy" („Сравнительная Педагогика“). Studies on Comparative Pedagogy in the Russian language deserve more consideration in the Western world. Russian educational comparativists have provided valuable contributions to the discourse on the theoretical-methodological foundations of this discipline and also have established it as a subject of educational training. Based on the analysis of mainly Russian language sources, in the following the history and the current state of the art of Russian Comparative Pedagogy will be discussed.

Historic Overview

In Russia, the interest in educational thinking and acting in other countries developed in the 18th century at the latest and reached its peak in the 19th century. Among others, German pedagogy was in the focus of interest. European educational experiences were in most cases positively received in Russia. However, there were also Russian educationalists who did not only rely on literature which was available in Russia to evaluate foreign theories. The author Lev N. Tolstoy (1828-1910) and particularly the educationalist Konstantin D. Ushinsky (1824-1870) formed their own opinion on the demands and the reality of European pedagogy when travelling through Europe. Independently of each other, both of them drew cautious or even negative conclusions in respect of the transferability of foreign experiences to the Russian educational system (Schneider, 1961, p.33; p.76f.; Golz, 2003). Of particular importance is Konstantin D. Ushinsky's work. It includes the essential problems of educational theory, it is worked out in a remarkably interdisciplinary way, and it includes many insights of educational anthropology, general didactics, educational psychology, literature for children and, not least Comparative Pedagogy which are worth discussing. It is a scientifically intolerable situation when one looks mostly in vain for the name of the 'Father of Russian pedagogy' in more recent German and other non-Slavic textbooks on the history of pedagogy, on Comparative Pedagogy, or in similar reference works.

Ushinsky analyzes and compares the characteristics of the educational systems of Germany, Great Britain, France, and North America, and draws the following conclusion: the 'national character' which is typical for every people refers to

everything which makes a people's life: religion, nature, family life, tradition, poetry, laws, industry, literature etc., but particularly to public education. Indeed the European educational systems show similarities of subjects, of organization, of didactic methods, and of the laws of school discipline. But every people has its own national system and its own objectives and means of education which originate from respective national particularities and individualities (Ушинский [Ushinsky], 1948, pp.71ff.; Ushinsky, 1963, p.60). In other words: "Russia cannot and should not copy German methods, it neither needs German illnesses nor German remedies. All national characteristics are expressions of the national character (...): they show advantages and disadvantages, but they cannot be arbitrarily exchanged" (Kegler, 1991, p.72). Just the same, Ushinsky had pointed out national flaws which must be named. But he also pointed out that nobody has the right to judge any other people by applying the idea of his/her own national character as a criterion (Ushinsky, 1963, p.68).

The various new editions of Ushinsky's works may perhaps also overcome some one-sided interpretations of his (at first sight) markedly national idea of education and will thus do more justice to his works which play an immense role within the current process of the democratization and humanization of education. Obviously, markedly national orientations are a part of the current ('patriotic') Russian spirit of these times. But here there are also starting points for both patriotic and enlightened intercultural positions. For the leading Russian educationalist N.D. Nikandrov, for example, the current and prospective goal of socialization and education is also the "Russian patriot who is orientated towards the priority of Russian national values, while respecting the values of other cultures" (Никандров [Nikandrov], 2001, p.202).

One thing is clear: the knowledge of Ushinsky's work makes it easier to understand the current Russian debate on pedagogy. Also the horizon of Comparative Pedagogy may be extended by dealing more strongly with Ushinsky, even if he – as far as the possibility of transferring foreign educational experiences to one's own national field is concerned – supports an opinion which is different from the commonly quoted founders of this discipline (such as M. A. Jullien de Paris).

For the English speaking countries, one remark by V.I. Malinin from the year 1974 is perhaps still valid today, according to which foreign comparativists "after all do not know anything at all" about comparative educational research in Russia. In contrast to this, Malinin is able to quote about one hundred studies on comparing the educational systems of two or more countries, which were published in Russia or the Soviet Union between 1863 and 1930 (Malinin, 1974, p.210f.). The varied history of Comparative Pedagogy as an independent discipline of research and teaching in Russia and the Soviet Union has also been described by other Russian authors (Родионов [Rodionov], 1999; Джури́нский [Dzhurinsky], 2005, p.61ff.; Хуторско́й [Khutorskoy], 2006, p.10ff.; Вульфсон [Vulfson], 2003 and others); there is also a German study on the period between 1917 and 1951 (Krüger-Potratz, 1974).

During the 1950s and 1960s, the interest in foreign pedagogy increased in the Soviet Union, most of all to "learn about the weak spots of the school and educational systems of non-Communist countries" (Schneider, 1961, p.78). At the beginning of the 1970s, the development of Comparative Pedagogy as an independent discipline of educational training, as well as the unbiased comparison of Soviet and foreign schools and pedagogy, were still obstructed. This situation has changed since the end of the 1980s. At some universities as well as at the Russian Academy of Educational Sciences in Moscow (today: Russian Academy of Education), new scientific centres where

problems of Comparative Pedagogy are being worked at are emerging. Russian scientists discuss various aspects of Comparative Pedagogy and compare educational developments throughout the world. Monographs, articles, and dissertation theses as well as several university textbooks on Comparative Pedagogy analyzing the educational experiences of one or several states and relating foreign and Russian educational developments to each other have been published. The Centre of Comparative Pedagogy at the Russian Academy of Education is of particular importance. In this context, Russia's important educational journal *Paedagogica* (Педагогика) should also be mentioned; V.P. Borisenkov is the editor-in-chief. This magazine includes a permanent column 'Сравнительная Педагогика' (Comparative Pedagogy).

Given the space available here, it is only possible to point out the lists of references in Джуринский [Dzhurinsky] (1998, 2005), Вульфсон [Vulfson] (2003), Хуторской [Khutorskoy] (2006), as well as to the great number of references to be found in the Internet – most of them in Russian.¹

Current Status as a Subject

In April 2005, the Russian Federation's Ministry of Education and Science passed the 'Educational Standards of Higher Professional Training'. There, in the context of the discipline of Pedagogy, Comparative Pedagogy is mentioned among 20 'professional training' disciplines with 120 lessons, in comparison to Pedagogy of Professional Education (199 lessons), Family Education (120), Social Pedagogy (300), and History of Pedagogy (168). One half of the number of lessons is used for teaching (lectures, seminars, exercises) and the other half for independent work. Meanwhile, independent Comparative Pedagogy courses have been established at several universities (Arkhangelsk, Moscow, Nizhnyi Novgorod, Pyatigorsk, Juzhno-Sakhalinsk, Jaroslavl et al.). An example is the well worked out seven semesters BA course on Comparative Pedagogy at the State University of Pedagogy 'K. D. Ushinsky' in Jaroslavl. This course is also very clearly represented in the Internet, with information on the teaching program, seminar schedules, subjects of lectures, tests for self-monitoring, glossaries, literature references, and tasks of a problem-oriented, scientific and artistic nature (Молоков [Molokov], 2007). Tasks of the course include informing about particularities of national educational systems; the development of comparative skills; the development of an adequate, critical, and tolerant attitude towards foreign educational experiences; and orientation towards most recent educational achievements of foreign countries. Students should perfect their educational style and extend their scientific-educational and general cultural level. Furthermore, students should recognize general, particular, and common aspects of the international development of education as well as possibilities and limits of transferring foreign experiences to the Russian educational system (ibid.).

In Russian publications as well as in other courses on Comparative Pedagogy this discipline is often combined with the History of Pedagogy. Contents and rank of the academic plan of History of Pedagogy and Comparative Pedagogy programs depend on

¹ For further information please contact the author: reinhard@golz.tk

the specific nature of the respective universities. A. N. Dzhurinsky, a specialist of Comparative Pedagogy, History of Pedagogy, and Polycultural [Поликультурное] Education at The State's Educational University in Moscow, gives examples of courses on History of Pedagogy and Comparative Pedagogy (Джуринский [Dzhurinsky], 2005, p.136ff.). An interesting feature of the History of Pedagogy course – apart from generally common topics – is its emphasis on education in Israel, India, and China, as well as dealing with Brahmanism, Buddhism, and Confucianism; also worth mentioning are the 'Educational Ideas of Eastern Slavs'. Details follow on organization and methods of studying History of Pedagogy and Comparative Pedagogy by lessons, seminars, on preparing lectures, seminar and diploma papers, on independent work with sources, electronic information, films, statistics, iconography etc. The special course on Comparative Pedagogy is supposed to be offered only after History of Pedagogy as well as after having achieved knowledge of philosophy, sociology, and history. History of Pedagogy and Comparative Pedagogy are quantitatively differently weighed. On 26 pages Dzhurinsky lists about 500 publications – most of them in the Russian language – on studying both disciplines (the great majority of references being on History of Pedagogy). There are also examples of control tasks on the quality of teaching as well as questions, tasks, topics for tests, lectures, and course and diploma papers. Also here a quantitative aspect can be evidenced: 116 'Questions and Tasks' refer to History of Pedagogy and 43 to Comparative Pedagogy (Джуринский [Dzhurinsky], 2005, pp.142-190).

It should be added that some universities offer special programs on Comparative Pedagogy, which combine the comparative analysis of educational experiences in Russia and other countries with the national language which must be studied. Some publications establish connections between Comparative Pedagogy and 'Polycultural Education'. At some universities, 'Polycultural Education' has also started to develop as an independent field of teaching and research. Among respective publications that deserve consideration are Бондаревская & Гукаленко [Bondarevskaya & Gukalenko] (2000), Гукаленко [Gukalenko] (2003), Борисенков/Гукаленко/Данилюк [Borisenkov, Gukalenko & Danilyuk] (2004), Джуринский [Dzhurinsky] (2007).

More Recent Discourses on Methodology

Studies are criticized which judge foreign experiences according to a 'good-bad' pattern, something which in respect of the sciences, results in soulless conclusions on Russia supposedly having nothing to learn from foreign countries. To overcome this tendency, Russian Comparative Pedagogy should deal more intensively with its own scientific foundations (Джуринский [Dzhurinsky], 2005, p.63f.).

Precisely this is the field of work of one of the doyens of Russian Comparative Pedagogy, Б.Л. Вульфсон [Vulfson] (2002, 2003, 2006a, 2006b). In his more recent studies he points out problems of comparative criteria such as the number of population, or economic and socio-political conditions. One important criterion, he says, is the individual-related gross domestic product (GDP). However, he states that in Russia the GDP is lower than in developed countries of the West, but the cultural and educational level of the population is still very high. Thus it is hardly possible to base Comparative Pedagogy only on socio-economic indicators. Appropriate comparisons may result in simplifications and distortions of reality, the recording of the entire variety of international educational systems may become more difficult this way, and

the dynamics of change cannot be shown. Vulfson speaks out against a positivist ‘cult of facts’ which results in a loss of theoretical understanding. The latter, he says, is again dependent on a thorough understanding of concrete phenomena. Not every comparative analysis is always able to proportionally do justice to both sides. Interviews, conversations, and ‘first hand’ information essentially complete the insight one gets on the basis of studying literature and sources (Вульфсон [Vulfson], 2002). A closer look at many Russian studies reveals that the use of qualitative methods of social research, however, is still only marginal.

A Special Case: The Educational Space of the Community of Independent States (CIS)

Recently, several authors have been dealing with developments of the post-Soviet educational space, particularly with the CIS, e.g. Хуторской [Khutorskoy] (2006), Гукаленко [Gukalenko] (2006), Джурицкий [Dzhurinsky] (2007) et al. This new branch of Comparative Pedagogy is about “our nextdoor neighbours”, furthermore “a population of many millions of Russian and Russian-speaking people lives there; in some of the new states it is confronted with serious difficulties in the fields of culture and education, and sometimes even with open discrimination” (Вульфсон [Vulfson], 2006, p.61, quoted in Khutorskoy, 2006, p. 22).

Particularly A.B. Хуторской [Khutorskoy] (2006) deals with this research problem. In Khutorskoy’s opinion, the problem of creating a common educational area on CIS territory has developed in analogy to educational programmes of the EU. This requires mutual acceptance of educational degrees and the introduction of common educational standards. At the same time it is about introducing a ‘human’ orientation of education in the sense of a standard. The crucial term in Khutorskoy is «человекосообразность» [chelovekosoobraznost] (ibid., p.33).² The objective is the development of ‘human potential’ in the CIS countries, while partly including the Baltic countries. He criticizes the fact that currently societal and state norms and not character-oriented ones seem to have priority. School is rather orientated towards the needs of the ‘socium’, it does hardly care about the development of ‘human man’. The integration of this educational area, he says, is important, but not for its own sake but in the interest of the people and their education. Khutorskoy describes socio-political, educational, and information-technological factors of the CIS educational area which are also of importance for the development of Comparative Pedagogy. A variety of statistic overviews on the comparison of dealing with human capital in the single CIS countries support this impressive concept of ‘humanly-appropriate education’. He asserts to have thus worked out a new approach to comparative educational research and essential key competencies for the CIS educational area (ibid., p.193).

Russia and China – an example of binary comparison

Through a common research and publication project Russian and Chinese representatives of Comparative Pedagogy have provided one remarkable example which analyzes and compares educational reform in Russia and China at the turn from the XXth to the XXIst century (Боревская [Borevskaya], Борисенков [Borisenkov],

² There is no adequate English or German translation for this term; it might be translated as ‘being appropriate to humans’.

Сяоман [Syaoman], 2007). This publication includes contributions by 19 Russian and 21 Chinese authors. From the methodological point of view, this publication is of particular significance. Chinese and Russian authors analyzed the situation and the trends of the educational development in their respective countries on the basis of a previously worked out structure of comparing identical or similar problems. When this concept was worked out, difficult questions had to be answered, e.g. in respect of objectives and a common terminology and methodology (Борисенков & Вульфсон [Borisenkov & Vulfson] (2007, p.13). After all, it is not that two different studies which are only connected by a common title on the sleeve were developed, but a complex research resulting in an extensive, comprehensive comparison of current educational problems of both countries, from school institutions up to university, in one, extended educational-sociological, historical-cultural, and educational context. Based on an extended number of sources both educational systems are characterized. Every chapter is consistently divided into two parts: analyses by Russian and Chinese experts, and comparison of situation, problems, and prospects – also both from the Russian and the Chinese points of view. The analytical and comparative aspects of this book are summarized – again from the points of view of the representatives of both countries. The book includes an extensive presentation of the results of the comparison in the English language. One can only agree with Mark Bray that “The present book is a great contribution to the literature (...). The methodological and conceptual insights will be of great value to scholars beyond Russia and China as well as within it. The authors and editors are indeed to be applauded” (Bray, 2007, p.591).

Conclusion

Russian educational comparativists have provided valuable contributions to the debate on theoretical-methodological foundations of this discipline and have established it as a subject of educational training. Meanwhile, there are Comparative Pedagogy centres and courses at several Russian universities, a typical feature of which is the development of curricula which are clearly structured according to topical and methodological principles. Currently, the discourse within Russian Comparative Pedagogy is characterized by the area of tension between trends of internationalizing educational developments and observing national traditions and particularities of the transformation process. The Russian educational comparativists’ theoretical-methodological discourse deserves to be taken more into consideration by the Western world.

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Prof. Dr. Reinhard Golz
Professor of Historical, Comparative and Intercultural Educational Studies
University of Magdeburg, Germany
International Member of the Russian Academy of Education
e-mail: reinhard@golz.tk

Comparative Education in Serbia: Historical Development, Current Status and Perspectives

Vera Spasenovic & Natasa Vujisic-Zivkovic

Introduction

The aim of this article is to present the history of Comparative Education as a scientific and academic discipline in Serbia and to identify factors that influenced its development either in a positive or a negative way, but also to review the possibilities of its comprehensive academic development. It is assumed that the “social approach to research of social sciences” (Bourdieu, 1995, p. 4), as applied by the majority of contemporary education historians on the process of disciplinarization of educational sciences, also suits the purpose of this review.

In the first part of this article, basic facts on the history of comparative education research in Serbia are presented, while in the second section the current status and perspectives of development of Comparative Education are reviewed.

The history of Comparative Education research in Serbia

There were three basic historical periods during which Comparative Education research in Serbia was conducted: a) period of development of the state and civic society (second half of the 19th and the first half of the 20th century); b) the socialist period (1945-1990) and c) the post-socialist period marked by wars in ex-Yugoslavia during the nineties of the 20th century and an attempt of societal transformation and European integration after the year 2000.

During all these periods, influences of the basic dynamic processes in the society on the development of educational science were apparent. Thus, there were: 1) tensions between the need to ensure social and professional relevancy of educational science and the need for it to be scientifically relevant; 2) contradictory relationships between the process of autonomization in relation to other sister disciplines and multidisciplinary development of educational science (Hofstetter & Schneuwly, 2002).

The period of the national state development and creation of civic society has been significantly marked by modernisation of education and legal regulations of the school system. The introduction of compulsory general education in 1882 and efforts to improve didactical aspects of education, the search for an adequate model of high school education and adjustment of curricula to the needs of the time, increasingly required reliance on external experiences. Leading pedagogues were educated abroad, predominantly in Germany. Introduction of the public education statistics (during the 1870s) enabled comparison between domestic and foreign educational policies, such as rates of students' participation in formal education, numbers of students at particular levels of education, number of female students, funds available for education, teachers' salaries and students' scholarships, etc. Reform movement in education was based on the idea that only an educated nation can find its place in the European community of nations. A frequently stated idea was that wars are not won by guns and cannons but by schools and teachers. This thought illustrates in the best way the unity of national and

professional demands set up for the educational science. It was up to this science to develop theory and practice of educational work to such extent as to enable teachers to transform the system of education so that it becomes the basic means for implementation of the national policy.

The interest for reforms and modernization of the education system enhanced better understanding of the foreign educational practice. Numerous articles in local educational journals addressed the reform in European countries. In *The Primary Teacher (Učitelj)*, established in 1882 as an official journal of the Primary Teachers' Association, these articles were mainly related to primary schools, education and material status of teachers, while the Secondary School Teachers Association journal, *The Secondary School Teacher (Nastavnik)*, published since 1890, paid most attention to the secondary school reform, as related to advantages and disadvantages of the humanistic-oriented (“classical”) and science-oriented (“real”) secondary schools. Differences between primary and secondary school teachers, as well as the two journals they were publishing in, were not restricted only to the topics addressed, but also to the sources of information and the approach to problems. Primary school teachers predominantly used Russian sources, even when writing about West European education. Secondary school teachers knew more foreign languages and understood better the situation in West European countries that they visited on study tours sponsored by the government. This difference was reflected during annual assemblies of the two associations – while primary teachers rarely referred to foreign practice, secondary school teachers meticulously observed high school reforms in European countries in an effort to reach the model most suitable to the situation in Serbia. In 1893, secondary school teachers at their annual assembly chose Swedish “uniform” type of high schools, as opposed to the German and French models that teachers in Serbia were more familiar with. On demand of high school teachers, the Department for Pedagogy was established in 1892 at the Faculty of Philosophy of Belgrade, which was a part of *Velika Škola*, the highest educational institution in Serbia from 1863 to 1905. The first assignment of this Department was to ensure theoretical and practical preparation of future teachers for educational work. Professional associations had a significant role in the creation of the School Museum (1896), envisioned as a place for collection and development of educational materials from foreign countries.

Demands for development of pedagogical institutions and programmes coming from professional fields were often excluded due to lack of finances and interests of political parties to control the system of education. The responsibility of the political elite for poor conditions in education was stressed by a geographer, Vladimir Karic (Karic, 1886). He used official statistics to compare the effectiveness of systems in Serbia, Bulgaria and Croatia. This book can be perceived as the first comparative study on education in Serbia.

From the early 20th century to the beginning of the Second World War, there was a continuous increase of interest for foreign theory and practice. Directions in the modern educational science, such as experimental education, work school and American progressive education were widely reviewed. There were translations of the works of German social democrats but there was also a great interest for the school system in the Soviet Union, presented to Serbian audience by the Russian pedagogue, Sergei Hessen. During the thirties, there was an attempt by education science Professor Milan Sevic to create the National Centre for Educational Documentation that was supposed to cooperate with the International Bureau for Education (IBE) in Geneva.

Still, when assessing that time, one cannot argue for the existence of Comparative Education as a scientific discipline. The reasons for this can be found in the characteristics of social sciences development in Serbia. During the 19th century, scientific production in philosophy and social sciences was mainly reduced to the adjustment of foreign work to school needs. Also, there was a slow process of specialization of certain professions at the University. Priority in this period was given to national sciences, historical geography, ethnography, geography and philology.

Under such conditions, educational science was not developed through the process of differentiation in relation to psychology and philosophy because these disciplines were not completely constituted as distinct scientific entities. Instead, it was created as a result of scientific theory meeting with the needs of the professional community. When experimental education appeared, there were the first demands to label it as a research discipline and these demands were backed up by the national need for educational knowledge. This strategy was called “the nationalization of educational knowledge” and it would be used on later occasions when labeling of educational research was required (Vujisic-Zivkovic & Spasenovic, 2009).

Summing up the influence of specific factors on development of Comparative Education in Serbia during the period of development of the state and civic society, one can say that:

- Work on the reform of education presented the basic incentive for the development of a comparative perspective in considering educational issues;
- The professional community of primary and secondary school teachers showed a great interest in the system of education in other countries;
- The achieved level of international networking and academic institutionalization of educational science presented critical points in the development of comparative education.

The socialist period of education development in ex-Yugoslavia (1945-1990) was characterized by general educational policies of all communist parties: ideological monopoly of education, democratization of educational system in terms of better accessibility to all levels of education, spreading the network of educational institutions, gender equality in education system and exclusion of religion from the public school system. Besides, there were certain specificities of the so-called Yugoslav socialist self-governance, developed after parting with the Moscow politics in 1948. They were reflected in the area of education by an increase of employees' participation in governing educational institutions and in an attempt to develop authentic Yugoslav practices and theories of education, particularly conspicuous during the reform of secondary education in the seventies. The Socialist regime was marked by a contradictory attitude towards scientific work: based on the myth of “scientific socialism”, it declaratively highly valued scientific work and encouraged the creation of scientific associations, including pedagogical associations, while firmly advocated for primacy of practice over theory. The “Yugoslav socialist practice” in education was seen as an embodiment of political party programme and not as a reality of educational practice. Under such circumstances, dealing with the theoretical and methodological issues of educational science and formation of its research identity had certain incentive but was conducted under the shadow of constant threat of jeopardizing the dominant ideological pattern.

Along with emancipation from the Soviet influence in the fifties and debate about the new type of uniform eight grade primary school, there was an opening towards the

West and adoption of the methodology of empirical research developed in Western countries and an increased interest for the state of the education system in European countries (Potkonjak, 1994). These influences were mainly taking place through the cooperation with UNESCO. Bibliographic data point out that there was an increase in the number of articles on educational practice in the West during that period, especially on the reform of primary and secondary schools and teacher training (Vujisic-Zivkovic, 2006). Following that trend, the leading expert in comparative approach to education in ex-Yugoslavia published his first paper on the history, tasks and methods of Comparative Education (Frankovic, 1955).

Observing characteristics of the disciplinarization process of educational science during the socialist period, one can notice the following phenomena. Along with the development of university pedagogy departments, the quality level of articles in educational journals was increasing, followed by a disappearance of practitioners' articles in scientific communication. This shift was symbolically marked by changing the name and editing concept of the central Yugoslav journal from *Contemporary School* to *Pedagogy* in 1963. Similar trend of educational science development took place in other countries (Keiner, 2002), but in ex-Yugoslavia this change had specific motives: secondary school teachers gained more rights at their work places but in return they had to abandon challenging the basis of education system functioning. So there were no more previously frequent examples of primary and secondary school teachers presenting foreign systems of education.

There was a strong influence of ideological prejudices on scientific thought and this had a negative effect on the development of Comparative Education. Psychology and sociology were perceived as bourgeois sciences for a very long time, preventing their development. Development of economy of education was also resisted. Frankovic (1971, p. 172) concluded that "it was not by chance that we are far behind other countries in this area". All this prevented an interdisciplinary approach to comparative research in education. In addition to this and in spite of the verbal criticism of positivism, positivistic paradigm significantly determined research in educational science, especially in PhD theses that made up a majority of scientific production. At the beginning of the sixties, attempts of scientists from the Faculty of Philosophy in Zagreb to involve Yugoslavia in a cross-national evaluation of the educational system failed, and such a research did not have a significant reception in the Yugoslav educational literature. Consequently, scientific production in Comparative Education remained within the framework of theoretical and methodological re-examination (Franković, 1972; Mitrovic, 1981; Savicevic, 1984) and informational articles on foreign education published by the Yugoslav Institute for the Research of School and Educational Issues in Belgrade.

All in all, the efforts to develop Comparative Education in three directions, (1) as a research field, (2) as an implementation field of educational policy, and (3) as an academic discipline (Frankovic, 1971, p. 193) did not have much success in the socialist period in ex-Yugoslavia, in spite of significant efforts by the pioneers in this area. The main reason for this failure was the fostering position of ethnocentricity in the search "for our authentic journey in education" which had strong ideological support (Vujisic-Zivkovic & Spasenovic, 2009).

Current status and developmental perspectives of Comparative Education in Serbia

A deep crisis in the society, wars and the breakup of ex-Yugoslavia led to the destruction of federal scientific, research and educational institutions. In spite of self-proclaimed political pluralism, Serbia in the nineties abolished the university autonomy. Since political changes in 2000, a long process of democratic transition and European integration of Serbia has been initiated, involving also the reform of education. Revitalization of the educational system was prioritized, while research in education remained overshadowed and out of focus of the ministry in charge of education. Yet, Serbia became involved in international comparative studies of the effectiveness of the school system – PISA (The Programme for International Student Assessment) and TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study).

Until recently, Comparative Education as an academic discipline was not present at the Serbian universities under that title. Topics on Comparative Education were mainly studied within other academic subjects, such as theory of education, history of education and school pedagogy. Constitution and functioning of the education system in European countries and directions of their further development were taught and studied separately within school pedagogy. After the reform of higher education in 2005 and in accordance with the Bologna process, three levels of studies were introduced: basic, master and PhD. In the curriculum of educational studies at the Department for Pedagogy at the Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade, Comparative Education was introduced as an elective course on master studies. The goal of this course is for students to learn about main historical, theoretical and methodological aspects of Comparative Education and understand modern tendencies and developmental perspectives of educational systems in Europe. At the PhD level, students are offered the course on Developmental Trends of Education Systems. In this course, changes in the systems of education in European countries in comparison to similar processes in Serbia are thoroughly studied.

At the Department for Pedagogy, Faculty of Philosophy in Nis, like in Belgrade, Comparative Education is studied as an elective course on master studies and has similar goals and curriculum. Unlike Belgrade and Nis, at the Department for Pedagogy in Novi Sad, Comparative Education is realized at the basic level of academic studies as a compulsory course. In Novi Sad, more attention is paid to theoretical and methodological questions and problems of Comparative Education as a scientific discipline, while in Belgrade and Nis, the focus is on international experiences in education and European tendencies in the development of educational systems. At the moment, Comparative Education is not studied as a separate course in any of the teacher training faculties in Serbia.

Since educational ethnocentrism in Serbia has been mainly overcome, there are brighter prospects for the future of Comparative Education as a scientific and academic discipline. Lack of critical mass of researchers in all educational disciplines, as a common problem for the whole region, could be partly remedied by intensive cooperation with scientists from neighbouring countries. Yet, the basic challenge for Comparative Education remains its social relevance and attractiveness for a wider circle of professionals in education, as well as verification of its status in the multidisciplinary field of pedagogical research. In Serbia, there is a tradition of paying the biggest societal and professional meaning to the research focused on “solving

practical issues“. Hence, “analytical” disciplines such as early childhood education, school pedagogy and didactics dominate over “synthetic” disciplines like Comparative Education. In addition, this type of empirical research is cheaper and does not demand researchers to take the risk of questioning political and economic conditions in which the educational practice is implemented. Comparative Education professionals are left with the task to show that challenging the societal, economic and cultural basis of the system and process of education largely increases knowledge necessary for the politicians and practitioners in education.

Efforts to move from “charismatically guided“ to rational “scientifically informed“ educational policy in Serbia, provide opportunities for running more intensive comparative research and for benefit from the results. So far, experiences with the reception of cross-national evaluation studies on the effectiveness of the system of education (such as PISA and TIMSS) indicate that there is an interest of educational authorities to apply their recommendations, but there is a superficial media presentation of these results that leads to numerous ambiguities in educational and lay public.

There is a confrontation in the scientific community between traditionalists and modernists on setting goals and standards of contemporary education. Lately, there has been an intensified dialogue between psychologists and pedagogues on one hand, and mathematicians, philologists and other professionals on the other, about teaching methods and professional development of teachers. Although arguments used in this dialogue come from the comparative international practice, insufficient understanding of relevant comparative research is apparent. Therefore, it is essential for university educational science departments to take over a bigger role in conceptualization, realization and dissemination of comparative research results, and this role can be achieved only by becoming involved in international trends of Comparative Education. The XIII World Congress of Comparative Education Societies in Sarajevo (2008) and the activities of the Bulgarian Comparative Education Society (BCES) have exercised very positive influence on the development of Comparative Education in Serbia over the recent years.

Conclusion

The analysis of the history of Comparative Education as a scientific and academic discipline in Serbia points to the reform of education, which has been perceived as an adjustment to and attainment of European standards over the whole period, as the most important determinant of development of comparative research in education. Still, insufficient institutionalization and internationalization of the educational science, along with an ideologically supported ethnocentricity approach to the educational theory over a period of time, significantly limited the achievements of the Comparative Education in Serbia.

Strong interest of teachers for international educational practice significantly contributed to the development of Comparative Education, but was pushed aside on behalf of the union rights of teachers. Questioning the role of Comparative Education in the formation of professional knowledge of teachers remains one of priorities of the present-day comparative educationalists. The process of disciplinarization of educational science in Serbia was detrimental to Comparative Education, largely because the comparative approach questioned starting political premises of educational research.

Under current circumstances, this “disturbing” position of Comparative Education could lead to significant expansion of horizons of educational research and set a base for fruitful dialogue with the educational policy. The social approach to the development of Comparative Education applied in this work left no space for addressing epistemological and methodological views of the Serbian comparative educationalists, and this issue remains to be clarified.

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Dr. Vera Spasenovic, Assistant Professor
University of Belgrade
Faculty of Philosophy
Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy
Serbia
e-mail: vspaseno@f.bg.ac.rs

Dr. Natasa Vujisic-Zivkovic, Assistant Professor
University of Belgrade
Faculty of Philosophy
Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy
Serbia
e-mail: nvujisic@f.bg.ac.rs

History of Comparative Pedagogy at Universities in Slovenia

Klara Skubic Ermenc

Introduction

In the area of pedagogy and education, Slovenia has never been an ethnocentric country, designing its pedagogical ideas and school system sealed within its own borders. On the contrary, the basic cultural characteristic of the development of the Slovenian education system is its responsiveness to global trends. Throughout its 90-year history, Slovenian university pedagogy has also drawn on and critically responded to the global storehouse of knowledge. Initially, it leaned on German *Geisteswissenschaft* pedagogy, defining its basic academic subject as *vzgoja* (*Erziehung, upbringing, also education*), and linking it to *izobraževanje* (*Bildung, education*). The theory of upbringing therefore had a central role in pedagogy, a primacy that to some extent it retains today.

The concept of comparative pedagogy was first used by Vlado Schmidt in his paper *Methodology of educational reform* (1982), where he set out its importance for national educational reforms.

Comparative pedagogy found its place in the study of pedagogy in 1979. Until 1985, it was taught in relation to the history of pedagogy and education as part of Theory of Upbringing. From 1985 on, Comparative Pedagogy and History of Schooling were two separate subjects (University of Ljubljana, 1985/86). The gradual emancipation of comparative pedagogy as a separate pedagogical discipline then began.

Pedagogy is taught at two universities in Slovenia: at the University of Ljubljana, since its foundation in 1919, and at the University of Maribor since 1996.

On the term comparative pedagogy

In both universities, comparative pedagogy developed within the framework of the pedagogy program (and, later in Ljubljana, also within the andragogy program). It is considered to be one of the basic disciplines of pedagogy, contributing to the search for answers to pedagogical research questions through its specific methodological approaches. This approach follows from the assumption that pedagogy is a "fundamental science, both reflexive and applied, which develops generally valid theories and explains general laws in the area of *vzgoja* and *izobraževanje*" (Medveš, 2010, p. 91). As such, it developed in German cultural circles and spread to the countries of Central Europe. This explains the selection of the term comparative *pedagogika* and not comparative *edukacija* (comparative education).

A schism within pedagogy occurred in Germany in the 1960s, which was reflected in the German syntagma *Pädagogik* (pedagogy) / *Erziehungswissenschaft* (educational science), the latter being understood as an "applied research area of various other disciplines which, on the basis of its own theoretical findings, develops proposals for the operation of schools and for improving educational practice" (Medveš, 2010, p. 91).

This schism exists in Slovenia too, and is the subject of fierce debates. It is expressed in the different use of terms: the traditional syntagma *vzgoja in izobraževanje* (*Erziehung* and *Bildung*) is in some circles replaced by the term *edukacija* (education); instead of *pedagogika*, the term *edukacijske študije* (educational studies) is used (cf. Kodelja, 2005). To many pedagogues, the struggle over the established terms is a struggle to retain pedagogy as a fundamental science.

Emancipation of comparative pedagogy as a separate pedagogical discipline

Period 1: Between the wars – the comparison of pedagogical ideas

Between the wars, pedagogy was already established as a separate science. Karel Ozvald, the first professor of pedagogy at Ljubljana University, planned pedagogical studies on the basis of cultural pedagogy, the successor to *Geisteswissenschaft* pedagogy. As Zdenko Medveš explains (2010, pp. 91-92), this decision was understandable because cultural pedagogy was the only scientifically credible pedagogical field in Europe at that time. Herbartism was in decline, and socially critical pedagogy was only just starting to develop, and, because of its internal divisions, progressive pedagogy could not be constituted as a theoretically consistent academic discipline.

The pluralization of pedagogical thought around the world was already influencing Slovenian authors before World War I, although this influence became more marked between the wars with the formation of three relatively independent pedagogical paradigms that are still present today (Protner, 2000, p. 32). They differ in their understanding of the nature and origin of values and the associated concepts of education and upbringing. There are also differences in their methodological approaches.

(a) Cultural pedagogy (*kulturna pedagogika*) formed educational aims on the basis of hermeneutic analysis of the "objective *Zeitgeist*," and hence developed its value system as an independent research field. It researched cultural values "in terms of ethicality, sociality, religiosity, aesthetics. Through hermeneutics it sought the universal, the permanent, which in itself created an autonomous [...] pedagogical culture" (Medveš, 2010, p. 94). Its representatives were Karel Ozvald and Stanko Gogala. Stanko Gogala strove to establish pedagogy as a fundamental science, independent of politics, society, and the economy, and tied only to durable human values. The humanistic pedagogical paradigm is still cultivated in the Slovenian academic tradition today, enhanced, of course, by modern philosophical and anthropological theories (postmodernism, recognition, etc.) (cf. Kroflič, 2001, 2006, 2010).

(b) Progressive pedagogy (*reformnska pedagogika*) is distinguished by its child-centered orientation. Radical representatives of this direction sought educational aims in children's psychological and biological natures. Progressive pedagogy prioritizes maturation over learning, natural education over artificial education situations, and education derived from the child over education reliant on cultural, social, or spiritual values (Protner, 2000, p. 52). The emphasis is on the power of human relations in education and upbringing. Representatives came from the ranks of teachers (Anton Osterc, and in part Franjo Žgeč), which is also typically the case today. It has less support in academic circles.

(c) Critical pedagogy (*socialnokritična pedagogika*), which was given this name later, first united social-democratic and Marxist teachers, who derived their educational aims from sociology. The prime mover of this approach was Franjo Žgeč. The approach was later linked to the critical theory of the Frankfurt school (Gudjons, 1994, p. 37), which forced pedagogical theory to reconsider its research methods, as well as the justification of education and the nature and significance of knowledge. The critical theory pointed out the socially conditioned nature of educational practice, which restricts its autonomy and at the same time requires constant reflection on the limits and conditions of pedagogical theory and practice, thereby establishing emancipation as the supreme principle of the epistemological process. Emancipation became the central concept of the critical theory of education, and pertained to all those involved in the educational process. The critical pedagogy paradigm still has a role in Slovenian pedagogy — and andragogy — today (Ermenc, 2003, 2004; Jelenc, 2003; Kump, 2009; Vončina, 2008).

Period 2: After World War II to the end of the 1980s – the comparison of education systems

Comparative pedagogy is a continuation of the history of pedagogy and the education system

As education becomes an increasingly mass phenomenon and faces an increasingly heterogeneous population, new problems emerge in the education sector (cf. Suchodolski, 1974). University pedagogy starts to deal with the challenges of modern education. Comparisons of pedagogical ideas are joined by comparisons of school systems, which is also reflected in the shift in emphasis in pedagogy to more practical education problems. Pedagogy is less and less tied to philosophy and increasingly tied to social sciences. Also linked to the widening (and in part also change) of the research focus is the appearance of comparative pedagogy. In his paper, Schmidt (1982, pp. 96-131) discusses the methodology of school reforms in response to the (unrealized) proposal to extend elementary education to ten years, following the example of Soviet schools. He raises the questions of equal education opportunities, selectivity, differentiation of the system, and instruction. Among other things, the need for differentiation within a comprehensive school is justified through analysis of such schools in the Soviet Union (USSR) and United States (US).

The widening of pedagogy's research focus was also reflected in the pedagogy study program. In the 1970s (Univerza v Ljubljani, 1979), comparative pedagogy was included in Theory of Upbringing as a section called selected chapters from comparative pedagogy and the organization of education systems. The section also included the following themes:

- 20th-century pedagogical thought (bourgeois pedagogy, experimental pedagogy, cultural pedagogy, progressive pedagogy, working schools, pragmatism, socialist pedagogy).
- Basic characteristics of the historical development of the education system (emergence and development of the school as an institution, the structure and basic characteristics of the school system, etc.).
- Development of elementary school and professional education in European countries, the Soviet Union, the US, and developing countries.

Comparative pedagogy opens up to global themes

In 1985 the program was reformed: comparative pedagogy and the history of schooling were separated from Theory of Upbringing to form the subject Comparative Pedagogy and the History of Schooling. The chair was held by Professor Zdenko Medveš. For a long time he was the only professor to teach Comparative Pedagogy in addition to Theory of Upbringing and History of Pedagogy, enabling it to become a separate subject. He occupied the chair right up to 2007, when it was taken over by the author of this chapter.

Comparative Pedagogy and the History of Schooling was taught in years 1 to 3. The subject retained the logic it had developed within Theory of Upbringing, and was supplemented by three areas: the outline of fundamental modern reform efforts; common and specific problems of the development of modern education systems and pedagogical thought; and UNESCO programs (Univerza v Ljubljani, 1985/86).

Period 3: From the early 1990s to the present – the evaluation of modern global trends

University of Ljubljana

Comparative Pedagogy and History of Schooling were separated in 1992. History of Schooling became History of Pedagogy and Schooling. This covered the development and comparison of pedagogical ideas and, to a lesser extent, the historical development of "model" education systems: France, England, Germany, etc. Comparative Pedagogy, on the other hand, comprised two broad areas: the study of modern education systems (and comparison with the Slovenian system) and the analysis of modern trends and problems in the field of education. The subject was initially taught in year 4. Four years later, the subject was widened to encompass Comparative Pedagogy I and II (the name of the subject was also Slovenicised, with *komparativna* being changed to *primerjalna*). At the time of this writing, these subjects were still current, although they are gradually being withdrawn following the introduction in 2009/10 of a new curriculum prepared in line with the principles of the Bologna process.

Comparative Pedagogy I is designed as a continuation of the History of Pedagogy and Schooling, focusing on the development of forms of education, concepts of school reforms, and analysis of individual innovations in education. Through the analysis of education systems in individual countries — and comparing them with Slovenia — students identify the structure of education systems at all levels of education, with an emphasis on problems of transition, the organization of school counseling and guidance, examinations in secondary schools, and enrollment in post-secondary education. Education systems are discussed in terms of the concepts of equity of the system, lifelong learning, and school differentiation.

The design of the subject reflects the modernized objectives of the education program as a whole, which gives increasing weight to methodological knowledge and, on the other hand, shows the reorientation of pedagogy from theoretical pedagogical dilemmas to the practical problems of modern education. Pedagogy is included in efforts to design an education system that is of the highest quality and as fair as possible. In this context, Comparative Pedagogy taught at a university is intended to train students to understand the structure and logic of the modern school system and to equip them with the basic methodological tools for comparative analysis.

Comparative Pedagogy II is entirely devoted to the study and analysis of global trends. It covers such topics as: qualifications frameworks; European processes in education and educational tools; modern concepts of literacy; goal-oriented, standardized, and process-based curriculum planning; interculturality in pedagogy; autonomy of schools and teachers; and quality and evaluation in education (Univerza v Ljubljani, 2010).

Comparative pedagogy after the Bologna reforms

The ideas of the Bologna reforms are not popular with university pedagogues in Slovenia, because, in curricular terms, they are built on the abandonment of the discipline-based approach and the introduction of a competency-based approach. We are critical of the idea that we can improve the quality of education by transforming subjects based on individual pedagogical disciplines (Theory of Upbringing, Didactics, Pedagogical Methodology, History of Pedagogy and Schooling, Preschool pedagogy, Pedagogical Sociology, etc.) into narrower thematic or problem-based courses. As a result of these criticisms, the pedagogy and andragogy¹ study programs, designed according to the principles of the Bologna reforms, are a reflection of the search for a middle course between the two curricular approaches. Familiar with the history of education, the planners of the new program have attempted to maintain this middle course, since history teaches us that in pedagogical practice radical ideas, even if they are coherent and based on theory, are never successful, and that success instead stems from a suitable synthesis of different concepts. Modern pedagogy and andragogy programs therefore reflect a combination of discipline-based and thematic subjects — with more discipline-based subjects at lower levels of study and less at higher levels. We have also reformed the area of comparative pedagogy in this sense; its themes appear in multiple (compulsory and optional) subjects at different levels of education.

| <i>Undergraduate study</i> (3 years) | <i>Master's degree study</i> (2 years) | <i>Doctoral study</i> (3 years) |
|--|---|---|
| <i>Year 1:</i> Comparative Pedagogy <i>Year 3:</i> Education Systems Comparative Andragogy | <i>Year 1:</i> Education Development Strategy | Globalization in Education Intercultural Pedagogy |

¹ At the University of Ljubljana the pedagogy program is provided by the Department of Educational Sciences. Before the Bologna reforms, this department provided a pedagogy program and an andragogy program. The Bologna reforms linked the two disciplines into first-cycle studies, resulting in the pedagogy and andragogy program. The disciplines are now only separate in the second-cycle and third-cycle studies. Andragogy is only taught in Slovenia at the University of Ljubljana. It was initially part of the pedagogy program before becoming a stand-alone course in the early 1990s. Ever since the 1970s, andragogues have also been developing comparative andragogy, which shares a methodological basis with comparative pedagogy, while differing in the contents of the subjects studied.

Comparative Pedagogy is the only subject that is mandatory for all students of pedagogy and andragogy. The subject has two main purposes: through the comparison of basic concepts, and elements in selected European education systems, students develop an understanding of the structure and basic principles of modern education systems; they also become familiar with selected research methods in comparative pedagogy and test themselves in simple comparative approaches. In other subjects, we train students to have a deeper understanding of modern education systems and their individual elements. We enable them to understand the dilemmas that limit understanding and hinder comparison. Students develop the scientific tools needed to research modern events in education.

University of Maribor

The study of pedagogy was introduced at the University of Maribor in the 1996/97 academic year. The program included the subject History of Pedagogy with Comparative Pedagogy, which was taught in year 2. In keeping with Slovenian tradition, the subject closely linked historical and comparative methodological aspects: epistemological and theoretical-methodological starting points of historical-comparative research in pedagogy; comparative and historical presentation of theoretical models, concepts, and education systems; modern pedagogical trends, theories of schools, the development of school systems; theoretical-methodological starting points of modern reform efforts; development phases of Slovenian pedagogy and the education system in the context of comparative analysis (Univerza v Mariboru, 1998). Edvard Protner holds the chair.

The pedagogy program at the University of Maribor has also been renewed in accordance with the Bologna reforms. The new program was introduced in the 2008/09 academic year. The program contains an independent subject, Comparative Pedagogy, taken by all first-cycle year 3 students (Univerza v Mariboru, 2008).

The syllabus contains the following areas:

- Comparative pedagogy within the system of pedagogical science: objectives and tasks of comparative pedagogy; methodology of comparative research; and areas of comparative research.
- Education policy: relationship between politics and schools; neoconservatism, neoliberalism, egalitarianism; private and state schools; globalization and school systems; interculturalism, multiculturalism; forms of differentiation in school systems; autonomy, centralization; lifelong learning; vocational education; international comparisons of knowledge of young people in schools (TIMSS, PISA, etc.) and their influence on national curricula; all-day school; the Bologna process; and quality assurance in school systems.
- Education systems: reforms of school systems in the 1960s; international classification of qualifications and education programs; the education system in Slovenia; and the presentation of systemic solutions in selected school systems in developed countries at the level of: preschool education, compulsory education, secondary education, higher education, and adult education.

Comparative Pedagogy has also been taught since 2001 as a separate optional subject within the postgraduate pedagogy program (Univerza v Mariboru, 2001). The objective of the subject is to master the meaning of individual educational phenomena, courses, and systems of the education process in relation to social, societal, and cultural influences on their appearance.

The role of comparison in the development of the Slovenian education system: Comparative research or the search for models?

The period from the end of the 1980s to the mid-1990s was very important for the Slovenian education system. This was the time when Slovenia began, at all levels of society, to publicly criticize the existing social system, a process which culminated in independence. At the same time, it was also a period of the planning and implementation of major social reforms, including education reform.

New strategic decisions in the area of education were taken on the basis of our own and foreign research, with comparisons given significant weight. This is not unusual, since one of the basic objectives of the renewal was to establish an education system comparable in terms of quality with those in developed, democratic European countries (Bela knjiga..., 1995). Slovenia's desire to be included in the European integration caused an orientation of interest towards understanding education systems in other European countries.

The White Paper on Education in the Republic of Slovenia (Bela knjiga..., 1995) is an important document for the Slovenian education system.² It contains numerous comparative data for (mostly) Western European countries. It was prepared by groups of experts who drew, in part, on their own and foreign comparative research. A small number of comparative research projects were carried out. One of these covered the area of vocational and technical education. The proposed organisation of vocational and technical education arose as a result of several related studies as part of the Further Development of Secondary Education in the Republic of Slovenia project. The results were published in three books and numerous articles (Medveš, 1990; Medveš & Muršak, 1992, 1993). The research focused on the analysis of the systems of initial and continuing vocational education. Detailed analyses of countries belonging to various European models of vocational education were carried out. Comparisons were placed in a wider context (changes in the labor market and, society, aspirations of the population, the role of education policy and trends, etc.), and the findings were juxtaposed with the Slovenian historical and social context. The results of the comparisons were synthesized and evaluated in theoretical terms.

The text of the White Paper contains numerous comparative data, but relies less on academic findings of comparative research. The comparative data are frequently used to justify individual reform proposals, and as such function as examples, in places, even as models. The authors also designed a range of concrete solutions on the basis of the data. This does not mean that we can draw conclusions about the uncritical and unthinking acceptance of foreign practices, but the approach certainly reveals an attitude to comparative pedagogy from which new scientific findings cannot be expected. Slovenian authors tend to maintain a critical distance from foreign solutions, something which comes both from a knowledge of the basic principles of pedagogy and from consideration of various other research findings. Nevertheless, the insufficient development and expansion of comparative pedagogy conceals a trap. If we use

² A new White Paper is due to be prepared in 2011, since it has been recognized that after 15 years Slovenian education needs to be reformed again in order to respond to changed circumstances, experiences, and evaluations that have indicated certain difficulties.

comparative data to justify our decisions or obtain a set of concrete measures, at best such data will no longer have substantial academic weight, and at worst there is a possibility of the uncritical acceptance of foreign practices or even manipulation of the data.

In terms of comparative pedagogy, the weak point of the White Paper is gymnasium education. The gymnasium is a delicate point in the Slovenian education system: it has a long history and enjoys considerable social prestige. Throughout its history it has played an important role in educating the cultural and intellectual elite. Under a reform known as "vocationally oriented education" (cf. section Comparative Education in Serbia), gymnasiums were abolished, a move strongly criticized by Slovenian professionals and the lay public. Immediately after achieving independence, Slovenia reintroduced the gymnasium as a school, the basic function of which is to prepare for university study, and as the only institution that enables unlimited access to university education (for more on this, see Ermenc, 2009). Because of the strong desire to preserve the gymnasium as the only university preparatory school in the country, the authors of the White Paper used the historical development of the gymnasium to justify the proposed gymnasium program, supplementing this with brief descriptions of similar institutions elsewhere in Europe. They were interested in the structure of the curriculum in these schools, the balance between compulsory and optional subjects, and the form of the maturity examination — questions dealing with the internal structure of the gymnasium. The question of the logic of re-establishing institutional differentiation at the higher secondary level at a time when the gymnasium has increasingly become a mass school was dismissed by reformers with the assertion that this arrangement was more realistic. It appears as though the gymnasium reformers were attempting to avoid comparative research, since they could expect it to show up the weak points of the traditional gymnasium in terms of the role that, willingly or unwillingly, it is now taking on.

Conclusion

Slovenia is a country where comparative pedagogy does not have a long tradition as an independent discipline, which makes it vulnerable. That there is a perceived need to strengthen comparative research in pedagogy and andragogy is reflected in its greater presence and weight in modern study programs. Nevertheless, we cannot claim that Slovenian pedagogues are not participating in discussions on the global pedagogical and educational issues dealt with today by comparative pedagogues around the world. In the modern era, much research has been carried out and a number of papers³ have been written on subjects such as: the effects of globalization on national and global education (Medveš, 2008), the effects of the concept of lifelong learning as formulated through the Lisbon process (Kump, 2009), inclusion in education (Kroflič, 2007, 2010; Lesar, 2009), interculturalism and the question of the place of cultural and ethnic minorities in national education systems (Ermenc, 2004, 2005), analysis of the effects of European education policy on Slovenian national policy (Ermenc, 2010; Medveš, 2008), and the functional and critical concepts of literacy (Vončina, 2008).

³ Individual sources are cited merely by way of illustration.

The number and diversity of these discussions among pedagogy and andragogy researchers reveal two basic characteristics of Slovenian pedagogy and andragogy: first, their traditional engagement with the international environment; and second, the long tradition of comparative research at the level of pedagogical/andragogical ideas and concepts. The former is a consequence of the small size of Slovenia's cultural space, while the latter is a consequence of the characteristics and development of the pedagogical/andragogical disciplines in Slovenia. Clearly this is a tradition worth continuing, but also worth supplementing. In terms of the quality of Slovenian pedagogy and the education system, comparative pedagogy has at least two important roles: (a) in view of the policy objective that seeks to make Slovenia's education system comparable with Europe, it must point out the possibilities and impossibilities of transferring solutions among different environments; and (b) pedagogy has set itself the task of cooperating in the establishment of high-quality, fair education. Quality education and fair education have been the subjects of comparative education research since the very beginning (e.g., Husen, Faure), and comparative education has developed its own methodological and categorial apparatus for them. It is worth building on this in order to contribute new knowledge to the treasury of pedagogical and andragogical science.

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Doc. Dr. Klara Skubic Ermenc
Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy
Faculty of Arts, University of Ljubljana
Slovenia
e-mail: klara.skubic-ermenc@ff.uni-lj.si

The Teaching of Comparative Education in Spain

Luis M^a Naya, Ferran Ferrer & M^a Jesús Martínez

This chapter provides an overview of the almost 40-year history of the teaching of Comparative Education in Spain. The article is structured in three parts. First, it describes the difficult initial steps made by Spanish pioneering comparativists during the 1960s. Secondly, it presents an actual panorama characterized by the obligatory teaching of Comparative Education in all universities where the degree of pedagogy is offered. Finally, various reflections are considered as to what the uncertain future of Comparative Education in Spain might be.

The Teaching of Comparative Education until 1992

In this period, the teaching of Comparative Education in Spain was marked by three dimensions: the founding of the Institute of Pedagogy of Barcelona, the incipient and progressive incorporation of Comparative Education as a subject in many different Spanish universities, and the creation of the Spanish Society of Comparative Pedagogy (Sociedad Española de Pedagogía Comparada - SEPC).

The Institute of Comparative Pedagogy of Barcelona was created in February 1964 by the Council of Philosophy and Letters in its Pedagogy section. The Institute was directed by Juan Tusquets who had been its soul and engine for many years. A few years before the Institute's establishment, the review *Pedagogical Perspectives* (*Perspectivas Pedagógicas*), had been in operation since its first publication in 1958. It was an academic publication of university standing and with international recognition dedicated to Comparative Education. Its main objective was to be an organ of public expression of the comparative works developed in Spain. The Institute of Comparative Pedagogy became responsible for publishing *Pedagogical Perspectives*, which became "the first and only review of Comparative Pedagogy in Spain" (Valls, 1998, p.25) especially due to the impulse given by Tusquets.

One of the goals of the Institute of Comparative Pedagogy of Barcelona was to promote Comparative Education as an academic subject. It was an attempt to develop a postgraduate course which could confer the title 'Expert in Comparative Pedagogy'. Although this plan did not materialize due to changes in the university curriculum, the Institute, led by the hand of Tusquets, its founder, and by Alexandre Sanvinsens, continued to train professionals who were interested in deepening their knowledge of Comparative Education.

Almost at the same time, first steps had started to be taken in other universities towards the almost definite insertion of Comparative Education as a university subject. The plan of study of 1944, developed by the Pedagogy Section of Madrid, was modified in 1968 and it assumed for the first time the teaching of Comparative Education as a compulsory subject for students specializing in 'Teaching Organization', and as an optional subject for students in the specialist stream of 'School and Professional Counselling' and 'Special Needs Education'. Consequently, in the academic year 1968-69, it was taught for the first time by Professor Julio Ruiz Berrio at the Complutense University of Madrid as an optional subject to very few

students. Little by little, this situation changed, such that in the curriculum of 1974, Comparative Education was already recognized as a compulsory subject, catalyzing its expansion to all Spanish universities.

A third positive development happened almost simultaneously. Through an interesting article published in the review *Pedagogical Perspectives*, Tusquets proposed to create a Spanish Society of Comparative Pedagogy (SEPC). In promoting this idea, he advocated the application for membership of a group of Spanish professionals as a collective entity in CESE (Comparative Education Society in Europe) and in the WCCES (World Council of Comparative Education Societies). At the same time, he acknowledged that the SEPC was, at that moment, still an infant and had an uncertain future. He also recognized his participation in the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies in 1974 not in the capacity of “President of the Spanish Society of Comparative Pedagogy, but of a Spanish Society of Comparative Pedagogy” (Tusquets, 1975, p.377). Some years later, he recommended that “an authentic pluralism inspire the Statutes of the Spanish Society of Comparative Education whose creation cannot be delayed if we want to avoid the risk of not being represented in the World Council of Comparative Education Societies” (Tusquets, 1979, p.120).

It is important to emphasize that the SEPC Statutes envisaged the establishment of centres of Comparative Pedagogy in cities outside of its headquarters (then located in Valencia). This was in line with the trend towards deconcentration of power, which was coherent with the political context of Spain at that time. From the outset, the centres were established within the universities. The first centres to be approved were in the Central University of Barcelona, in 1980; the Autonomous University of Barcelona, La Laguna University, the Complutense University of Madrid, the University of Palma de Mallorca, the University of Navarre, University of Salamanca, University of Santiago de Compostela, University of Tarragona and the University of Valencia¹. The initiative continued to widen, resulting in a total of 15 centres in 1986². The centres promoted typical activities of Comparative Education (e.g. seminars, speeches, etc.). Among the most active entities was the centre in the Central University of Barcelona, through its Institute of Comparative Pedagogy. During this period, Comparative Education in Spain witnessed the progressive incorporation of teachers and specialists who opened interesting lines of research within the Spanish universities. Among the pertinent publications in this area is a manual by José Luis García Garrido, *Fundamentos de Educación Comparada* (1986), as well as other volumes and articles (e.g. González, 1991, Ruiz Berrio, 1975).

The Teaching of Comparative Education since 1992

Since 1992 Comparative Education in Spain has entered a period of recognition and consolidation as a result of the achievements in the previous period. To analyze this second period, an important development was the approval in 1993 of the University Reform Law, which led to progressive reforms in all university degree structures. As a

¹ According to the Records of the General Extraordinary Assembly of 24th May 1980.

² According to the *Bulletin* No. 9 of SEPC.

consequence, studies in Pedagogy underwent a deep change in which many important factors intervened including:

- The implementation of general curriculum guidelines prescribing compulsory foundation/core (*troncal*) subjects – common for the entire Spain –, and compulsory and optional subjects designed by each university;
- The emergence of new job descriptions and employment needs which required new training programs and curricula. At the same time, other traditional career tracks were phased out by the Ministry of Education;
- The creation of new degrees in education such as ‘Social Education’ and ‘Psycho-pedagogy’, which were until that moment not existent in the universities.

As a consequence of all these, the course of ‘Comparative Education’ was designated in the General Curricular Guidelines as a compulsory foundation subject, in the area of Theory and History of Education, for the Bachelor’s (*licenciatura*) degree in Pedagogy. The Comparative Education course encompassed the following description: Comparative Education; Origin and Evolution of Educational Systems, and Educational Institutions. It was assigned a minimum of 60 contact hours. Since then, this course has been offered in the second cycle of university courses and has been included as an obligatory subject in all curricula that lead to the Degree in Pedagogy. Moreover, due to the increasing importance given to this area, each university also included other compulsory and optional subjects such as: International Education; Historical, Political and Comparative Foundations; Cooperation for Development in Education; World-Wide Educational Systems, etc. The new regulation thus obliged many universities, which had not previously taught Comparative Education, to include it in their course offerings. It provoked a significant increase in the number of professors who were teaching Comparative Education. At present, the subject is offered in 39 universities which offer the title of Bachelor (*licenciado*) in Pedagogy. Several noteworthy textbooks and articles on Comparative Education were also published to support teaching activities (e.g. Ancheta, 2005; Ayala & González, 1999; Ferrer, 2002; Martínez, 2003; Valls, 2005).

Some Spanish universities, especially the Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED), have introduced doctorate programmes in Comparative Education. Also, most universities teach subjects related to Comparative Education in their doctoral programmes.

Furthermore, since 2004, the Spanish Society of Comparative Education (Sociedad Española de Educación Comparada - SEEC) has been promoting biennially the Pedro Rosselló Prize, with the aim of providing an incentive to young PhD students in Spanish universities whose doctoral theses were relevant to Comparative Education. The Prize awards 600 Euros to the winning doctoral thesis, in addition to its publication either as an article of the *Spanish Review of Comparative Education (Revista Española de Educación Comparada - REEC)* or as a monograph.

During this period, the teaching and research activities by Spanish comparativists has been non-stop and the institutional task undertaken by the Spanish Society of Comparative Education has been fundamental. In 1994, the SEPC’s new Statutes approved a change in the society’s name to its current designation, the SEEC (see also Naya & Ferrer, 2007, p.220). A year later, the first issue of the Society’s journal, the *Spanish Review of Comparative Education*, was published. To date, it is published by

the Department of History of Education and Comparative Education of the UNED (Martinez & Valle, 2005).

Many scientific meetings have also been organized (e.g. Murcia, 1991 & 1999; Sevilla, 2001) and, together with the congresses held on a biannual basis by the Society, they offered excellent opportunities to share teaching and pedagogical experiences, subject/curriculum reviews, among others.

The advent of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) was used to improve teaching practice. An initiative in this line was the creation of the Edu-Comp List³ in 1999 promoted by Ferran Ferrer and Luis Naya in their personal capacities (Ferrer & Naya, 2002). Edu-Comp has proven to be a dynamic forum of knowledge and exchange of experiences. Its contribution to the academic improvement of professionals in Comparative Education is of international scope since most of its 150 members originate from other countries than Spain. Furthermore the launch of the SEEC webpage⁴ in 2000 (Naya, 2000) has allowed comparativists to have access to abundant and useful teaching resources in only one Internet website.

In summary, this period has promoted the consolidation of the subject of Comparative Education in Spanish universities and the incorporation of an important number of professors who have contributed to the reinforcement of this subject in the Spanish academe.

The Uncertain Future

Based on the situation of Comparative Education in Spain at the end of 2007, we identify new challenges and goals, opportunities and problems which will have to be confronted by our subject in the next months and years.

As in other facets of the educational system, reforms are usually likened to 'blank pages of books' on which the actors, mainly the professors, have the opportunity to 'write their favorite ideas'. In this respect, we adopt a positive view without worrying excessively about the evident problems which will have to be solved in the future. In the following paragraphs some phenomena which will affect meaningfully the teaching practice in Spain are pointed out.

The New European Higher Education Area (EHEA)

The year 2010 has been designated as the deadline for the achievement of the new aims of European higher education policies. Their implementation entails changes in methodology and in the design of study programmes. How would all these changes affect the teaching of Comparative Education? From our point of view, there are three different areas which will be affected:

- a) *The contribution of Comparative Education to the training of education professionals and, more concretely, the delimitation of its contribution to the competencies that future teachers should acquire, based on which the new university degrees are designed:* We should ask ourselves what kind of competencies we reinforce in our subject. We should also identify in an open

³ <http://www.rediris.es/list/info/edu-comp.es.html>

⁴ <http://www.sc.ehu.es/sfwseec/>

but defined way our links with related subjects. It is expected that a debate will be opened on whether our contribution is closer to educational sciences and its adoption of a historical perspective (following an old tradition in Spanish universities), or to the disciplines that aim to provide a macro analysis of phenomena or educational systems from a contemporary perspective (e.g. economics of education, sociology of education, educational policy). It is possible that the two options may not be incompatible with each other, but we foresee that the new modular structure of studies in the new framework of higher education could pressure comparativists to choose only one of the two.

- b) *The new unit of measure of students' working hours, the ECTS credits (European Credit Transfer System)*: This system of credits is not, or at least, should not be, a mere change of label. It entails a change of paradigm – from teaching to students' learning – and supposes a change of conceptualization about the teaching role. As a consequence, we ask ourselves if Comparative Education is a subject that can more easily be adapted to this new situation. We are not sure of the answer. But, in view of the great amount of information which we comparativists have to deal with in our subject, there is no doubt that our task will be more complex than those of our other colleagues from the educational sciences.
- c) *Our possible contribution and the centrality of Comparative Education in the design and execution of students' mobility to other countries*: It is clear that the EHEA strongly reinforces the mobility of students so that they could partially undertake their university studies in other countries. This seems to be a historical opportunity for the teachers of Comparative Education to have a fundamental role in this formative activity.

The New Curriculum

The reform of the current curriculum in Spain is about to start and it is not yet clear what direction it will take. However, it seems that the main goal of the Ministry of Education is to provide higher autonomy to universities so that they would be able to design their different programmes at the Bachelor's and postgraduate levels in the most suitable way. This means a higher degree of responsibility is shifted to the higher education institutions (especially Faculties and Departments) to achieve good results and be accountable for them. But, it also means a bigger influence exercised by centres of academic power within each university. Thus, in those places where Comparative Education enjoys prestige and recognition among students and professors, it will be easier to increase its presence. But the opposite is also possible. Here is precisely the decisive arena in determining the future of our subject in Spain. Its future would also have depended upon – at least partially – on our teaching and research work in the last fifteen years in our respective universities.

The new plans also provide more possibilities to be present in the undergraduate and postgraduate degrees in the field of Educational Sciences. It is very likely that the offering of new areas of specialization would allow and oblige the adoption of a new international approach to them. Comparative Education professionals are well-positioned to contribute to this new international outlook in adult education, intercultural education, and educational counseling, among others. In summary, the foreseeable contraction of the state's role in the design and implementation of university curricula and the adoption of an international dimension to different studies

of education generates a greater need to demonstrate the valuable contribution of Comparative Education.

The Growing Presence of International Perspectives in Educational Analysis

This international perspective is evident. If we compare this actual phenomenon with that of the last decade, there is a remarkable difference. The educational studies conducted by huge international bodies, as well as the educational reforms of near and remote countries have become a frequent source of information in the media. The role of specialists who help de-code and understand these reports is crucial, and in this, specialists in Comparative Education have a fundamental role to play. Globalization and the internationalization of educational practices is an important basis for the current educational debate. This is a point in favor of teaching Comparative Education.

The Growing Extension of ICT in Society

Doubtlessly, Information and Communication Technologies constitutes one of the most important challenges. In Spain, Comparative Education has been a pioneer in capitalizing on ICT for providing extensive information resources. However, the role of Comparative Education is not limited to this, but extends to being builders of knowledge. Moreover, good teaching of Comparative Education requires that we be able to guide our students in their information search and orient them to be critical agents equipped with the necessary keys to interpret education in today's world.

Conclusion

We conclude this contribution with a reflection. The future of the teaching of Comparative Education and its related fields in Spanish universities is uncertain. But, it also offers great opportunities. Much depends on our proven track record in previous years, as well as on the decisions that each one of us will take in our own universities. As Antonio Machado, a famous Spanish poet, used to say, "*caminante no hay camino se hace camino al andar*" (traveler, there is no ready-made path, you have to make it as you walk along). The future is in the making and it is partly the duty of the current actors to give Comparative Education the presence it really deserves.

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Prof. Dr. Luis M^a Naya
Faculty of Philosophy and Educational Sciences, University of the Basque Country
Donostia-San Sebastian, Spain
e-mail: luisma.naya@ehu.es

Prof. Ferran Ferrer, Chair Professor
Faculty of Education, Autonomous University of Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain
e-mail: ferran.Ferrer@uab.cat

Prof. Dr. M^a Jesús Martínez
Faculty of Philosophy and Educational Sciences, University of Valencia
Valencia, Spain
e-mail: M.Jesus.Martinez@uv.es

The Ambiguous Future of a Discipline: Comparative Education in Switzerland

Leonie Schüssler & Bruno Leutwyler

This chapter is a revised and updated version of the contribution in the first edition of *Comparative Education as Discipline at Universities World Wide* (2007).¹

Introduction

Marc-Antoine Jullien, prominent pioneer in the field of Comparative Education, used Switzerland as his first ‘experimenting ground’ in the context of his fragments *Esquisse et vues préliminaires d’un ouvrage sur l’éducation comparée*, carried out in 1817 (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004). Switzerland was chosen as its, at that time, 22 cantons displayed all the desired conditions: a diversity of languages, religions, political organizations and governments, allowing an ‘infinite variety’ of educational institutions and systems (Jullien, 1816).

The current 26 cantons of Switzerland, situated in different linguistic regions with their specific cultural backgrounds, still provide an attractive field for comparative approaches in education as each canton disposes of a largely independent school system. In the context of the recent increase in nationwide reform projects, comparative approaches have become relevant. This shows that comparative approaches exist in Switzerland, but not necessarily within the academic institutions and their disciplinary² traditions.

Comparative approaches also play a relevant role at the Swiss-based International Bureau of Education (IBE) which was founded in 1925 in Geneva. In 1929, it became the first intergovernmental organization in the field of education. Today, it is an integral part of UNESCO and serves as observer of educational structures, contents and methods, promoting dialogue on educational policy and disseminating information including the publication of *Prospects*, a quarterly review on Comparative Education. However, the IBE operates outside academic institutions.

This brief historical review shows that comparative approaches in education have existed in Switzerland for a long time even though not necessarily within academic institutions and following disciplinary traditions. As a consequence, this article raises the question about the present relevance of Comparative Education as an academic discipline in Switzerland. The article argues that the historical situation of Switzerland, as an ‘experimenting ground’ by Jullien and the birthplace of the IBE, is not reflected in the present disciplinary status within the Swiss academic landscape. Furthermore,

¹ In order to revise and update this chapter, 12 scholars familiar with Comparative Education in Switzerland were invited to comment on the adequacy of the first version. 10 among them have given responses which have been introduced in this revised and updated version.

² The term ‘disciplinary’ is used as the adjective derived from the substantive ‘discipline’ in the sense of academic disciplines represented at universities. It therefore refers to the total body of subject knowledge that constitutes a specific academic field.

because of this perceived absence of the discipline, a more fundamental question was raised which refers to the essence of the discipline of Comparative Education. However, this article will not enter into a methodological debate but rather draw a descriptive picture of the status of this discipline within the Swiss academic landscape. Firstly, it describes the methodological approach which was used to assess this question. Secondly, it exposes the main findings concerning the history, the current status and the perspectives of the academic discipline in Switzerland. Thirdly, it concludes by positioning the findings in the context of the international discourse on the discipline Comparative Education.

Method

In order to assess the current status of the discipline Comparative Education within the academic landscape of Switzerland, a two-step-design was chosen. In a *first* step, an extensive inquiry was carried out to identify persons and institutions whose work is related to the field of Comparative Education. On the one hand research was carried out in the internet and in specific data bases of the Swiss Coordination Center for Research in Education and the Swiss Information and Data Archive Service for the Social Sciences. On the other hand, relevant reports in the field of educational sciences in Switzerland have been searched for evidence of an institutional presence of the field of Comparative Education. The following reports have been included in the analysis: (1) the country background report for the OECD/CERI review *Educational Research and Development in Switzerland* (SKBF, 2006); (2) the report of the Swiss Conference of Rectors of Universities of Teacher Education (SCTE) on research and development in the recently established teacher training universities (Vogel, 2006)³; (3) the report *Educational Sciences in Switzerland: Evolution and Outlook* (Hofstetter & Schneuwly, 2001); and (4) the register of research projects on intercultural education between 1993 and 2006, which lists a category for research “with a comparative approach to intercultural education between different national and cultural contexts“ (Ogay, 2006, p.2).

Based on this information, it was possible to identify persons and institutions related to the field of Comparative Education. However, as the focus of the inquiry was put explicitly on Comparative Education as an academic discipline, other comparative approaches as well as important international educational large scale assessments have not been considered. This is in particular the case for some representatives in economics, sociology or political science that deal with educational issues from a comparative perspective. The same applies for the Swiss participation in major international studies such as PISA or TIMSS. The Swiss contribution in these studies is not handled by institutions for Comparative Education or by scholars educated in this discipline and therefore not treated in this inquiry.

In a *second* step, interviews with representatives of Swiss academic or public research institutions in the field of education were carried out. The interviews were based on interview guidelines that focused on the self-conception of the discipline, on methodological approaches and on the significance and the relevance of Comparative

³ Since the beginning of the 21st century, teacher education in Switzerland is organized in universities of applied sciences (‘Pädagogische Hochschulen’; ‘hautes écoles pédagogiques’).

Education within the academic landscape of Switzerland. A total of nine qualitative interviews were conducted; 5 with researchers based in the French-speaking part of Switzerland, 2 with researchers based in the German-speaking part, 1 with a representative of the Swiss Coordination Centre for Research in Education and 1 with a renowned professor of Comparative Education who had spent more than 10 years in Switzerland, and now holds a chair of Comparative Education in Germany.

Given these personal assessments of important representatives in this field, a category driven analysis of these data has led to the following results on the history, the current status and possible perspectives of the academic discipline Comparative Education in Switzerland.

Historical Overview

Even though Marc-Antoine Jullien used Switzerland in 1817 as the 'experimenting ground' to establish the discipline Comparative Education and the International Bureau of Education (IBE) was founded in Geneva, no extensive history of Comparative Education exists within the academic landscape of Switzerland (see also Frenay et al., 1999). In academic settings, there is only a very limited tradition for Comparative Education. The only exception in this regard is the University of Geneva which has also maintained a longstanding cooperation with the IBE.

In the last decades of the 20th century, Pierre Furter occupied an ordinary professorship in Comparative Education at the University of Geneva and exerted strong influence on this discipline. During this period, teaching in Comparative Education at the University of Geneva focused on the contextualization of education systems in Europe and on countries from the South as well as on case studies on regionalization of education in Europe and in Latin America. Research projects were related to a variety of topics. During the same period, a section for Comparative Education existed within the Swiss Society for Research in Education and some lectures in Comparative Education were taught at the University of Fribourg and the University of Berne. Overall, much more attention was paid to teaching than to research.

At the threshold of the millennium, the University of Geneva has undergone important changes in regard to Comparative Education. After the retirement of Pierre Furter, the chair was not occupied and only a temporary solution found. Soledad Pérez, Pierre Furter's former assistant, represented the field of Comparative Education in lectureships and research projects and cultivated an intense cooperation with the IBE. She strengthened the relevance of Comparative Education within the University of Geneva and far beyond until her untimely death in 2004. Thus, Comparative Education has shifted from enjoying high relevance, even though only locally established, to being relatively absent. Today this discipline is situated in a new context.

Current Status

The analyses of the available data suggest that Comparative Education is only weakly established within Swiss academic institutions nowadays. There are no indications of a disciplinary identity in Switzerland. Sociologically speaking, there is no academic chair referred to as Comparative Education, there are no respective academic journals in the field and there is currently no corresponding academic society within Switzerland. Some of the few Swiss representatives of Comparative Education are members in foreign societies.

However, this does not mean that Comparative Education is inexistent in Switzerland. There are researchers who cultivate a comparative approach in education, even though most of them do not consider themselves explicitly as comparativists and most of them have their scientific origins in other fields, such as sociology, philosophy, pedagogy, psychology, sociology, economy or anthropology. It is therefore not surprising that there is no consensus, neither on the content treated nor on the methodology used in Comparative Education.

Concerning the topics which are treated by the discipline of Comparative Education, some of the interviewees named specific issues, such as the analysis of educational systems or educational policy. Other representatives, on the contrary, stated that no specific subject exists because Comparative Education refers to a particular approach while dealing with a variety of topics.

A similar discrepancy became obvious concerning the methodology of Comparative Education: On the one hand, some of the interviewed representatives indicated that specific methods do not exist in this field. A comparative approach may refer to nothing else than the expression of a solid methodological procedure in educational sciences, while taking account of the different connotations and perceptions of specific concepts in different cultures. On the other hand, other representatives pointed to methodological particularities of Comparative Education, such as the contextualization of data within certain cultural references, a deepened procedural sensibility or the systematic consideration of multilevel interactions between macro-, meso- and microstructures.

These diverse statements suggest that a shared disciplinary identity does not exist. However, the differences in the disciplinary identity discussed so far do not correspond to the dividing lines between the two main linguistic regions of Switzerland. Even though educational sciences are differently theorized in the German and French discourse,⁴ in both the French- and the German-speaking part of Switzerland, different conceptions of Comparative Education are present.

The absence of a disciplinary identity is also reflected when analyzing the institutional embedding of Comparative Education in Switzerland. It has to be underlined, however, that regarding the institutional level, a clear distinction can be drawn between the different linguistic regions of Switzerland. In the Francophone part, two universities exist with an institutional recognition of comparative approaches, whereas in the Germanophone part no institutional presence is perceived.

French-speaking Part of Switzerland

In the French-speaking part, there is on the one hand the University of Geneva with its tradition in Comparative Education. One chair at the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences explicitly deals with Comparative Education: 'Politics, Economy, Management and Comparative Education' headed by Sigfried Hanhart. A new chair of 'International Dimensions of Education' has been created which is said to include Comparative Education. Abdeljalil Akkari has been appointed for this chair which

⁴ Whereas a German mode proceeds from a relatively strong disciplinary unity with a stable body of references, the French mode conceives educational sciences more as 'expanded social sciences' with a pronounced multidisciplinary approach (Keiner & Schriewer, 2000).

commenced in 2008. Overall, these macro-approaches seem to have a relatively modest importance within the faculty of educational sciences at the University of Geneva – there are far more chairs for topics related to didactics and teacher training. With regard to teaching, lectures in Comparative Education are an integral part of the studies in educational sciences. It may thus be concluded that, after the retirement of Pierre Furter and the death of Soledad Pérez, comparative approaches still have their institutional position within the University of Geneva.

On the other hand, an institutional recognition of a comparative approach also exists in the Francophone section of the University of Fribourg. There is a range of research projects in this field (mainly under the responsibility of Jean-Luc Gurtner) and, since 2006, a Master programme offers a specialization in Intercultural and Comparative Education. Despite the absence of a professorship for Comparative Education, comparative approaches seem to enjoy high importance at the University of Fribourg. Owing to its location as a place of cultural encounter⁵, exchange and comparisons form a self-evident part of the institutional self-conception.

German-speaking Part of Switzerland

In contrast to this twofold institutional presence in the French-speaking part of Switzerland, Comparative Education hardly exists in the German-speaking zone. There have been two habilitations in Comparative Education at the end of the 1990s: Cristina Allemann-Ghionda who currently holds a chair of Comparative Education at the University of Cologne in Germany. The second one refers to Philipp Gonon who currently holds a chair for Vocational Education in Zurich. He conducts research projects in the field of Comparative Education and adopts a comparative approach in his lectures. Furthermore, some assistants in his team explicitly cultivate a comparative approach in their doctoral qualifications. However, there is no institutional presence in the field of Comparative Education in the form of courses or programmes, much less of research centers or departments. Rather, projects with clear comparative approaches arise from individual initiatives. Gita Steiner-Khamsi is another prominent Swiss representative from the German-speaking part of Switzerland explicitly working in the field of Comparative Education but has followed a career abroad since 1995. She now holds a chair in Comparative and International Education at the Columbia University in the United States. The fact that two of the very few prominent representatives of Swiss Comparative Education follow their careers outside Switzerland might also give some meaningful indication of the status of Comparative Education in the German-speaking part of Switzerland.

Reasons for the Weak Institutional Presence

Overall, Comparative Education is currently weakly established as an academic discipline in Switzerland. The following section proposes some possible reasons for this finding.

Firstly, some of the interviewed representatives pointed to a traditionally restricted framework of educational research in Switzerland. For a long time, research mainly

⁵ Fribourg is situated at the border between the French- and German-speaking part of Switzerland and recognizes both French and German as official languages for municipal concerns.

focused on topics concerning elementary school issues, teacher training and didactics, neglecting macro-approaches in education. This relatively narrow focus aimed at preparing a reliable basis for teacher training. Only recently has a differentiation into distinctive domains, such as sociology or economics of education, emerged in educational sciences. This also explains why there are not enough comparativists today who could constitute a new generation of scholars in the field.

A second explanation refers to the small endowment for educational sciences at Swiss universities. As a consequence, not all aspects, including Comparative Education, can be covered. Obviously, the University of Geneva must be considered as a great exception with its more than two dozen professors in the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences.

Thirdly, some of the interviewees ascribed provincialism to the German-speaking part. Swiss non-membership in the European Union constitutes an additional factor in this regard. As a consequence, educational scientists are said to be mainly interested in local educational issues.

For these reasons, the current status of Comparative Education has a relatively low significance in the academic landscape of Switzerland. However, some of the interviewed representatives could imagine that comparative approaches would gain more importance in the future.

Prospects

A first possibility of an increased significance of Comparative Education was mentioned in relation to the recently established teacher training universities: Fifteen new educational research departments have been established since 2001, which may provide new impulses. In one of these institutions located in the French part of Switzerland, a comparative approach is cultivated ('Haute École Pédagogique BEJUNE') even though its long-term commitment remains vague due to changes in the teaching staff. This points to the fact that the various research projects in the field of Comparative Education and the lectures given are rather based on individual initiatives than institutionally bound. In another young institution, in the German-speaking part, the case is slightly different. With the Institute for International Cooperation in Education and the Institute for Management and Economics of Education, which are part of the Teacher Training University of Central Switzerland, the promotion of international dimensions of education has been institutionalized and international comparative projects are worked on.

A second possibility for an increasing importance of Comparative Education points to global developments, such as globalization, internationalization and regionalization, which also have an influence on education systems and policies in Switzerland. According to some interviewed representatives, Comparative Education, with its particular approaches, may be able to deliver in-depth analyses and possible responses for the Swiss educational system regarding current trends or issues which relate to academic mobility, the interpretation of international educational surveys or migration.

The above-mentioned arguments show that international dimensions have increasingly entered the domain of education in Switzerland. This leads to the assumption that the specific comparative perspective will gain importance across the disciplinary boundaries. However, this hypothesis was clearly rejected by some interviewees. They observed an opposite trend according to which more and more

international dimensions of education are implicitly integrated into general educational sciences. Comparative Education would thus lose its legitimacy as an independent discipline, including its specificities and its methodological approach.

This is the paradoxical prospect for Comparative Education: While there are signs of a growing relevance of comparative approaches in the context of global transformations, this development does not happen necessarily under the label of Comparative Education. The trend points to an increasing awareness of international references, but Comparative Education can no longer claim this trend as a domain of its own.

Discussion

The above-mentioned findings point to a vague disciplinary identity of Comparative Education in the Swiss academic landscape. They show that there is no shared understanding of how to conceptualize the discipline. However, this is not a Swiss particularity. Despite a very weak institutional presence in the field of Comparative Education – with the exception of the University of Geneva – this ambiguity of the disciplinary identity can be situated in the context of the general international discourse of the last decades.

Whereas education in the 19th century was generally marked by a national character, current developments point to a decreasing role of nation states as principal actors in the field of education. Processes such as the European integration, internationalization and rapid globalization have had an important impact also in the field of education; boundaries between countries and systems are less clear in this new framework. This raises generally the question of the significance of Comparative Education as a specific discipline of its own (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004; Crossley, 2002).

On the one hand, basic conceptual assumptions of the discipline are questioned. Indications can be observed in the international context, with the European Educational Research Association (EERA) which broke up its Network 18 ‘Comparative Education’ due to a lack of membership. In Switzerland, too, respective indications can be observed: whereas international issues of education have gained quite a natural place within general educational sciences, the fading academic identity of Comparative Education points to problems concerning its legitimacy.

On the other hand, the comparative approach can provide critical responses to the above-mentioned global developments. The process of globalization and internationalization and its effects on local educational systems has to be reflected. Indeed, a vast body of evidence indicates that multifaceted, locally differing effects of the major global trends can be detected (Schriewer, 1992). Therefore, a refined methodology – as Comparative Education strives for – is indispensable for the complex interrelations and interdependencies between historically and socio-culturally contextualized local situations and global developments to be understood. So far, the general educational sciences still fail to provide the evidence that they are able to perform this task in a sufficiently satisfactory way.

As Switzerland finds itself increasingly confronted with global developments, the specific contribution of Comparative Education is required more than ever. However, the empirical evidence for Switzerland suggests that the opposite development is taking place: issues of Comparative Education are increasingly dealt with by general educational sciences at the expense of the specific methodological approach. The

salient gap between the explicit relevance of comparative approaches and its actual empirical appearance cannot be overlooked.

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Leonie Schüssler, MSc
King's College London, UK
e-mail: leonie.schuessler@gmail.com

Prof. Dr. Bruno Leutwyler
Institute for International Cooperation in Education, PHZ Zug, Switzerland
e-mail: bruno.leutwyler@phz.ch

Comparative Education in Teacher Education in the UK and Ireland

Margo O’Sullivan

Introduction

In the 1960s Comparative Education¹ became accepted as an education discipline in teacher education in the UK, not only in its university departments of education, but also for B.Ed. students at the college level. The common interest of both universities and colleges of education in the field was reflected in the composition and operations of the then British Section of CESE² (Comparative Education Society in Europe), established in 1966 (Sutherland, Watson & Crossley, 2007). However, significant changes in the education scenario in the UK during the 1970s and 1980s had led to the closure and/or merger of UK colleges of higher education and tighter regulation of teacher education. This had in turn led to a marginalization of the teaching of Comparative Education in colleges of education and universities. By the mid-1980s, Comparative Education in the UK had almost disappeared from the initial teacher education curricula (Watson, 1982; Schweisfurth, 1999; Tikly & Crossley, 2001). In Ireland, on the other hand, Comparative Education never developed the same mainstream status it once held in the UK, and was and continues to be taught on an ad hoc basis. This chapter charts the developments in the teaching of comparative education in initial teacher education in the UK and Ireland. It also explores Comparative Education curricula, including methodology and assessment. The Irish case draws on data gathered from research conducted by the author into the teaching of comparative and international education on an initial primary teacher training programme in Ireland (O’Sullivan, 2005). The chapter concludes by considering the rationale for and ways to revitalize the teaching of Comparative Education in teacher education programmes in Ireland and the UK.

The Decline of Comparative Education in Initial Teacher Education in the UK

By the 1960s and early 1970s, Comparative Education had gained considerable popularity and acceptance as a new and necessary ‘educational discipline’ at undergraduate and postgraduate levels in the US, the UK, Europe and Southeast Asia (Watson, 2001, p.9). Higginson’s (2001) useful survey from the 1960s to the 1990s of

¹ Although the field is more widely denominated in the UK as ‘Comparative and International Education’ (as evidenced in the works cited in this chapter), the author consistently used ‘Comparative Education’.

² The British Section of CESE became an independent national body in 1979 named British Comparative Education Society (BCES), which in 1983 changed its name to the British Comparative and International Education Society (BCIES). Subsequently, in 1997, after a merger with BATROE (British Association of Teachers and Researchers in Overseas Education), the British Association for International and Comparative Education (BAICE) was formed.

the early *Newsletters* initiated by the Comparative Education Society in Europe (CESE) and the British Comparative and International Education Society (BCIES), and the journal *Compare*, highlighted the extent to which this was the case in the UK. He pointed out that *Compare* emerged “to accommodate the growth of interest in comparative education as an educational discipline in the United Kingdom, especially in university departments and colleges of education” (Higginson, 2001, p.375). However, the author’s survey of the journal *Compare* indicated that this interest did not lead to publications of any articles and research studies which focused on issues relevant to Comparative Education for initial teacher education.

In the 1970s and 1980s, Comparative Education in the UK [and the US] went through a “crisis of confidence” (Watson, 2001, p.9), particularly in initial teacher education (Watson, 1982; McLean, 1988, cited in Higginson, 2001). The decline of Comparative Education in teacher education in the UK was originally flagged by Watson’s 1982 study, which sought to ascertain the position of the teaching of Comparative Education in British teacher education institutes. The study involved the sending of a questionnaire to all teacher education institutions throughout the UK. Replies from 106 of the 134 institutions revealed that Comparative Education was in dramatic decline:

While Comparative Education continues to be a popular subject where it is taught, whether as an option or as a compulsory component of a course, it is increasingly studied by a minority of students in small groups or in elective classes. (Watson, 1982, p.221)

Over a decade later, Schweisfurth’s (1999) survey in 1995-1996 into the institutional base of Comparative Education at four universities in the UK (Bristol, London, Oxford and Warwick) had similar findings: “The first noticeable trend has been the decline in discrete academic courses of study, and the virtual disappearance of Comparative Education as a component of pre-service teacher education or undergraduate offering” (p.93). Tikly and Crossley (2001) also referred to the decline of Comparative Education in initial teacher education. On a more positive note, Wilson’s (2005) study of Comparative Education in British Universities in February and March 2005 found ‘a healthier state of play’ in that “although the ITT [initial teacher training] curriculum continues to constrain activity, a small presence has remained in Initial Teacher Training” (p.8). Her study indicated that five B.Ed. programmes and two postgraduate initial teacher-training programmes (PGCE), or 6% of a total of 47 higher education institutions surveyed, offered Comparative (and International) Education courses. With the exception of one of the B.Ed. programmes, the Comparative Education courses were optional.

Watson (1982) highlighted a number of reasons for the decline in Comparative Education in initial teacher education - stress on highly structured and practically focused courses, overcrowding of the timetable, constraints of time, financial cutbacks, lack of specialist staff, lack of demand, and a view put forward by academics in the Social Sciences that it was not essential for initial teacher training. Wilson further highlighted (2005, p.12) the following issues as obstacles: staffing policy and mind-sets; funding issues; and institutional issues.

The crisis of Comparative Education in the UK was also undoubtedly brought about by cuts in the number of students enrolled in colleges of education, from 130,000 in 1971/1972 to 38,000 in 1980/1981 (Raggatt, 1984, cited in Higginson, 2001, p.376). This had a devastating effect on Comparative Education, not least because of the loss

of staff with expertise in the area, who could promote its resurgence, if there was to be any (Higginson, 2001). McLean (1984, cited in Higginson, 2001, p.379) used the articles in *Compare* to highlight the impact of this. He suggested that the journal “has gone more upmarket” in that “there are fewer readers in exclusively undergraduate teaching institutions”, and most of the contributions from the journal are now made by those working at postgraduate level. The author’s own trawl through *Compare* and the other internationally recognized journals in the field of Comparative Education, specifically, *Comparative Education*, *Comparative Education Review*, and the *International Review of Education*, indicated a similar concentration of contributions from the postgraduate sector.

There were other reasons for the decline of Comparative Education in initial teacher education. Crossley and Watson (2003, p.72) argued that some aspects of globalization, particularly the spread of “neo-liberalism and marketization” played a role, while McGrath cited globalization’s influence on “the current cult of efficiency” (2001, p.398) which has led to the sidelining of Comparative Education in initial teacher education curricula. Particularly in the UK and the US, initial teacher education increasingly focused on the development of specific teaching competences among trainee teachers that are related to actual performance in the classroom. Schweisfurth pointed out that “as teachers are viewed less and less as professionals, their training is viewed more and more as an apprenticeship of sorts” (1999, p.94). Her position is echoed by McGrath (2001, p.392) who elaborated that:

In the educational sphere globalization leads to the hegemony of the view that education is about economic competitiveness. This privileges human resources over liberal or critical perspectives of education and privileges the market over all other areas. Education becomes a tool to be wielded efficiently. The stress is on essential competencies and, as can be seen from the curriculum of teacher training across Britain, non-essential perspectives (historical, religious, international) are marginalized or ignored.

Comparative Education in Initial Teacher Education in Ireland

The Irish Comparative Education story has not been documented, and this report emerged mainly from the author’s conversations with colleagues in the primary teacher education colleges in Ireland. Unlike in the UK, Comparative Education never achieved the mainstream status in Irish initial teacher education. The low status of the discipline of education explains this. In Ireland, education as a discipline and consequently, all branches of the discipline, including Comparative Education, was not highly regarded until the early 1970s. Until 1974, trainee primary teachers only completed a two-year diploma that focused on developing teaching skills and competences, with little attention to the development of students’ understanding of the rationale for these.

The B.Ed. programme is currently offered in five colleges of Education in Ireland. Students in the three smaller colleges can opt to complete a fourth year in Trinity College, which enables them to graduate with an honours B.Ed. degree. Comparative Education is offered from time to time as an elective subject to the students attending Trinity College. It has also been offered since the late 1990s as an elective subject at one of the other two colleges, where students can complete an honours B.Ed. degree. Overall, Comparative Education in initial teacher education in Ireland is marginalized and inconsistent in that it has been and continues to be only available as an elective or

taught as part of a course. This has been dependent on the availability of lecturers with an interest and expertise in Comparative Education.

Comparative Education Curricula in Initial Teacher Education in the UK and Ireland

Curricula in the UK

Watson (1982) described the curriculum content of Comparative Education in initial teacher education in the UK where

...most courses are concerned with general descriptions of different education systems or with thematic comparisons rather than with methodology or theoretical considerations. Major consideration is given to other West European education systems, to the Soviet Union and the communist bloc, to North America and to the Third World in that order ... concern for methodology or theoretical approaches to Comparative Education mainly at Master's level (p.207).

A later work by Phillips (1999, p.16) commented that Comparative Education "provides a body of descriptive and explanatory data which allows us to see various practices and procedures in a very wide context that helps to throw light upon them" and suggested that the content should focus on area and thematic studies.

Curricula in Ireland

The authors' study into the teaching of Comparative Education in a primary teacher education college in Ireland found that students were least interested in the theoretical underpinnings of Comparative Education. The study of themes across countries was also not very popular, where 'education and religion' and 'multigrade' were the only specific themes that were explored in the course. This lack of interest in thematic studies was also borne out by the student presentations and individual research projects – only two of the presentations explored themes, one looked at the issues of gender in education in Africa and the other used French immersion in Canada to explore bilingual education. All the other presentations looked at the education systems in specific countries and compared them to the Irish system. However, it needs to be pointed out that other themes emerged, for example, the impact of textbooks and assessment on education emerged from the sessions on Education in Namibia.

The Irish case seems to suggest that students need a level of maturity and teaching experience to ignite their interest in and enable them to study the more theoretical aspects of Comparative Education. This had already been observed by Watson (1982, p.220). The author's Irish study also suggested that a focus on the theory of Comparative Education may dampen students' enthusiasm for Comparative Education (O'Sullivan, 2005). Students are most interested in area studies, and in meeting this interest the course was furthering the importance of Comparative Education and students' potential commitment to further studies in the field. The extent to which Comparative Education broadens students' understanding of education emerged as a significant outcome of the study and area studies must be enabling this to develop. Also, the author of the study pointed out that a thorough grounding in area studies provides students with a strong foundation upon which an exploration of Comparative Education philosophy and theory could be built, should the students choose to do postgraduate studies in Comparative Education.

In the light of this, it seems that Comparative Education in initial teacher education curricula should focus mainly on area and thematic studies, unless students are

returning to college to complete an honours year programme, in which case the experience and maturity they return with enables them to study theory and philosophy more effectively. The author's Irish study highlighted that students were very interested in learning different teaching strategies used in other countries, which they could use to enrich their teaching, as well as in methodology and assessment. The assessment used in the Irish case study included a reflective diary on aspects of the course and on the field trip to London and a presentation, in pairs or small groups, of a Comparative Education topic of interest to them. Students highlighted the usefulness of the assessment to their development of Comparative Education knowledge and understanding. With regard to methodology, many students highlighted the variety of lecturers with different experiences and lecturing styles as important. They indicated their positive reactions to the use of a variety of methodologies, the relaxed atmosphere, the shared ownership, and the learning experiences they gathered as a result: "Enjoyed the lectures as interesting and different from our normal lectures in 3rd year", "Got a chance to meet interesting people I would never normally meet", "Fantastic learning experience". The London field trip also emerged as significant: "The chance to observe and learn, in a hands on experience in London, was the best way to learn" and "Having first hand experience of a different education system consolidated some of the issues which we dealt with and showed me others we should have dealt with, like how to teach the minority children in our classes". This echoed Watson's (1982, p.209) finding that a field trip, which traditionally tended to form part of Comparative Education courses, was an important curriculum component.

The Revitalization of Comparative Education in Ireland and the UK

In the 1990s, the status of Comparative Education in the postgraduate sector began to rise again and has re-emerged as a vibrant field of study. The reasons for this are discussed elsewhere (see e.g. Watson, 2001; Crossley & Watson, 2003; Arnové & Torres, 2007). Briefly, they include those suggested by Crossley and Watson (2003, p.1): the impact of globalization; advances in information and communications technology; paradigmatic challenges and the relative ease of international travel. The former is particularly relevant and highlights the political role that Comparative Education now plays, as Phillips observed:

At the present time there is arguably an unprecedented interest in what is happening in education systems outside our own, especially with the growth in importance for politicians and the media of the findings of large-scale international studies of pupil achievement (1999, p.15).

O'Sullivan (2005) suggested that the revival of Comparative Education at postgraduate level has emerged as a result of the extent to which its practical usefulness was highlighted, specifically, the political interest in comparing performance between countries and also, in the light of the interest in development, the usefulness of the international aspects of the field. As a result, the field is developing considerable influence and it is increasingly visible in the public domain. Perhaps, this position of Comparative Education could be usefully exploited to highlight its benefits for initial teacher education, which was one of the main recommendations in the author's Irish study, a message that begun to emerge since the 1980s (Watson, 1982; Raggatt, 1984, cited in Higginson, 2001).

Globalization, neo-liberalism and efficiency currently underpin much activity in education and other fields. Comparative Education, which has been viewed as too

theoretical and of little use in the professional preparation of teachers (Watson, 1982; Schweisfurth, 1999), has consequently been sidelined in the advent of these new frameworks. Yet Comparative Education has much to offer initial teacher education students, even within competency-based initial teacher education courses. O'Sullivan's (2005) study highlighted Comparative Education's potential usefulness in developing students' capacities to teach in multicultural classrooms, which is one of the competencies in most British and American initial teacher education courses. It is also professionally useful in the extent to which it prepares students to teach global citizenship and exposes them to other teaching strategies which they can use in their classrooms. The Irish case study revealed that students' conceptualization of Comparative Education is most related to Sadler's (1900) notion of it as the study of another country's system in order to learn from it and thus enhance one's own system, or teaching, as in the case of the students. These are informed by the broader understanding of education that Comparative Education fostered in students, in particular the development of the international dimension. The professional benefit of Comparative Education is an important message and needs to be brought to the attention of those in the teacher training policy arena. Comparative Education is an 'efficient' method of developing teaching skills critical to our increasingly globalized world.

Furthermore, there is a need to encourage the teaching of Comparative Education perspectives and knowledge in other courses in initial teacher education programmes. Tikly and Crossley (2001, p.562) highlighted the human dimension in this:

...there is an urgent need for comparativists to become active change agents in the broader transformation of their institutions – if they are to better meet the contemporary challenges posed by globalization, changing geopolitical relations, and reform in the higher education sector.

They suggested that comparativists should support their colleagues' efforts to include an international and comparative dimension in the areas they teach. This would raise the profile of Comparative Education and lead to a renewed interest in it, which would also lead to the revival of Comparative Education in initial teacher education programmes.

Finally, there is the challenge of encouraging others in initial teacher education, particularly lecturers and managers, to consider ways of providing Comparative Education courses for their students. It is important that other people who teach Comparative Education in initial teacher education make their voices heard, publishing their experiences and conducting further research. The Comparative Education conferences and journals could also actively seek articles and papers which engage with Comparative Education in initial teacher education. Comparative Education in initial teacher education has declined, mainly because it is not considered to be of professional use to trainee teachers. The author's (O'Sullivan, 2005) and much earlier, Watson's (1982) studies challenge this view. Academics and teacher educators involved in Comparative Education must highlight the usefulness of Comparative Education to initial teacher education, in an era of globalization and neo-liberalism, and its consequential development of competency-based initial teacher education courses.

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Dr. Margo O’Sullivan
Mary Immaculate College, University of Limerick
Ireland
e-mail: margoosullivan@eircom.net

PART II

*Comparative Education at
Universities in North America*

Comparative Education in Canadian Universities

Marianne Larsen, Suzanne Majhanovich & Vandra Masemann

Introduction

Any discussion of Comparative Education within Canadian higher education institutions must take into consideration the specific nature of the development of Comparative Education in Canada in relation to educational programmes in the field. The first section of this chapter provides a brief overview of the field in Canada. The second section of this chapter provides an overview of the Comparative and International Education graduate programmes, specialization areas and courses in Canadian higher education institutions, focusing on three stages in the history of Comparative Education in Canada: the 1950s-1970s (Establishment of Comparative Education); the 1980s-1990s (Fragmentation of Comparative Education); and the 2000s (Broadening Comparative Education). Two tables are presented which summarize changes in the field over the past 50 years and the titles of courses related to Comparative Education offered in Canadian universities. A discussion of the current state of Comparative Education in Canadian higher education follows with some concluding comments about the current state of the field.

Overview of Comparative Education in Canada

Historically, Comparative Education in Canada has been understood very broadly in both the content areas and the personnel who were considered to be members of the field. For example, according to the constitution of the Comparative and International Education Society of Canada (CIESC), first drafted in 1967, the following persons are eligible for membership:

Teachers, research workers, and graduate students in comparative education, international education, development education, native education, cross-cultural education, and related fields.

For many decades, discussions on what constitutes Comparative Education have occupied the minds of Canadian comparativists. At the First World Congress of Comparative Education Societies held in Canada in 1970, Joseph Katz outlined his understanding of its compass in his Introduction to the Proceedings. He saw two major foci: the place of comparative education in the education of teachers and the role and rationale for educational aid to developing countries (Katz, 1970).

Several Canadians delivered papers on the topic of the role of comparative education in teacher education, notably Douglas Ray, Margaret Gillett, Lionel Desjarlais, Andreas Paplauskas-Ramunas, and Andrew Skinner. Desjarlais located his inspiration in the works of Michael Sadler, Isaac Kandel, Edmund King, and William Brickman and suggested a common thread in their definitions was a “philosophy of a human being in interaction with his environment” (Desjarlais, 1970, p.29). He proposed an undergraduate teacher education course in comparative education based on “a study of the pioneers of comparative education and the actual leaders in the field” followed by a study of national or regional systems in their social, economic, political

and historical context (1970, p.30). Ray concentrated on the mechanics of finding comparable data to present to students in such a course.

In addition to inter-country comparisons, Canadian comparativists have tended to include other less well-known areas as legitimate foci of research. For example, Binda (2001), past CIESC President, has argued the case for aboriginal education in Canada to be legitimized through comparative and global perspectives. As early as 1977, multicultural education was considered a worthy topic of focus for comparativists, with the theme of the World Congress in London (UK) being Unity and Diversity in Education (Ray & Lamontagne, 1978). This theme has been taken up enthusiastically in Comparative Education in Canada since then.

Moreover, given that education is a provincial and territorial responsibility in Canada, there are twelve different educational systems across the country. As a result, there is plenty of opportunity for comparative studies to include cross-regional comparisons. As Skinner (1972), one of Canada's earliest comparativists, pointed out, "Canada itself, within its own very extensive boundaries, offers wide scope and opportunity for enlightening comparative studies in education" (p.5). Further, the articles published in the journal, *Canadian and International Education*, the official journal of the CIESC, demonstrate the broad ways that Canadians view Comparative Education. Since 2000, the range of themes presented has included: citizenship education, globalization, educational marketization, international development, evaluation and assessment, and bilingual education.

Overview of Comparative Education in Canadian Higher Education Institutions

Establishment of Comparative Education at Canadian Universities (1950s-1970s)

The history of Comparative Education in Canada can be traced to the arrival of Isaac Kandel and Peter Sandiford from Great Britain to Teachers College at Columbia University, New York in 1908. Five years later, Sandiford, who wrote the 1918 text *Comparative Education*, moved from Columbia to the University of Toronto (UT) in Canada where he taught in the Department of Education until 1941. Skinner from St. Andrews University in Scotland joined the staff of the Ontario College of Education at the UT in 1954 where he taught the history and philosophy of education and comparative education to teacher education and postgraduate students.

However, it was not until the 1950s and 60s when Comparative Education spread across the country. Andreas Paplauskas-Ramunas migrated from Lithuania to head the Centre of Comparative Education at the University of Ottawa in 1954. Two years later, Joseph Katz, who had attained his PhD at Chicago and who was the founder of the CIESC and first Canadian President of the U.S.-based Comparative and International Education Society (CIES), established Comparative Education at the University of British Columbia (UBC). Comparative Education was also initiated at McGill University in Montreal, Quebec in 1960 by Reginald Edwards (London).

The late 1960s witnessed the beginnings of Comparative Education in the Western provinces. McGill students, Daniel Dorotich and Werner Stephan, founded the University of Saskatchewan programme. Two other comparative programmes were started up in Alberta. Robert Lawson (Michigan) founded the programme at the University of Calgary; and Kazim Bacchus, John Cheal, and Raj Pannu initiated the programme at the University of Alberta (Wilson, 1994a).

In 1965, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) was founded to provide graduate level programmes, to conduct research and disseminate its findings, and to engage in field development activities in education. By 1968, two comparativists were hired, Joseph Farrell and David Wilson (University of Syracuse), in the then Department of Educational Planning. Courses in Comparative Education were also taught in the Department of Sociology in Education. Students in the 1970s could take a variety of courses with an “interdepartmental focus”, which in 1982 was termed an “interdepartmental specialization”. The Comparative, International and Development Education Centre (CIDE) was established in 1989 offering a collaborative programme which spanned four academic departments (Farrell, personal communication, 2007; Wilson, 1994b).

Comparative education was also established during the late sixties/early seventies at four other Canadian universities. Donald Weeren (Columbia) started up the programme at St. Mary’s University in Halifax, Nova Scotia. Joseph Lauwerys, Professor of Comparative Education at the Institute of Education, University of London, became the founding director of the Atlantic Institute of Education in Halifax in 1970. The comparative programme at the Université de Montréal (Québec) was founded by Marcel de Grandpré; and the programme at the University of Western Ontario (UWO) in London, Ontario by Douglas Ray (Wilson, 1994a). Thus, by the 1970s there were eleven universities across the country with putative Comparative Education programmes or courses in Comparative Education within their graduate programmes.

Fragmentation of Comparative Education in Canadian Universities (1980s-1990s)

Wilson (1994b) has argued that the programmes and offerings in the field of comparative education became fragmented in Canada by the 1990s. For example, by the end of the 1980s at the University of Ottawa and by the mid-1990s at the UBC, Comparative Education programmes had virtually disappeared as a result of their founders’ retirement. At some universities, Comparative Education was reduced to what Wilson (1994b) calls “smaller programmes” with only one or two comparative courses and/or faculty in the field.

Comparative educators at these institutions were located in departments or programmes where, according to Wilson, they primarily taught courses in their particular specializations. Their comparative education courses appeared to be secondary to their primary teaching duties. Wilson (1994b) concludes that:

The “state” of our field in Canada can be described as fragmented in the light of this information. Most Canadian Comparative Educators are hired to teach courses other than Comparative Education and *no* stand-alone Department of Comparative Education exists in the country (p.17).

One could surmise that this change was due to the decline in the importance of the traditional foundations of education courses, such as History, Philosophy, and Comparative Education. This shift may also have been associated with internal rearrangements of departments in institutions, in accordance with the move to more efficient administration of universities, based on a corporate model.

Cowen’s (1990, p.348) assertion that “the reputation of a particular university in comparative education was frequently linked with the efforts of one individual” is relevant with respect to the Canadian situation. The retirement of some of those key individuals (e.g. Ray at the UWO) led to the demise of their programmes. Further,

Wilson (1994b) also attributes the fragmentation of the field to the fact that Comparative Education has not been “vested” in curriculum guidelines and was therefore largely absent from teacher preparation programmes. If there were comparative courses, they were generally optional; when resources became scarce, as they did throughout the 1980s and 1990s, it was these courses that were often cut back or eliminated entirely from teacher education.

Broadening Comparative Education in Canadian Universities (2000s)

Recent research has shown that to a large degree, Comparative Education in Canadian universities still remains fragmented. However, there is evidence that Comparative Education is on the rise and that comparative and international content and perspectives are being infused across many more educational graduate courses than has been the case in the past. Indeed, over the last ten years, we have begun to witness a renaissance of Comparative Education in Canada. The impact of the process of globalization, increasing interest in international issues and related hiring of a new generation of comparative scholars is being felt.

With the exception of the ‘hybrid’ collaborative programme at the OISE/UT, which is discussed in further detail below, there are no stand-alone Comparative Education departments or programmes in any Canadian universities. Nevertheless, there are increasing numbers of universities with graduate degrees that include a focus area or specialization in Comparative and International Education, such as *domaine d'études: éducation comparée et fondements de l'éducation*, available in the Masters and Doctoral programmes at the Université de Montréal. We can also see an increasing number of elective courses related to Comparative and International Education, and themes of globalization and cross-cultural learning being offered.

Two tables are presented below to show the changes in Comparative Education over the last 50 years and current offerings of courses related to Comparative and International Education. Specifically, Table 1 provides a summary of Canadian universities that have offered some kind of programme or courses in Comparative Education from the 1950s through to 2007. Table 2 provides a more detailed look at Comparative Education within Canadian universities today, listing Comparative Education courses and courses related to Comparative and International Education.

Table 1: Canadian Universities with Comparative Education Graduate Courses

| | 1950s-1970s | 1994 | 2002 | 2007 |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--|------|
| UNIVERSITY | Data from Wilson (1994a) | Data from Wilson (1994b) | Data from Zhang and Majhanovich (2006) | |
| Brandon University | | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Brock University | | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| Concordia University | | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Dalhousie University | | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| Lakehead University | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| McGill University | √ | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| Memorial University | | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Queen's University | | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| St. Mary's University | √ | 6 | 0 | 2 |
| Simon Fraser University | | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| Université de Sherbrooke | | 4 | 0 | 1 |
| Université de Montréal | √ | 9 | NA | 2 |
| Université du Québec (Hull) | | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Université du Québec (Trois Rivières) | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| U. du Québec (Chicoutimi) | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Université du Québec (Montréal) | | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Université Laval | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| University of Alberta | √ | 5 | 3 | 10 |
| University of British Columbia | √ | 1 | 4 | 4 |
| University of Calgary | √ | 2 | 1 | 10 |
| University of Manitoba | | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| University of New Brunswick | | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| University of Ottawa | √ | 0 | NA | 4 |
| University of Regina | | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| University of Saskatchewan | √ | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| University of Toronto/OISE | √ | 12 | 12 | 23 |
| University of Victoria | | NA | 1 | 1 |
| University of Western Ontario | √ | 2 | 5 | 6 |
| University of Windsor | | NA | 0 | 1 |
| York University | | NA | NA | 3 |

0: no education programme

Table 2: Canadian Universities with Comparative Education Graduate Courses
Course and Program Details - 2007

| UNIVERSITY AND PROGRAMME / DEGREE NAME | Title of course contains "Comparative Education" or "Éducation Comparée" | Course description contains words: Comparative, International or similar |
|---|--|---|
| Brandon University - M.Ed in Educational Psychology and Foundations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative Education I ▪ Comparative Education II | |
| Brock University - M.Ed. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative Studies of Education in Developed and Developing Nations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Holistic/Global Perspectives in Education ▪ International Education ▪ The Accountability Challenge ▪ The Education of Immigrants and Minorities ▪ Selected Topics in Education: Literacy in Cross-Cultural Perspective & Democratic Education |
| Concordia University - M.A. in Education with topic of study in comparative and intercultural education | | |
| Lakehead University - M.Ed. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ History and Comparative Education | |
| McGill University - M.A. in Culture and Values - Ph.D. with specialization in Cultural and International Studies in Education | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Culture, Values and Education ▪ Globalization, Education and Change |
| Memorial University of Newfoundland - M.Ed. (Leadership Studies) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative Perspectives in Public Education, Reform and Leadership | |
| Queen's University - M.Ed. and PhD (Cultural and Policy Studies) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative, International and Development Education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Globalization and Education |
| St. Mary's - M.A. of TESL and TEFL - M.A. International Development Studies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introduction to Comparative Education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sociology of Developing Societies ▪ Gender, Ethnicity and Migration ▪ Philosophical Issues in International Development ▪ Special Topics in International Development |
| Simon Fraser University - M. Ed. in TEFL/TESL for international educators - M.Ed and Ph.D in Educational Leadership | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introduction to Comparative Education ▪ Educational Governance, Reform and Diversity ▪ Curriculum and Instruction: Teaching in an ESL Context "Dalian China" | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Equity Issues in Language and Literacy Education |
| Université de Sherbrooke | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Pratiques internationales en gestion de la formation |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| <p>Université du Montréal - M. Ed. and Doctoral Focus: Comparative Education Université du Québec à Chicoutimi (UQAC)</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Option éducation comparée et fondements de l'éducation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Éducation à la citoyenneté dans le domaine de l'univers social |
| <p>Université du Québec à Montréal Université Laval University of Alberta - M.A. in Ed Policy Studies with specialization in International Studies in Education</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Éducation comparée ▪ Aspects internationaux et comparatifs de l'éducation ▪ Foundations of Education: Perspectives on International Issues | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Éducation interculturelle ▪ International Adult Education ▪ Education and Development Theory ▪ History of Education ▪ Sociology of Higher Education ▪ Citizenship Education: Global Contexts ▪ Contemporary Issues in Education ▪ Global Education: Theory and Practice ▪ Policy Analysis in Education ▪ Indigenous Ontologies in the Global Context |
| <p>University of British Columbia - M.Ed. in Adult Education - M.Ed. in Adult Learning and Global Change- online</p> | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative and International Adult and Higher Education ▪ Online: Locating Oneself in Global Learning ▪ Adult Learning: Contexts and Perspectives ▪ Global-Local Learning |
| <p>University of Calgary - M.A. (specializations in Educational Contexts: Educational Leadership; Higher Education Administration)</p> | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Educational Leadership in Changing Contexts ▪ Issues in Social Justice Research ▪ Cultures, Identity and Schooling ▪ Struggle for Democracy ▪ Values Debate & Young People ▪ Education, Globalization & Revolution ▪ Women in Education ▪ Critical Pedagogy and Social Justice ▪ Social Justice Activism in Education ▪ Issues in First Nations Education |
| <p>University of Manitoba - M. Ed. in Educational Administration, Foundations and Ed Psychology</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative Education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Cross-cultural Education |
| <p>University of Ottawa - M.A./M.Ed. with concentration in "Society, Culture and Literacies" - M.A. of Globalization and International Development</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Globalization and Comparative Education ▪ Education Comparée au Canada | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Education of Marginalized Youth ▪ Ethnography of Education |
| <p>University of Saskatchewan - M.Ed. (Educational Foundations)</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative Studies in Education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative Continuing Education ▪ Interdisciplinary Seminar in the Foundations of Education |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| <p>University of Toronto/OISE - M.A., M.Ed. and Ph.D with specialization in Comparative, International and Development Education</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introduction to Comparative, International, and Development Education ▪ Special Topics in Comparative, International and Development Education ▪ Comparative Education Theory and Methodology ▪ Methodologies for Comparing Educational Systems ▪ Comparative Higher Education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Global Governance and Educational Change ▪ Comparative and International Perspectives in Adult Education ▪ Political Economy of Adult Education in Global Perspectives ▪ Work, Technology and the Knowledge Economy ▪ Democratic Citizenship Education ▪ Education and Social Development ▪ Comparative Education: The Development of Third World Educational Systems ▪ Sociology of Race and Ethnicity ▪ Modernization, Development and Education in African Contexts ▪ Controversial Issues in Development Education ▪ Global Economic Restructuring-International Migration Policies ▪ School Program Development and Implementation ▪ Diversity and the Ethics of Educational Administration ▪ Educational Change in the Post-modern Age ▪ International Academic Relations <p>Special Topics courses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sociological Research in Education: Cultural Knowledges, Representation and Colonial Education ▪ Popular Education: Comparative and International Perspectives ▪ Citizenship Learning and Participatory Democracy |
| <p>University of Victoria -M.Ed/M.A. in Educational Psychology and Leadership Studies University of Western Ontario - M.Ed. (Policy Studies)</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comparative Perspectives on Organizational Leadership ▪ Introduction to Comparative Education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Globalization and Educational Restructuring ▪ Minority Language Issues ▪ Language and Education ▪ Mathematics, Science, and Technology Education: Policy and Society ▪ Perspectives on the Environment: Global Education in a Technological Society |
| <p>University of Windsor - M.A. (Education) York University - M.Ed. (Language, Culture and Teaching)</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Special Topics in Education: Comparative and International Education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Issues in Globalization and Education ▪ Women in Higher Education ▪ Multilingual Education |

Sources of Information: University websites; Personal Communication with Professors in Faculties of Education in the Spring, 2007.

Discussion

Table 1 shows the number of universities that have had Comparative Education courses or programmes over the last 50 years or so. There were 10 (or 11 if we separate out the UT and OISE) universities that developed Comparative Education programmes between the 1950s and 1970s. Since the early 1990s, there have consistently been 19 to 24 Canadian universities offering courses in Comparative Education. However, one must be cautious in concluding that there has been little change in the field over the past decade.

Table 2 provides more detail about the specific graduate programmes that include comparative and international education content. The first column lists the university and programme degree names, the middle column lists the courses with the words 'Comparative Education' or 'Éducation Comparée' in their title, and the third column provides a list of courses that have the words 'comparative', 'international', 'global' or similar terms in their course descriptions. These courses, while not at first glance on the topic of Comparative Education, include Comparative and International Education content and/or perspectives.

One institution that stands out amongst the others is OISE/UT, which has had a long history in Comparative Education. Currently, OISE/UT offers a collaborative 'Comparative, International and Development Education' (CIDE) Programme that requires registration in one of the four OISE/UT main departments, a compulsory core course in Comparative, International and Development Education, and three other courses that meet the CIDE requirement, as well as the other required home departmental courses. In this respect, OISE is perhaps not a stand-alone programme, but a hybrid - a formally recognized programme that acts as a specialization with their graduate degree.¹

Most other Canadian universities offer Comparative Education courses under the umbrella of a wide variety of different programmes. In these cases, students are enrolled in graduate programmes such as Policy Studies or Adult Education and then they can focus or specialize in Comparative Education. For example, the UBC offers two M.Ed. degrees in Adult Education/Learning and has four courses related to Comparative and International Education. The University of Alberta offers an M.A. in Education Policy Studies with specialization in International Studies in Education with nine courses related to Comparative and International Education. At St. Mary's University students are expected to take Introduction to Comparative Education as a part of the Master's of TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) programmes.

This pattern illustrates the broad interpretation of Comparative Education within Canada that was discussed above. We can also find evidence of this by examining the types of graduate courses that include Comparative Education perspectives and content. Comparative perspectives and content are included in courses related to ethnicity/race/culture, language/literacy education, First Nations education and gender. Furthermore, rising numbers of courses include comparative and international perspectives on topics such as education policy, higher education, adult education,

¹ Thank you to Dr. Karen Mundy for clarifying this point.

leadership and educational administration, citizenship and global education. Globalization is another increasingly popular topic at the graduate level, and a handful of institutions have courses on development and education, and education in developing societies.

Finally, it is worth considering some of the methodological problems in attempting to carry out research such as this. Without knowing the specific criteria that Wilson (1994a, 1994b) used to determine whether or not a university offered a Comparative Education programme, it is difficult to draw conclusions between his data and more recent data. This raises the question of what constitutes a formal programme. This chapter has taken a broader approach in examining the state of Comparative Education within Canadian higher education by considering not simply formal stand-alone programmes, but also Comparative Education courses and those within which are infused Comparative and International Education content and perspectives. However, this state in itself is difficult to determine because course titles and descriptions are often out of date on university web-sites and/or do not reflect what is taught by individual instructors. Discussions with Canadian comparativists regarding this situation have led the authors to conclude that there are probably many more courses beyond those listed in Table 2 that include within them comparative perspectives and content.

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed some of the changes in the field of Comparative Education in Canadian higher education since the early twentieth century. There have been three main phases: the first from the 1950s up until the 1970s which witnessed the establishment of Comparative Education in Canadian universities; the second from the 1980s -1990s when the field became fragmented, and the current phase (2000-) in which the field has been broadened. Today, while there are no formal, stand-alone programmes in Comparative Education within Canada, there is plenty of evidence to suggest that comparative and international perspectives are being infused across a wide variety of graduate programmes and courses.

The early history of comparative education was largely connected to teacher education programmes, specifically in the Department of History, Philosophy and Sociology at the University of Toronto. From 1965 onwards, there was an optional course in Comparative Education for students in the B.Ed. teacher preparation programme at the Ontario College of Education which became the Faculty of Education at the University of Toronto, as well as a course in Global Education developed there in the 1990s. Recently, after the merger of the Faculty of Education and OISE in 1996, a new Comparative Education course has been developed since 2004 in their teacher education programme in addition to a new curriculum course in Global Education for teachers.

This chapter, however, has focused primarily on Comparative Education within graduate programmes. OISE/UT is the only Canadian university that has a Comparative Education programme, albeit a 'hybrid' one. Further, it appears as though there are only ten universities that offer traditional courses in Comparative Education methodologies and theories. The authors posit that the trend towards devaluing theoretical and methodological issues in educational research with corresponding increasing emphasis on practical matters may have had some impact on types of

graduate education courses offered in Canada and other settings such as Mexico, which Buenfil Burgos (1999) has examined.

Nonetheless, over the last ten years or so there has actually been an increase in courses that address their topics from a comparative and/or international perspective. In place of many traditional courses in Comparative Education theory and methodology, there are now courses that address issues such as development, culture, citizenship and global education, higher education, adult education and indigenous education from comparative and international perspectives.

Even if hired for other purposes, comparativists have continued to infuse the courses they offer with international/comparative content. Indeed, an increasing number of comparativists have been hired in Canadian universities. A partial list of active comparativists across Canada who have entered the field since the 1980s includes: Alan Sears (University of New Brunswick); Marie Mc Andrew (l'Université de Montréal); Eva Krugly-Smolka (Queen's University); Richard Maclure (University of Ottawa); Karen Mundy, Ruth Hayhoe, and Daniel Schugurensky (OISE/UT); Goli Rezai-Rashti and Marianne Larsen (UWO); Nombuso Dlamini (University of Windsor); Cecille DePass and Yvonne Hébert (University of Calgary); Ali Abdi (University of Alberta); and Peter Grimmett (Simon Fraser University).

On a concluding note, new collaborative partnership programmes with universities in other countries can also be considered evidence of the rise of Comparative and International Education. Some universities are also internationalizing their curriculum, offering more study abroad programmes, and increasing their intake of international graduate students. These initiatives, related to trends such as globalization and the internationalization of higher education (Ninnes & Hellstén, 2005), may be having an impact on the field in Canada.

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Dr. Marianne Larsen
University of Western Ontario, Faculty of Education, London, Ontario Canada
e-mail: mlarsen@uwo.ca

Dr. Suzanne Majhanovich
University of Western Ontario, Faculty of Education, London, Ontario Canada
e-mail: smajhano@uwo.ca

Dr. Vandra Masemann
OISE/University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario Canada
e-mail: vmasemann@oise.utoronto.ca

Comparative Education in the USA

Patricia K. Kubow & Paul R. Fossum

Introduction

Educators worldwide face similar challenges in helping students, communities, and policy makers understand the interactions among societal aims, personal aspirations, and globalizing factors that influence formal schooling's purposes. In the United States, education has moved in a problem-focused and solution-driven direction due to an accountability movement that demands the measurement of educational outcomes through standardized test assessments. A lack of genuine dialogue between educators and external stakeholders has contributed to a culture of compliance in the U.S. where teachers, and increasingly professors, are challenged to develop critical aims amidst accountability policies and legislative mandates such as the No Child Left Behind Act. Education accountability reforms have defined the American public's view of education since at least the 1980s, and schools have come under increasing scrutiny to justify that the things they teach are relevant to social needs. It is within this turbulent and dynamic educational climate that Comparative Education is positioned.

Comparative Education is generally defined as the cross-national, cross-cultural study of education. Comparative research often involves "a study of responses in other societies to problems that appear very [much] like the ones" experienced in one's "own educational system" (Trethewey, 1976, p.2). The ability to inquire comparatively is increasingly important for citizens in pluralistic environments because it enables them to suspend their judgments of unfamiliar people, places, and systems so as to understand and learn from those similarities and differences. Comparison—a study of how things are alike or different by giving attention to certain aspects through the copresence of the other (Eckstein, 1983)—can help people analyze their home cultures and systems with a better understanding of how social and cultural factors impact schooling and society.

As we argued in *Comparative Education: Exploring Issues in International Context* (Kubow & Fossum, 2003 & 2007), Comparative Education helps educators, students, policy makers, and community members consider the kind of formal education that is appropriate for the kind of society desired and well-suited to the society that exists. Comparative Education has an important role to play, therefore, in helping educators to ask enduring social questions and to consider the kinds of relationships to be nurtured between schools and their respective communities. Because Comparative Education is not solely an academic exercise but has practical usefulness in reforming schooling (Epstein, 1983), it is crucial that increased attention be given to Comparative Education in primary, secondary, and post-secondary settings in the U.S. This is especially important in light of evidence revealing a vast international knowledge gap between American students and their counterparts in other nations in relation to basic understanding of world geography, world history, and cultural diversity. Greater attention to Comparative Education in the U.S. could stimulate people's curiosity of other nations, cultures, and social systems and, in turn, enable Americans to examine different cultures and values at a time when accountability and standards-based reform

threatens to make educators more parochial in focus. For educators, the benefit is the realization that educators worldwide wrestle with similar issues impacting formal schooling and can gain insights from the global community of education professionals. Comparative Education's practical value is that it can help educators decide what issues are of primary importance and facilitate their efforts to increase students' cultural knowledge and classroom experiences (Epstein, 1983).

History of Comparative Education as a Field

Because Comparative Education draws from a host of disciplines such as political science, sociology, and anthropology in its examination of educational issues and phenomena, the skill of comparative perspective taking can play a central role in nurturing the critical aims of schooling. Comparative Education encourages educators to use multiple disciplines in posing questions that inform understanding of education and its influencing factors. Adherence to a single discipline and its specific analytical methods would limit understanding that can be gained from a host of disciplines. Thus, education is the unifying factor in Comparative Education, and the disciplines "come within the purview of Comparative Education only insofar as they are relevant to education and schools" (Bereday, 1964, p.x).

Classic analysis of Comparative Education depicts the field's progress in terms of its different historical stages of development. The first stage has been called "the period of travelers' tales" where people's interest in the unknown led to exploration around the world (Noah & Eckstein, 1998, p.15). People observed social patterns and cultural communities to familiarize themselves with sociocultural practices in other locations. During the 19th century, a second stage of Comparative Education emerged called the period of educational borrowing (Gutek, 1993; Noah & Eckstein, 1998). Educators themselves traveled to different countries to observe and describe foreign education systems in terms of organizational structure and methods to delineate what practices and approaches might be useful in their own schools and classrooms. The difficulty with their descriptions was that they were often based on personal impressions and judgments of the societal values they encountered. The well-known pioneer of the American common school movement, Horace Mann, visited a number of countries, including Germany (then Prussia), England, Scotland, Ireland, France, and Holland. Of particular interest to Mann was the Prussian system of education, which he felt might help to improve American education (Trethewey, 1976). Although Mann provided descriptions of the techniques and approaches encountered in each of the Prussian schools he observed (Hans, 1967), he provided "limited discussion of cultural contexts in which attractive ideas or practices had developed and into which they would be transplanted" (Trethewey, 1976, p.17).

Comparative educators in the 20th century were concerned with identifying the forces shaping foreign educational systems and used quantitative methods to explain the factors impacting formal education and society and to establish cause-effect patterns of influence (Noah & Eckstein, 1998). However, Michael Sadler argued that an educational system was "not readily detachable but...intricately connected with the society that supports it" (Bereday, 1964, p.7). This led to concerns about the limitations of educational borrowing and often resulted in a reluctance to study nations outside the West due to the assumption that historically similar backgrounds and cultures could be more easily controlled and quantified. Many comparative educators restricted their

investigations to studies in Western nations of school achievement, educational standards, and teacher qualifications. Throughout the century, comparative educators took the view that wholesale adoption of education from one country to another was shortsighted and that one must consider observed practices and interpretations of those practices strictly in light of the differing social, political, economic, and cultural contexts in which they occur.

The third stage of Comparative Education is characterized as one of international cooperation, peace, and understanding (Arnové & Torres, 1999). Comparative Education's goal is to improve the quality of citizens' lives through the sharing of educational knowledge, structures, and pedagogy with the aim of expanding educational provision and educational quality worldwide. However, the extent to which cross-cultural sharing has been mutual and reciprocal between countries is debatable. Colonial legacies and homogenizing tendencies of Westernization in schooling worldwide suggest that education may be more a reflection of the policies and practices of developed nations than opportunities for self-realization and self-determination in developing country contexts. Certainly curiosity about the unfamiliar and unknown, the quest for best educational practices, and the need for international cooperation are all motivations driving the field of Comparative Education today.

Although such classifications (e.g., traveler's tales, educational borrowing, and international cooperation) may delineate different eras in the field's development, these stages often occur simultaneously (Kubow & Fossum, 2007). Moreover, there may be other ways to characterize Comparative Education's progress historically or to describe the field in less historical terms. For instance, Arnove (2001) stressed Comparative Education's co-existing dimensions (i.e., the theoretical/analytical, the ameliorative, and the international/global). These kinds of classifications, however, may be perceived as linear and bounded and may therefore unnecessarily constrain comparative educators in seeking new understandings of the field's progression and potential. Moreover, the work of comparing education is not restricted to scholars who align themselves with the field's primary professional community, namely the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES). Although scholars most closely associated with the field have readily critiqued the limitations of transporting educational practices across cultures, in reality pursuit of precisely this kind of borrowing is demonstrated in projects such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), which provides data on student achievement in these subject areas. However, by extension, this has generated ranking of American education in relation to education systems elsewhere. Achievement findings like TIMSS are then promulgated through federally supported avenues (e.g., the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics), reflecting a centralized impetus toward accountability, and also legitimizing such findings and implicating the need for local and state responsiveness as a national priority. In light of the competitiveness demonstrated by this use of international comparison, it is reasonable to argue that "international cooperation and understanding" is more a vision of the way things ought to be than it is an established stage. Educational comparison in the U.S. is articulated in terms of international economic competitiveness and as a measure of economic standing relative to that of other nations. Comparative perspective taking (Kubow & Fossum, 2007) is an end for which the field of Comparative Education is uniquely suited and that is supportive of mutual cross-cultural learning. Yet, the most persistent and visible contemporary use of educational comparison in the U.S. is competitive rather than

reciprocal in nature.

Comparative Education's Place in American Education

Comparative Education as a subject area can be found in some schools and colleges of education throughout the United States. The Council of Learned Societies in Education (CLSE, 1996) has identified Comparative Education as a major academic approach that helps to define foundations of education. Thus, many programs and courses in Comparative Education are often housed within educational foundation units or departments at American universities. The objective of Comparative Education, like other courses in the foundations (e.g., philosophy of education, history of education, and sociology of education), is to help students to critically examine educational policies and practices and to develop “an awareness of education and schooling in light of their complex relations to the environing culture” (CLSE, 1996, p.8). Comparative Education, however, is often missing as a course requirement in many education degree programs in American higher education institutions. Without this option, it is unlikely that instructors in the other foundations courses will incorporate cross-national, cross-cultural dimensions in their curricula. This stance is supported by evidence that when international perspectives are found in general foundations texts, they are often relegated to one chapter or drawn upon intermittently, “leaving the comparative perspective undefined and unintegrated as a conceptual tool for interpreting educational assumptions and practices” (Kubow & Fossum, 2007, p.21). American comparativists such as Isaac Kandel and Robert Ulich were attentive to the foundations of education and concerned with “the social causes behind the pedagogical scene” (Bereday, 1964, pp.7-8). Thus, the systematic analysis of broader social and cultural factors and policy aspects that Comparative Education provides is generally missing from undergraduate teacher certification programs. When Comparative Education is found in graduate schools or colleges of education in the U.S., it may not be required but offered instead as one of several options in the foundations of education.

The accountability movement, and the attendant market demands to produce a steady supply of teachers, has resulted in teacher preparation curriculum that is limited in duration and scope and that is increasingly shaped by externally imposed standards and characterized by measurable teacher “competencies.” Within such a curriculum, there is little room for educators to consider who benefits from formal education and whose knowledge and culture are valued and not valued in schools. Because Comparative Education is marginalized, if not entirely excluded from the curriculum, teacher preparation students have limited opportunity to consider schooling’s underlying assumptions and to reflect on the gaps between stated educational objectives and actual educational outcomes (Kubow & Fossum, 2003). Moreover, cross-cultural perspectives and international understanding take on greater urgency in the increasingly global world in which teachers operate. Howard Gardner (2004) has contended that global issues such as ecological balance, energy conservation, poverty reduction, disease prevention, and anti-terrorism “all require input from the syntheses of various forms of disciplinary knowledge and methods” (p.250). The task for educators is to foster students’ global awareness and international competence through the development of skills in multidisciplinary analysis. The “multi-disciplinary origins and nature” of the Comparative Education field “position it well for further advancement in a future in which the socio-cultural analysis of global trends and

developments will require concerted attention” (Crossley, 2000, p.319). As Gerald Gutek (1993) has reminded, two functions of teachers’ work include fostering students’ identity as American citizens *and* as members of a global society—students, in short, who recognize the possibilities for human development and who address the challenges to human survival that transcend national boundaries. Whether the U.S. government and education policy makers will make Comparative Education a priority of American education reform efforts and insist on its inclusion in schools and universities is still to be acknowledged and realized.

Contemporary Directions in Comparative Education

George Bereday (1964), considered the father of Comparative Education in the U.S., argued that Comparative Education’s “intellectual purpose” was “to search for lessons that can be deduced from the variations in educational practice in different societies” (p.xi). Comparative inquiry not only enhances one’s understanding of other nations and cultures but also helps one to know oneself. For Bereday, “It is self-knowledge born of the awareness of others that is the finest lesson comparative education can afford” (p.6). By the late 1970s, a number of comparative educators were influenced by the work of Michael Apple (1978) who examined the internal workings of American schools and discussed how curriculum, pedagogy, and other schooling processes served to maintain social inequities and even hide the particular economic and political interests of the dominant culture. The educational excellence and education accountability movement that started in the 1980s drew greater attention to the study of educational expansion and reform efforts in different nations with some attention given to educational opportunities and lack of opportunities afforded learners around the globe. Thus, socioeconomic, ethnic group, and school-society concerns were studied by comparative educators (Kelly, Altbach & Arnové, 1982). Comparative studies of nation-states, social movements, educational centralization and decentralization, and conceptions of equity continue to receive attention from scholars in the field (Arnové & Torres, 1999).

Presidential remarks offered during annual meetings of the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES)—the established North American professional organization of comparativists—provide a window into the contemporary status and direction of the field. An overview from the past decade highlights a few recurring emphases, including the primacy of the comparativist’s role as researcher, the field’s dedication to global justice and equity, and the tension between the local (particular) and the global (general). First, presidential addresses have clearly tended to appeal to the comparativist’s identity as researcher at the relative exclusion of the comparativist’s instructional role. Thus, university faculty, whose work is judged within the institution in terms of knowledge discovery, dominates the professional organization’s membership. Emphasis on the researcher role of the CIES membership is mirrored by the nature of CIES conferences themselves, given their focus almost exclusively on the findings emanating from research studies or methodological concerns related to the research process. The external public, however, views teaching rather than research as the hallmark of higher education.

The second common thread, regarding organizational commitment to global justice and equity, is reflected, for example, in the presidential remarks of Carlos Torres (1998) who exhorted comparativists to develop theories and perspectives that might

help lessen or eliminate social difference and inequity. Robert Arnove (2001) encouraged the comparative education community to harness insights and specialized perspectives in order, for instance, to positively influence the use of information technology to ensure the inclusion of “views from ‘the margins’ and grassroots initiatives that challenge existing power structures” (p.481). Heidi Ross, addressing the CIES in 2002, encouraged the membership to consider relational theory as a means for gaining better understanding of “the space between us” (p.407), thus enabling us to address and undo “the ease with which we dehumanize each other” (p.411). To the extent that democratic processes are a corrective to social injustices, Noel McGinn (1996) reminded the CIES membership of the lessons that international democratization efforts might offer to the American domestic context, given diminishing participation in democratic processes such as elections and the general spirit of distrust observed in the U.S. toward “all forms of collective action” (p.342). And, Karen Biraimah (2003) noted that societal transformation is dependent on comparative educators returning their research interests to the classroom setting because “dependence on quantitative/economic assessment measures may limit a true understanding of schooling, equity, and appropriate educational outcomes” (p.432).

Finally, in the CIES presidential addresses reviewed, a third strand concerns the tensions within the field about the purpose of comparative research. The identification of comparable educational situations, structures, approaches, and results are often pitted against an overriding interest in the particular, local, and unique contexts of education. As Arnove (2001) argued in his own retrospective of CIES commentaries and contributions, “calls have come from comparativists working within different and at times competing paradigms” to urge both “improvements in large-scale quantitative cross-national studies...[and] refinements in smaller scale qualitative case studies” (p.478). And, Arnove noted the efforts of Bray and Thomas (1995) to include the individual, classroom, and school contexts as units for geographical/location analyses. In general, however, the recent tilt of the research published by members of the comparative education community in the U.S. has been toward the local side of this debate. This tilt has long-standing historical antecedent in U.S. government-supported area studies programs (Hawkins & Rust, 2001). However, American school curriculum and the Comparative Education field as a whole have largely neglected attention to ecological perspectives that would enable the identification of patterns that engage (connect) or disengage (destroy) human possibilities (Kobayashi, 2007). Although indigenous perspectives often link the personal and sacred to the environment, Victor Kobayashi (2007) has argued that cultures may fall apart due to ignorance of local ecosystems. Comparative educators, therefore, should consider the biological universe to inform studies of education and society. To encourage attention to the global side, William Cummings (1999) challenged members of the society to “Compare, compare, compare!” (p.413), and, Ruth Hayhoe (2000), in her presidential address a year later, asserted the need for “metanarratives” (p.423) that might provide coherent frameworks for understanding multiple observed phenomena.

Comparative Education Texts, Curricular Sources, and Instructional Emphases

In the past several years, a number of books have become available for use in comparative education courses. In *Comparative Education: The Dialectic of the Global*

and the Local (1999 and 2003), Arnove and Torres and their contributing authors illuminate local, national, and regional responses to "the workings of a global economy and the increasing interconnectedness of societies" (Arnove, 2003, p.1), which raise common problems for schools, societies, and educators around the world. To pursue better understanding of the interaction between global and local tendencies and the often-contradictory nature of this interaction, the selected essays generally undertake broad aspects such as women's education, educational control, and centralization and decentralization of school governance, which are explored in terms of a particular region or country.

Other recent texts include pedagogical features more typical of a textbook format. Among these, both *Education in a Global Society: A Comparative Perspective* (Mazurek, Winzer & Majorek, 2000) and *Schooling Around the World: Debates, Challenges, and Practices* (Mazurek & Winzer, 2006), are similar to Arnove and Torres' book to the extent that they consist of chapters contributed by many authors. These books are also comparable in that each chapter tends to focus on a single national context. Each chapter in *Schooling Around the World* seeks to bring to the fore a particular contemporary educational challenge within a single country (e.g., shifting policy within the changing post-Soviet Russian Federation and capitalization and economic competitiveness in China). Gutek, author of *American Education in a Global Society* (1993 and 2006), maintains a similar single-country focus, but, similar to the Mazurek, Winzer, and Marjorek (2000) compilation, tends to center attention upon the systems and structures of the selected countries rather than upon a specific trend or issue. In a separate segment of his book, Gutek dedicates considerable additional attention to international education and globalization as a contemporary phenomenon, and he provides particular contextualization in terms of the American perspective.

Our own textbook, *Comparative Education: Exploring Issues in International Context* (Kubow & Fossum, 2003 and 2007), combines some of the attributes mentioned above. Like Mazurek and Winzer (2006) and Arnove and Torres (2003), we undertake contemporary concerns such as globalization. In addition, however, we explore educational issues that are, we argue, fundamental wherever formal education is undertaken, such as achieving educational access and opportunity and clarifying the multiple and often contradictory purposes of schooling. Each of the major chapters of the Kubow and Fossum text draws two countries into simultaneous focus, providing treatment that is more overtly comparative in nature and thus distinguishing this text from the other recent books discussed.

Erwin Epstein and his graduate students at Loyola University of Chicago have conducted an ongoing study (i.e., Comparative and International Education Course Archive Project or CIECAP) of the position of the field of Comparative Education in the United States. Their work suggests that the curricular materials chiefly employed in the classrooms of comparativists are eclectic in nature, diverse in focus, and abundant in number. As such, a textbook is rarely an anchoring feature of the curriculum, even in introductory classes where textbook use might be most expected. Among books mentioned here, Arnove and Torres' text is in widest use, but articles from a vast array of authors tend to comprise course readings, sometimes complementing a selected textbook but more often than not substituting for a course textbook. One CIECAP (2006a) analysis lists nearly 2,000 sources in use by well over 500 authors and authorship teams. The number of journals from which classroom materials are drawn totals over 65 (CIECAP, 2006b), although the journals most regularly used as

curricular sources include the three English-language journals strictly dedicated to comparative education, namely *Comparative Education Review*, *Compare*, and *Comparative Education*.

Like the curricular materials used, the topics emphasized in comparative education classes further reflect the diversity of instructors' interests, research emphases, and areas of geographic, thematic, or methodological expertise. Coverage of theory and international development tend to be prominent in course syllabi. Gender and women's issues are chosen as a thematic focus in over half of the introductory comparative education classes, while globalization and the organization of schools and national education systems continue to receive substantial attention (CIECAP, 2006c).

Conclusion

Comparative perspective taking on educational issues enables people to recognize that fundamental challenges transcend national boundaries and that every country, in addressing these challenges, wrestles with the contradictions within and between its societal ideals and its educational realities. Presently, American students lack knowledge, information, and skills to effectively wrestle with philosophical questions and social issues. This is due, in large part, to the climate of surveillance that accompanies the accountability movement in the U.S.—an outlook that has shifted public attention toward, and held it upon, measurable outcomes as opposed to more philosophical and nuanced discussions. Comparativists are in a position to adopt a more prominent role in working with primary and secondary teachers on the integration of philosophical, sociological, political, and global dimensions in American classrooms and schools. To address this need, the professional organization, CIES, will need to encourage shifts in its members' roles from the present strictly researcher-centered identity to an identity that is more dual in character—one that acknowledges members' roles as instructors as well as researchers. This will require that comparativists rethink their future direction in light of this dual identity, pursuing and accommodating environments for sustained discussion about issues of instruction, teaching practice, and teaching roles, as well as continued research and knowledge discovery. Toward that end, comparative educators in the U.S. will need to clearly articulate the usefulness of the field at the grassroots level. Primary and secondary teachers need to know the potential that Comparative Education holds in their development as thoughtful education professionals. "As its final aim, Comparative Education hopes to relax national pride to permit events and voices from abroad to count in the continued reappraisal and re-examination of schools" in the U.S. and elsewhere (Bereday, 1964, p.7).

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Patricia K. Kubow, Associate Professor
Director, The Center for International Comparative Education (ICE)
School of Leadership and Policy Studies
Bowling Green State University
USA
e-mail: pkubow@bgnet.bgsu.edu

Paul R. Fossum, Associate Professor
School of Education
University of Michigan-Dearborn
USA
e-mail: pfossum@umd.umich.edu

PART III

*Comparative Education at
Universities in Latin America*

Small is Beautiful: Comparative Education in Brazilian Universities

Marta Luz Sisson de Castro & Candido Gomes

Introduction

In this paper we will discuss the teaching of Comparative Education in Brazilian Universities. We start by presenting data regarding the teaching of Comparative Education in the undergraduate programs of Schools of Education in Brazil, its historical development and curriculum of the course on Pedagogy. The second part explores Brazilian publications on Comparative Education, especially in its national periodicals. The third part examines the knowledge production in Comparative Education at the Graduate Programs in Education.

Teaching Comparative Education in Undergraduate Programs in Brazil

Teaching Comparative Education in Brazil was related historically to the curriculum of undergraduate programs in education. The course of Pedagogy underwent three basic changes in its structure and curriculum, and these changes affected the teaching of Comparative Education (Chaves, 2004). The relevant changes occurred in 1939 with the creation of the National Faculty of Philosophy and the definition of a curriculum for undergraduate degrees in education. The second change occurred in 1962, and the third in 1969.

The initial process of regulation of undergraduate programs in education was promulgated by Law No. 1190 (4th April 1939). This legislation created the National Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Brazil. In this process, a pattern for a national curriculum was established for the course of Pedagogy. The curriculum was planned for a three-year program culminating in the Bachelor's degree in Education. In order to prepare them for teaching, Bachelor's degree holders in different areas of knowledge are required to take an additional program lasting for one year called the '*Licenciatura*' degree. The three-year curriculum consisted of the following disciplines:

1. Complements of Mathematics (first year)
2. History of Philosophy (first year)
3. Sociology (first year)
4. Biological Foundations of Education (first year)
5. Educational Psychology (first, second and third year)
6. Educational Statistics (second year)
7. History of Education (second and third year)
8. Sociological Foundations of Education (second year)
9. School Administration (second and third year)
- 10. Comparative Education (third year)**
11. Educational Philosophy (third year)

(Source: Chaves, 2004, p.1)

This curriculum, implemented during a 23-year period, created a tradition of teaching Comparative Education to Brazilian education students. A definition of

Comparative Education and syllabus of the subject approved by the Faculdade Nacional de Filosofia on 30th August 1940 gives an idea of its nature and aims. As an example, we refer to the syllabus of Comparative Education prepared by Professor Dr. Antonio Carneiro Leão, which stated that:

Each epoch, each people have their own type, manners and methods of education. Studies in Comparative Education are thus important for education students and for teachers in general to develop a consciousness that will lead their teaching children and youth, organizing and administering the school, the curriculum and the programs, in the direction imposed by the individual's possibilities and by the social and national needs of the time. (Universidade do Brasil, 1940, p.27.)

The program of Comparative Education was divided into five parts:

First Part

1. Comparative Education, meaning, value and aims
2. Comparative Education: methods
3. Comparative Education: philosophical concepts and achievements
4. Comparative Education and time

(Universidade do Brasil, 1940, p.28.)

This introductory part of the program dealt with the definition, history and methods of Comparative Education. The second part of the program looked at education in European countries.

Second Part: Comparative Education in Europe

1. Education in Germany
2. Education in France
3. Education in England
4. Education in Italy
5. Education in other European countries

(Universidade do Brasil, 1940, p.28.)

The third part explored education in the Americas:

Third Part: Comparative Education in the Americas

1. Education in the United States, position and trends
2. Education in Latin America, position and trends
3. Education in Argentina, position and trends
4. Education in Brazil, position and trends
5. Education in Chile, position and trends
6. Education in Mexico, position and trends
7. Education in Peru, position and trends
8. Education in other Latin American countries, position and trends

(Universidade do Brasil, 1940, p.29.)

The fourth part considered education in Asia, mainly in Japan, China and India, and in general, in the East looking at the Arabic and Persian cultures. The fifth and final part discussed the practical conclusions of Comparative Education.

The second relevant change in the education curriculum occurred in 1962, after the promulgation of the Law *Diretrizes e Bases da Educação Nacional* in 1961. This new legislation integrated the Bachelor's degree in Education with the preparation for teaching in different subject matters, creating a four-year program. The curriculum for this new program was composed of seven disciplines:

1. Psychology of Education
 2. Sociology (general and of education)
 3. History of Education
 4. Educational Philosophy
 5. School Administration
 6. Two subjects from the following list:
 - a. Biology
 - b. History of Philosophy
 - c. Statistics
 - d. Methods and Techniques of Pedagogical Research
 - e. Brazilian Culture
 - f. **Comparative Education**
 - g. School Hygiene
 - h. Curriculum and Programs
 - i. Audio-visual techniques in education
 - j. Theory and Practice of Primary School
 - k. Theory and Practice of Secondary School
 - l. Introduction to Educational Counseling
- (Chaves, 2004, p.4)

Comparative Education, which used to be an obligatory subject in the 1939 curriculum of majors in Pedagogy was relegated in 1962 to become only one of two optional subjects that could be selected from a list of 12. As a consequence, offering Comparative Education as a subject was much less frequent after the 1962 legislation. Furthermore, in 1969, *Resolution 252/69* excluded Comparative Education from the curriculum of the course of Pedagogy. Since that time the teaching of Comparative Education became very limited. While it could be offered as an extension project or a special course, it was not included in the basic preparation of Brazilian teachers.

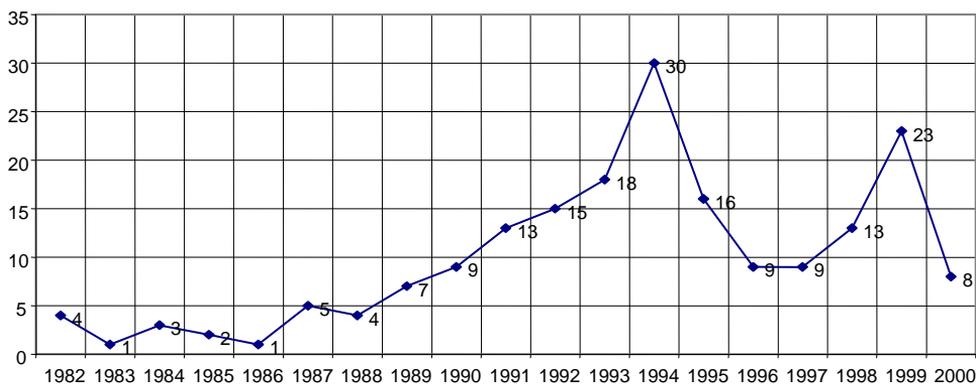
It is interesting to note, however, that at the Universidade de São Paulo (USP), one department in the area of education is called Teaching Methodology and Comparative Education. Thus, despite the fact that Comparative Education was not a subject required in education courses and programs, it was still mentioned in different forms in the educational context. In an Internet search we conducted in November 2007 and January 2008, we found only three programs in Brazil that had Comparative Education in its regular curriculum. They were at the Federal University of Sergipe, the Mackenzie Presbyterian University in São Paulo, and the Federal University of Paraná.

Comparative Education Publications in Brazil

The publications in the area of Comparative Education are limited and emerged in different moments and contexts of Brazilian Education. The book *Educação Comparada* by Lourenço Filho was published in 1961, when Comparative Education was part of the curriculum of majors in education in Brazilian universities. The book *Educação Comparada: Conceito, evolução e métodos* by Suely Grant Bonitatibus was published in 1989. Its publication signaled the growing interest in Comparative Education as evidenced by the creation of the Brazilian Society of Comparative Education in 1983, and the organization of the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies in Rio de Janeiro in 1987 (see Castro, 2007).

In addition to these two books, articles in the area of Comparative Education were published in Brazilian educational journals. Using the data bank *Produção do conhecimento na Área de Administração da Educação: Periódicos Nacionais. 1982-2000* (Castro and Werle, 2002), the authors analyzed articles related to the comparative thematic in Latin America (Werle and Castro, 2000). In another study, they analyzed the keyword ‘comparative administration’ and its distribution within the data bank (Werle and Castro, 2004). The first analysis indicated that the regional thematic was prevalent over others. The 2004 article looked at the data bank as a whole and identified trends of a growing interest in the area of comparative studies in terms of the number of articles published (see Graph 1).

Graph 1: Number of Articles on Comparative Administration 1982-2000



Source: Werle and Castro (2004)

The data in Graph 1 shows an increasing number of articles published in the period 1982-2000 with peaks in 1994 (30 articles) and in 1999 (23 articles). The journals with the largest number of publications were *Contexto e Educação*, *Proposições*, *Educação e Sociedade* and *Estudos Leopoldenses*. A surprising finding was that the majority of published articles had a focus on Latin America (73%), followed by Europe (20%). Among the topics analyzed were: educational reform, higher education, globalization, teacher education, comparative education, and international cooperation. The focus on Latin America suggests an underlying similarity among the educational systems in the region.

Graduate Work in Brazil with the Thematic of Comparative Education

If we consider the entire collection of scientific publications, including dissertations and theses, that exists in Brazil we can safely say that the role of Comparative Education is hardly a great one, but is a profound one. The same can be said of the curricula and syllabuses of graduate programs in education. It is not very common to come across courses or publications entirely dedicated to Comparative Education. However, this field of study is used as an approach not only by educational sciences *strictu sensu*, but also by other sciences that investigate education within their spheres. Thus Comparative Education goes down the road of ‘small is beautiful’ and must become ever more beautiful. Its role in the agitated curricular arenas is to function like

salt and yeast. As most of the programs are divided up into subject themes, it is hard to come across Comparative Education as a formal subject per se. It does appear, however, inserted in those themes that specifically concern globalization and 'mundialization'¹.

In a cursory survey of Brazilian Universities, it is possible to find departments that associate Comparative Education just as much with teaching methodology as with educational policies, and its presence as an approach or perspective is much more frequent in the latter. Contributing as it does towards different lines of research and projects, Comparative Education can be found in various universities. Firstly in the two largest universities in the country: the University of São Paulo (with a long tradition in it), and the State University of Campinas. Both are located in the State of São Paulo, the richest state in Brazil. Also included are the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio Grande do Sul, the Catholic University of Brasília, the State University of Rio de Janeiro, the Federal University of Minas Gerais, the Federal University of Paraíba, and the Federal University of Santa Catarina, among others. This means a widespread influence in geographical terms in a continent-sized country. As evidence of its outreach, events with comparative and international education as their theme were held even in the interior zone of the Amazon River Valley.

It should be pointed out that in Brazil, a member of the Education for All-9 (the group of the nine most populated countries in the world according to UNESCO), the graduate programs are very recent and their presence is a mere drop in the ocean. In spite of their rapid and continuous growth, according to the Ministry of Education (Brazil, 2006) the total number of students graduating from such programs was 23,708 in 2000 and 36,788 in 2004, constituting the Brazilian educational elite.

As a result of this intellectual production, the Ministry of Education organized a data bank wherein 366,000 dissertations and theses covering all areas of knowledge have been deposited since 1987. We used this excellent information resource to investigate the contribution of Comparative Education to knowledge production in Brazil. We employed various screening processes, including computerized searches and direct reading of the materials. The overall result revealed 18 works in the area of Comparative Education: 7 doctoral theses and 11 Master's dissertations. These represented one thousandth of the entire collection. These research works concentrated on the field of educational sciences, but they also included works in the fields of economics of education, legal education, history of education, health sciences (medical teaching), and teaching of language and literature. All of them had a clear comparative focus. Almost all were concluded after the year 2000, allowing enough time for a fuller awareness of globalization to have made itself felt. With the consolidation of the South American economic block, MERCOSUR, of which Brazil is a member, six of the research projects dealt with fellow member-countries; other Latin American countries and Portugal were also the object of some studies.

In addition to the academic world, international organizations - both public and private - with UNESCO outstanding among them, contract, publish and translate works that make wide use of Comparative Education. This is a clear sign of the university's loss of its monopoly of knowledge in Comparative Education. In this field there is still

¹ Mundialization is a cultural process unlike globalization, which is an economic one.

a grey area between the academics on one hand and experts on the other. The former are contracted by such international organizations to work as academics, or as experts, or to collaborate with the latter. Sometimes experts move into the academic world and stimulate dialogue between the two 'worlds'. There is a considerable production of high quality publications which are of great relevance for the field². They include reports and policy papers directed at public policies like those of UNESCO, the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank. The Institute of Applied Economics (IPEA), a government body, also makes use of the contributions of Comparative Education when discussing policies and making national and international evaluations.

Why is Comparative Education Salt and Yeast?

To reiterate the metaphor in the phrase 'salt and yeast', the role of Comparative Education is to flavor the knowledge concerning education and to encourage its growth, even when it is viewed in other contexts like those set out above. In the competition among the elements of curricula, it is frequently seen as a marginal subject, but one that enters into the mainstream of others, especially of the social sciences applied to education. The number of comparative educationalists in Brazil is small. This, together with the absence of a specific curricular subject dedicated to it, might jeopardize the transmission of experiences and the development of theories and methodologies. So, is Comparative Education's future threatened in Brazil?

It is quite certain that a niche of excellence will continue to exist, but its dissemination is at risk. What could really change this panorama is the very process of 'mundialization' and the growing need of not only juxtaposing and comparing national educational systems, but of making more refined analyses. In this sense, Comparative Education has a unique role to play and the increasing number of theses and dissertations that have appeared since the year 2000 may signify a promising change if they prove to be consistent.

Even so there are ideological and theoretical biases that are indicative of the modest role that Comparative Education performs. Although the range of theoretical standpoints in Comparative Education have widened considerably, functionalism and its related theories of modernization and cultural imperialism still prevail. Furthermore, international comparisons based on standardized tests are closely linked to the economic impacts of globalization. Considering that Brazil is a country of continental dimensions and that it has a population that is largely monolingual, it tends to some extent to be inward-looking. Thus, even if worldwide interdependence has existed for a long time and clearly consolidated itself during the 1980s, its awareness in Brazil has encountered some stumbling blocks.

In 1985 Brazil re-democratized itself after having gone through a series of tensions resulting from the Cold War. This led to the intensification of a kind of purified nationalism that was searching for its own roots and that associated Comparative Education to some extent to the reports of certain international organizations and to the influence the International Monetary Fund wielded over the domestic economy for

² See for example

<http://www.unesco.org.br/publicacoes/BibliotecaVirtual/index_html/mostra_documento>.

several decades. Theories of reproduction and dependency came more strongly to the fore in the Brazilian intellectual scene, intensifying the quest for knowledge and education that were emancipatory, to use Paulo Freire's terms.

However it is difficult to search for one's own roots in the realm of solitude, because what establishes identity is contact with differences, without being fearful of them, and that is even truer when societies form themselves into networks. The very contradictions inherent in economic liberalism and modernization have led to an awareness of dependency and iniquitous inequalities. It is a critical process capable of leading to emancipatory education. One cannot 'be' when fearful of being, giving and receiving (Gomes, 1989).

Treasures Yet To Be Discovered

To paraphrase the title of the report of UNESCO's International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, the Comparative Education we need in Brazil for our intellectual insertion in the 'mundialization' process has yet to be discovered. According to Carnoy (2004) the globalized market favors educational reforms that are directed more towards economic efficiency than towards equality, and it creates a culture of evaluating learning that corresponds to international competitiveness. In the heat of all those changes occurs a strengthening of the traditional fundamental elements of culture, like religion, nationalism, ethnicity and gender, which are the means used by those that are being excluded, in their struggle to affirm their identities. Once this fire has got under way, education becomes involved. On the other hand, Comparative Education is passing through a moment of transformation as the transition from Nation-State to World-Space unfolds. In these changes it is necessary to elaborate common knowledge and not ignore the other, since thinking about the Other is thinking about oneself (Malet, 2004).

In this crisis of identity, the role of education is the fulcrum for active and proactive articulation within the world. This is the first treasure waiting to be discovered in the midst of all the difficulties encountered in expanding the South American block, the MERCOSUR.

Another is the need to research not only on in-school education but also on other types of education, like lifelong learning, especially in a country where longevity is increasing rapidly. Yet another area involves micro-analysis in the sense of studying Brazil's internal reality. The problems related to the varied ethnicities, the devastating cultural destruction of some groups, bilingualism and linguistic variations have hardly been studied at all and they may find their guiding light in Comparative Education. Another rich possibility is inter-school analysis, that is to say, an analysis that pays less attention to inputs and outputs and more to processes, and in that manner throws light on aspects that Comparative Education itself has neglected. In short, the treasures are available provided that a fine balance is struck between being open and being concentrated on self-identity, between seeking for an identity and not forgetting that there are many 'Brazils' within Brazil. In that way, with the treasures duly discovered and being made use of, there will be new contributions to the renewal of Comparative Education. Singularity impoverishes whilst plurality is creative.

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Prof. Marta Luz Sisson de Castro
Professor of Education
Pós-Graduação em Educação, Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul
Av. Ipiranga 6681, Porto Alegre, RS 90619-900, Brazil
e-mail: msisson@puers.br

Prof. Candido Gomes
Professor of Sociology and Education
Universidade Católica de Brasília, Pró-Reitoria de Pós-Graduação e Pesquisa, Mestrado em Educação.
SGAN 916 Módulo B, Asa Norte, 70790160 - Brasília, DF - Brazil
e-mail: clgomes@terra.com.br

Escenarios y Mediaciones de la Educación Comparada en el Ámbito Universitario de Chile

Scenarios and Mediations of Comparative Education in Chilean Universities

Eugenio Rodríguez

Abstract

A discursive reading of the development of the teaching of Comparative Education in universities in Chile is undertaken drawing on philosophical, historical, social theory perspectives. Four hypotheses are examined: first, the establishment of Comparative Education as a university course principally at the postgraduate level; second, this academic institutionalization took place in two periods from 1967 to the present, with a hiatus during Chile's military dictatorship (1973-1990); third, the discursive practices in Comparative Education have three dimensions, namely, the pragmatic, positivist, and cultural; and lastly, the rationale for the contemporary feature of Comparative Education as International Education. After an examination of Chile's political, intellectual and educational contexts, the development of Comparative Education in Chilean pre and postgraduate courses in Education is discussed. The chapter concludes with some comments on the factors that have influenced a renewed interest in the teaching of Comparative Education.

Introducción

La lectura sobre las experiencias y la enseñanza de la Educación Comparada desarrollada en Chile, en el ámbito universitario, se realiza bajo la formulación de cuatro tesis que configuran los escenarios de su desarrollo y sus mediaciones. Luego, se avanza hacia un análisis de las prácticas discursivas respecto de las experiencias universitarias de Educación Comparada en el período 1967 y 2006. En este período se aproxima un estudio preliminar sobre las distintas evoluciones que actualmente tiene esta educación en la formación de educadores, a nivel de pre y postgrado, estableciendo tipos y estilos y, finalmente se anotan aspectos que tienen influencia en una renovada enseñanza con mirada de futuro.

Escenarios y Mediaciones

La reflexión se despliega en los escenarios en que se ha desarrollado la Educación Comparada y su enseñanza, así como en las mediaciones que se han construido en el nivel universitario de Chile, teniendo como base la configuración de algunas tesis.

Esta aproximación extensa se delimita teniendo en cuenta la configuración de algunas tesis que posibiliten una lectura orientada, la realización de un análisis tendencial que aproxime al objeto, bajo una perspectiva totalizadora más que específica, la focalización en algunas instituciones que han mostrado, en el tiempo, un especial énfasis en este campo de estudios y, la delimitación temporal que permita

obtener informaciones primarias más accesibles al investigador. Las fuentes de informaciones son los archivos universitarios, estudios históricos y políticos y entrevistas a académicos.

Así, realizo una lectura de la Educación Comparada como campo de estudio en las universidades chilenas, en el contexto de las mediaciones que se establecen, desde las orientaciones de la filosofía, de las prácticas discursivas, la historia y teoría social como genealogía de sus actuales configuraciones, expresada en los niveles educativos donde se desarrollan los estudios.

Postulo como tesis:

- Estos estudios se instalaron en algunas universidades chilenas tradicionales¹, principalmente, en el nivel de postgrado.
- Tuvo dos períodos desde 1967 hasta los acontecimientos actuales, interrumpidos por la dictadura militar; por tanto, un período pre dictadura y otro en democracia.
- Las prácticas discursivas de la Educación Comparada están sustentadas en tres fuentes y proyecciones: pragmática, positivista y cultural.
- Otra tesis se configura desde la pregunta por qué razones la Educación Comparada adquiere hoy una perspectiva de Educación Internacional.

La fecha de 1967 corresponde al período en que se inician los movimientos de reformas universitarias en el país, con repercusiones sociales, políticas y educativas en el hacer y pensar de las comunidades universitarias. Este proceso fue interrumpido por el golpe de estado de 1973, el cual se mantuvo en el poder hasta 1990, y creó otro escenario para la educación superior con carácter autoritario y no participativo. Hoy, la mayor parte de las universidades se ha quedado en esa estructura autoritaria, especialmente centrada en el poder unipersonal; se exceptúan algunas universidades, como la Universidad de Chile, la que retoma el tema de la participación y de la autoridad en la comunidad académica reunida en claustro.

Planteo tres lecturas de la Educación Comparada. Primero, la lectura pragmática, con una racionalidad instrumental que contiene dos vertientes. La primera se refiere a la justificación, mediante la comparación de resultados, de las políticas asumidas y de las consecuencias de éstas, ello asociado con estudios internacionales, en cuanto leen las políticas y sus consecuencias de modo paralelo con lo que acontece en otros países. Una segunda línea de desarrollo se construye desde un relevamiento del fenómeno educativo y de sus políticas, entendida como la instalación de una nueva configuración del poder, donde la educación tiene una función productiva.

Una segunda lectura es la lectura positivista, con una racionalidad inductiva de la Educación Comparada, se configura en el sentido de un levantamiento de acontecimientos controlables y cuantificables, donde se concibe el acontecimiento educativo como 'sistema escolar', esto es, un conjunto de instituciones educativas

¹ Me refiero a las universidades denominadas por la legislación 'tradicionales': Universidad de Chile y las actuales universidades regionales separadas de su matriz, en 1981, por la dictadura de la época; Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile y sus derivadas; Universidad de Santiago de Chile; Universidad de Concepción; Universidad Austral de Chile; Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso; Universidad Técnica Federico Santa María; y Universidad Católica del Norte.

escolares diferenciadas, de ámbito nacional, destinadas a la educación formal, cuyo control e inspección corresponden al Estado y cuyos componentes y procesos están relacionados entre sí. Esta lectura positivista tiene dos orientaciones: una descriptiva del acontecimiento y otra, también descriptiva, que estudia el acontecimiento como fenómeno social funcional, desde una teoría social empírica. Recoge líneas de pensamiento construidas en Europa y Estados Unidos de América.

La tercera lectura es cultural, sustentada en una racionalidad de la interculturalidad y de la diferencia, se desarrolla asociada con los conglomerados geográficos articulados mediante acuerdos y convenios. Tiene sus raíces para Chile, en la creación de las organizaciones de los países andinos sudamericanos, en los años sesenta, el Convenio Andrés Bello² y, luego, en los años 90, con el establecimiento de múltiples acuerdos, bilaterales y otros multilaterales.

¿Por qué seleccionar algunas instituciones de educación superior? La explosión de instituciones universitarias en Chile, a partir de 1980, por la vía de la privatización y la reestructuración del nivel superior, instituyó tres tipos de educación superior: universidad, instituto profesional y centro de formación técnica. Esta diversificación ha hecho que seleccione instituciones universitarias y de éstas sólo seis, cuatro estatales y dos privadas con aporte estatal –creadas antes de la dictadura–, que han tenido una cierta trayectoria reconocida de formación en el ámbito de la Educación Comparada, tanto en el período pre dictadura como después de ésta.

Aproximación a las Prácticas Discursivas de la Educación Comparada

El apartado referido a la Educación Comparada en las historias de la educación en Chile es muy escaso. Sólo conozco el libro de Leonardo Fuentealba Hernández (1985), donde reúne sus reflexiones sobre la Educación Comparada, desarrolladas en sus clases.

Fuentealba elabora sus reflexiones con una orientación pedagógica, para acompañar la didáctica de sus clases. Reflexiona sobre la Educación Comparada desde Chile, desde las instituciones educativas que este país ha instalado: el sistema escolar. Estas mediaciones, administración y sistema escolar chileno, constituyen la base epistémica del autor respecto de la Educación Comparada, la que requiere de la filosofía, la historia y la experiencia del comparatista, así como del empleo sistemático del método comparativo (1985, p.33). Este último aspecto constituye su preocupación principal en la enseñanza académica.

El aporte sistemático que he reseñado constituye un adelanto muy importante; sin embargo, el período específico 1967-2006 plantea otras dimensiones de análisis. Emergen algunas tendencias instaladas como escenarios históricos, donde se manifiestan construcciones epistemológicas de la Educación Comparada.

Establecimiento de la Educación Comparada (1967-1973)

Entre los años 1967 y 1973, Chile vive un escenario de intensos cambios políticos, sociales y económicos, siendo uno de sus actores, junto con los partidos políticos, los

² El Convenio Andrés Bello (CAB) es una organización de carácter intergubernamental e internacional de países, cuyos programas se orientan a la integración educativa, científica, tecnológica y cultural, proyectada hoy hacia el ámbito iberoamericano.

estudiantes, profesores y directivos universitarios. Se trata de una nueva construcción política sostenida por partidos y movimientos políticos que se han articulado a partir de intereses populares, bajo la idea de una mayor igualdad, inspirados unos en ideologías cristianas y otros en ideologías marxistas. En la construcción de la economía, el Estado juega un papel central, por cuanto no sólo controla la mayor parte de la producción industrial sino que nacionaliza –estatiza– la producción minera y establece una reforma agraria. En cuanto a la convivencia social, se privilegia la formación de múltiples organizaciones sociales, territoriales y laborales.

Se promueven cambios en el sistema escolar, mediante reformas educativas que apuntan a una democratización del sistema, al acceso de la población a la educación superior y, principalmente, a la ruptura de la organización escolar basada en la propiedad, la riqueza económica y la herencia familiar, que había producido distintos sistemas escolares: privado y público, rural y urbano, periférico y central; una modernización de este sistema en cuanto a los planes y programas de estudios, la preparación de los profesores y profesoras, la gestión escolar; un mayor control del Estado respecto del funcionamiento de los establecimientos escolares. Se trajo a especialistas en políticas educativas y en currículo escolar. Un aporte decisivo fue la recepción, por parte del gobierno, de exiliados de Argentina y Brasil, entre éstos al brillante educador Paulo Freire. En este proceso de cambios, la educación jugó un papel fundamental como un potencial social dinámico pensado e instalado en las organizaciones sociales, territoriales y laborales.

Sin embargo, lo más interesante es que el Estado se preocupó directamente por los estudios comparados con un carácter marcadamente nacional; el énfasis está en el Estado nacional, no a la manera del siglo XIX, donde se plantea el nacionalismo como doctrina sustentadora de la estructura política colonial (Jocelyn-Holt, 1999, p.40), sino más bien, se busca la igualdad entre sus ciudadanos, la ciudadanía de todos y el ejercicio del derecho de todos a la educación.

Este escenario ayuda al desarrollo de la Educación Comparada en dos líneas: académica, se instala en los planes y programas de estudios de licenciatura en educación y de postgrados con algunas influencias del pensamiento positivista norteamericano; y política desde el Estado, el cual se replantea especialmente la educación superior.

Desaparición de la Educación Comparada (1973-1990)

Luego del golpe de estado de 1973, se intervienen las universidades y la dictadura nombra rectores militares que actúan, con aliados civiles, en toda la estructura universitaria, en la política de educación superior y al interior de cada institución. Desde un punto de vista político, la dictadura fortalece los grupos y conglomerados políticos que apoyan al gobierno y a la nueva estructura político-empresarial. Los partidos políticos progresistas son suprimidos y sus militantes y adherentes reprimidos. La incipiente estructura social de participación es suprimida.

Las políticas educacionales transformaron al sistema escolar, poniéndolo al mismo nivel que cualquier otro bien de mercado; el sistema escolar se privatiza, se transforma en una empresa, así también las instituciones de nivel superior. Todo ello en consonancia con el establecimiento de una economía de mercado, que implica: la privatización de las empresas del Estado, la disminución del poder estatal, el incremento sin límites del poder empresarial y la flexibilización de las normas administrativas especialmente laborales. El consorcio militar-empresarial usurpa el

poder público y privado, y se adjudica un poder de simbolización, de construcción de sentidos y de interpretación a través de los medios de comunicación, cuya propiedad hacen exclusiva.

Se establece una homogeneización del pensamiento público; se controla a los académicos en sus clases, son grabadas, cualquier estudiante puede denunciarlos. Los planes y programas se van homogeneizando, lo cual tiene un valor ideológico-autoritario pero también comercial, a la vez que se funcionalizan hacia una profesionalización simple.

La actuación política sobre el sistema escolar tiene tendencias marcadas: de control estrecho con carácter principalmente ideológico, de selectividad educativa asociada con los niños, niñas y jóvenes que tienen más oportunidades escolares y de vinculación del sistema escolar con la producción y competitividad. Se inicia la simbología del capital humano, individual, y la instalación de una racionalidad instrumental, que simplifica el análisis de los acontecimientos y las expresiones de la convivencia.

La Educación Comparada desaparece de los planes de estudio de formación de profesores, principalmente porque el gobierno dictatorial cierra el país a cualquier ideología extranjera, salvo aquella que apoya la construcción capitalista de la economía y la apertura comercial, a la vez que se suprime cualquier espacio que posibilite un pensamiento político no controlado.

Renovado Interés en Estudios Comparados en Educación (1990 al presente)

La transición democrática se instala en 1990, mediante la elección de un presidente, de parlamentarios y de autoridades municipales, en un contexto institucional precario, por el tutelaje militar. El poder político se sustenta en dos conglomerados de partidos políticos, aceptados por el tutelaje, lo que ha permitido la articulación de una elite política, separada de las aspiraciones e intereses de los ciudadanos –una sociedad política de desiguales–, situación que tiene un primer revés recién en el año 2006, con importantes movimientos de la sociedad civil, de los estudiantes y de los pobladores.

La instalación de una economía capitalista libre mercantil ha profundizado una sociedad segmentada con base en una enorme desigualdad en la distribución de los beneficios sociales y económicos –índice de Gini 0,56. Se ha profundizado una sociedad de individuos que compiten para obtener los beneficios que desean, los lazos sociales son muy débiles, actúan como mecanismos de articulación de intereses y de incentivos al consumo individual.

Las políticas económicas han fortalecido una economía abierta al comercio internacional, a la competitividad y a las ventajas comparativas; ha consolidado la articulación empresarial-partidos políticos con ventajas importantes para las grandes empresas, que concentran gran parte del producto nacional.

La política educacional, si bien se sitúa en un contexto político distinto, democrático, se ha proyectado hacia el tema de la calidad, la formación del capital humano y la eficacia en la gestión educacional, y a una subsidiaria actuación del Estado.

Siguiendo los lineamientos del Consenso de Washington (Williamson, 1990), el Banco Mundial ha tenido una importante y decisiva influencia en las políticas

educativas, instalando la política de reforma educativa³. Es una política que articula educación y necesidades productivas empresariales, en el contexto antes señalado, a la vez que profundiza la privatización de las escuelas, financiadas por el Estado, y las instituciones de educación superior. Tal vez, el tema más trabajado ha sido el fortalecimiento de la situación de los profesores y profesoras, los cuales obtuvieron un estatuto especial.

En este escenario de fortalecimiento de la formación de profesores y de privatización de la educación superior, se han creado condiciones para el surgimiento de múltiples postgrados de magíster y doctorado, con gran variedad de ofertas curriculares y de programas patrocinados por universidades extranjeras. En este contexto de aperturas internacionales, se instalan estudios comparados con características muy distintas, especialmente desde sus orientaciones epistémicos.

Como en situaciones anteriores, el Estado busca en el extranjero experiencias que ayuden a avanzar en el proyecto educacional, iniciado en 1990. Se realizan en 1992 varios estudios sobre la educación secundaria, mediante visitas a países asiáticos⁴. Me parece importante señalar que son estudios con una orientación instrumental-simple, pragmática, que buscan recoger experiencias e ilustrar las decisiones políticas gubernamentales del país. Este esfuerzo estatal se amplía al sector privado, los que crean espacios dedicados a estudios internacionales, centros privados y universitarios, que comparan la situación del país con otras situaciones extranjeras, estudios a la vez funcionales a objetivos de política partidaria y de política empresarial. Un tercer tipo de estudios se hace en torno a las aplicaciones internacionales de pruebas aplicadas a estudiantes, para medir la calidad de las destrezas que éstos poseen, (PISA, TIMSS y otros). Estos estudios se caracterizan por esa práctica discursiva paradigmática, simplificada por la homogeneidad, nacida de una concepción estadística de la vida humana.

Otro tipo de estudios están orientados hacia la profundización de culturas diferentes, mediante análisis interdisciplinario, visitas, intercambios. Así, se han desarrollado en el país centros y programas de estudios asiáticos, en los cuales se dialoga con otras culturas tanto desde su diferencia lingüística, histórica y de convivencia como en relación con sus conocimientos, estructuras normativas, modos de producción e institucionalidad política. Por cierto, la apertura nacional empresarial hacia esa zona geográfica del mundo constituye una base importante para impulsar los centros y programas⁵.

Es posible identificar otros estudios comparados. Estos se asocian directamente a la política educativa, están en el ámbito de una ciencia política de la educación (Popkewitz, 2002). Son estudios comparados desde las diferencias contenidas en la convivencia social y también, desde la teoría política que asume la práctica educativa

³ Ref. sitio web: <http://www.ciencia.cl/CienciaAlDia/volumen1/numero2/articulos/articulo7.html> visitado 4/1/2008

⁴ Ref. Ministerio de Educación, Alternativas Curriculares de Libre Elección. Una Mirada Evaluativa (1994-1999), en sitio web: http://www.colombiajoven.gov.co/injuve/paises/chile/19_mec.PDF, visitado 3/1/2008.

⁵ Uno de ellos, instalado en la Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile Ref. Sitio web: <http://www.puc.cl/icp/webcp/estudiosasiaticos/>, visitado 4/1/2008.

como una producción cultural. Estas tendencias hacen que los estudios comparados se orienten más hacia la ciencia política de la educación, y su soporte epistemológico esté asociado con el sujeto social como interrogante y evaluador político⁶.

Espacio de la Educación Comparada en la Formación de Profesores

Es posible señalar que la Educación Comparada no se encuentra, hoy, con ese enfoque académico que anotábamos en la publicación de Fuentealba, en los planes de estudio de pre y postgrado; las últimas referencias de cursos de Educación Comparada en la formación de profesores y profesoras, de acuerdo con los planes de las universidades consultadas, se encuentran entre 1990 y 1998. En este contexto, se plantean las interrogantes acerca de las raíces genealógicas que permiten entender la historia actual de la Educación Comparada.

Nuestra tesis está vinculada con la prolongación de la influencia política e ideológica de la dictadura en cuanto al planteamiento neoliberal elaborado en Chile, en 1968⁷, y aplicado durante la dictadura al sistema escolar y universitario. Esa orientación se expresa en la funcionalidad de los planes de estudio de formación de profesores y profesoras. Así, en las universidades los planes de estudio están concebidos con criterios pragmáticos, reduciendo al mínimo o haciendo desaparecer áreas del conocimiento como historia de la educación, educación comparada, sociología de la educación, teoría educacional; y afianzando aquellas áreas que tienen una directa relación con el hacer pedagógico, situado éste en el hacer del aula.

La enseñanza de los estudios comparados, en estos años, se ha ido encaminando hacia:

- Primero, realizar estudios de política educativa, ya sea en relación con el análisis, nuevamente, del ‘sistema’ escolar nacional con referencia a la reforma educativa y su comparación con algunas otras reformas.
- Segundo, en el nivel de postgrado, se ha desplazado hacia la calidad de la educación, influido por los organismos y estudios internacionales. Se analizan comparativamente los resultados de los países en lenguaje, matemática y ciencia. Si bien el horizonte epistemológico está determinado por la distribución estadística, existen algunos esfuerzos por buscar explicaciones mayores.
- Una tercera línea de cambios se orienta hacia los estudios culturales, especialmente referidos a los países de Asia Pacífico, influido ello por el acuerdo que Chile mantiene con la Cooperación Económica del Asia-Pacífico (APEC).

Finalmente, es necesario anotar que las actuales tecnologías de la informática y comunicación han posibilitado recurrir a fuentes e informaciones sobre los sistemas escolares de los países, lo que desafía los anteriores estudios y la enseñanza de la

⁶ “Conocemos el proceso de enajenación propio al desarrollo capitalista; sin embargo, globalización mediante, la brecha entre persona y sociedad parece aumentar hoy en día” (Lechner, N., 2002, p.10).

⁷ Es una elaboración dirigida por un economista, heredero de la escuela de Chicago, Sergio de Castro, profesor de la Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, y un equipo perteneciente a esa institución. Una versión de este documento, denominado *El Ladrillo*, se encuentra en el sitio web: <http://www.cepchile.cl/> en la sección documento.

Educación Comparada. Hay información al alcance de todos los que tienen acceso a esas tecnologías. Esta disponibilidad técnica plantea la necesidad de una construcción epistemológica de la Educación Comparada distinta a aquella centrada en la comparación de sistemas escolares, en las variables establecidas por la UNESCO.

Hoy es posible concebir los estudios y la enseñanza de la Educación Comparada como una construcción sobre las mediaciones de las políticas educativas: el lenguaje y el poder, con base en las identidades y diferencias culturales. La Educación Comparada tiene, así, la posibilidad de recorrer los imaginarios culturales que las sociedades tienen sobre el pensar y hacer educativos, no sólo en el ámbito escolar sino también en el ámbito de una educación instalada en la sociedad.

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Profesor Eugenio Rodríguez
Facultad de Educación, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile
Santiago de Chile, Chile
e-mail: erodrigf@uc.cl

La Educación Comparada como Disciplina Universitaria en Cuba

Comparative Education as a University Discipline in Cuba

Rosa María Massón y Alejandro Torres

Abstract

The article deals with the history of Comparative Education as a university discipline in Cuba. This process covers four periods, beginning in the 1940s at the School of Pedagogy in Havana University. This first course was taught by Dr. Emma Pérez Téllez, who also published a compilation of her students' research papers.

In the mid-1970s, with the creation of the Pedagogical Universities, the discipline became part of the undergraduate curriculum for future teachers in Psychology and Pedagogy. The subject had two themes: (a) Comparative Education and its object of study. Historical evolution; and (b) The study of educational policies and educational systems. This course was taught until 1983 and had a descriptive focus. During 1983-1986, a validation process was done and, as a result, the curriculum was changed and a new methodological experience was introduced in the teaching and learning process. Led by Dr. Hector Ferrán Toirac, the new experience was implemented from 1986 to 1994 in the Pedagogical University E. J. Varona. It was based on the inclusion of other themes, individualization of the process, more emphasis on the scientific-methodological conception of the science, and a greater importance given to the training component of the curriculum.

Nowadays, the discipline has added the study of Cuban educational policy and its educational system, in its different levels for all the teacher training courses in the country. Other topics studied are contemporary trends in curriculum, and the study of different learning theories based on a comparative approach.

Introducción

La Educación Cubana tiene los siguientes principios:

- El principio del carácter masivo de la educación.
- El principio de estudio y trabajo.
- El principio de la participación de toda la sociedad en las tareas de la educación del pueblo.
- El principio de la coeducación.
- El principio de la gratuidad.

La formación de maestros tuvo un momento decisivo en 1972 al surgir el Destacamento Pedagógico "Manuel Ascunce Doménech", cuyos integrantes continuaban sus estudios de educación general, a la vez que recibían la preparación pedagógica y realizaban su práctica docente desde primer año en la escuela media. Cumpliendo el principio de combinar el estudio con el trabajo. Así, se implantó la Licenciatura en Educación Primaria y la Licenciatura en Educación Preescolar.

Dentro de las transformaciones actuales, se dan la reducción a 20 alumnos o menos en las aulas de la Enseñanza Primaria, la nueva concepción de la formación del profesor integral de Secundaria Básica, la introducción masiva de la computación en todos los niveles, entre otras. Todo ello ha determinado la necesidad de formar aceleradamente al personal docente que se requiere (Alarcón, 2002; Castro, 2002).

Por tanto, en septiembre del 2000 se creó la primera Escuela de Formación Emergente de Maestros Primarios para la Ciudad de La Habana y Matanzas, una experiencia extendida al resto del país. En agosto del 2001 comenzó, de forma experimental la formación de profesores generales integrales de Secundaria Básica que, una vez, concluido el primer año de su carrera, se integran en las escuelas de este nivel para desarrollar la labor docente, a la vez, que continúan su carrera. Ellos imparten todas las asignaturas de este nivel de enseñanza -con excepción de algunas especializadas como inglés y educación física-, en un solo grupo de un máximo de 15 alumnos, transitando con ellos de 7º a 9º grados. Ellos cuentan para su labor con recursos tecnológicos como la televisión, el video y la computación.

Así, a partir del curso 2002-2003 se aplica un nuevo modelo de formación docente que, en lo esencial consiste en un primer año con carácter interno, donde se garantice una preparación inicial con una adecuada formación psicológica, pedagógica y sociológica; elevar su cultura general y fomentar la autodisciplina para continuar sus estudios universitarios e iniciar su actividad docente responsable. A partir del segundo año y para el resto de la carrera se ubica a los estudiantes en una escuela de su municipio de residencia, con la concepción de considerar a esta como micro universidad, en la que docentes de experiencia se convierten en tutores de cada uno de los estudiantes.

En Cuba la Educación Comparada como disciplina docente, según ha quedado registrado, se incorporó a la docencia universitaria a mediados del 1940 en la Facultad de Educación de la Universidad de la Habana. Es así como el país se incorpora a través de la formación de educadores al proceso de divulgación y desarrollo de esta ciencia de la educación. Como uno de los resultados de las transformaciones ocurridas a partir del 1959 en la política y sistema educativo cubano, la formación del personal docente se fue adecuando a las nuevas exigencias que imponían los cambios, y se reinicia la enseñanza de esta ciencia en la década del setenta, ahora en la Facultad de Pedagogía Psicología del Instituto Superior Pedagógico Enrique José Varona.

En la actualidad, además de continuar desarrollando la docencia en la formación inicial se amplía su desarrollo en la formación posgraduada. Esta se manifiesta por medio de actividades científicas y académicas, que permiten asegurar que la experiencia desarrollada en el país contribuya al desarrollo de la ciencia. De igual manera se han consolidado nuevas alternativas teóricas y metodológicas que facilitan acercarse a la realidad educativa desde la comparación, pero con una visión integradora y contextualizada, tanto desde la investigación como desde la docencia.

La Educación Comparada en la Formación de Educadores

El primer curso de Educación Comparada se dicta en Cuba en el curso 1944-1945, por la profesora Emma Pérez Téllez en la Facultad de Educación de la Universidad de la Habana. Como resultado de este curso se elaboró un libro titulado *Educación Comparada* (Pérez, 1945) que recoge trabajos de la profesora y los resultados de las

investigaciones desarrolladas por los estudiantes del curso. Esta es la primera publicación sobre esta área del conocimiento en Cuba.

Desde las primeras páginas del texto, se puede identificar una concepción didáctica que corresponde al enfoque científico asumido para desarrollar la docencia de la Educación Comparada, así queda establecido cuando la profesora precisa que:

- La asignatura dentro del currículo es diferente por su carácter interdisciplinario e integrador.
- La participación de los estudiantes es esencial en cuanto a las investigaciones que realizan y los criterios críticos que deben exponer en las actividades de seminarios.
- Lo que se investiga y estudia permite a través de la comparación establecer las semejanzas y diferencias entre las realidades educativas que se estudian encontrando las causas de sus manifestaciones.
- Lo anterior se logra con la aplicación del método de estudio problémico.

Para poner en práctica lo anterior ya en la introducción del texto, la docente propone una serie de preguntas que propician que el estudiante asuma una posición reflexiva y crítica frente a lo que estudia. Ello se evidencia en las siguientes preguntas:

- a) ¿Por qué no debemos limitarnos, al estudiar la Educación Comparada, al esbozo de lo organizativo y lo legislativo, en las instituciones de enseñanza del mundo?
- b) ¿Por qué podemos asegurar que el estudio de un sistema de educación no es completo si no se analiza cómo y por qué una cuestión resuelta en determinado sentido en un país, es resuelta en otro país en distinta forma? (Pérez, 1945).

Este enfoque en el estudio de los sistemas educativos se apoya en las teorías y criterios de Isaac Kandel y otros teóricos como, Peter Sandiford y W.O. Lester Smith, destacados en la bibliografía consultada. También se tratan elementos de las legislaciones de los países y otros textos nacionales y extranjeros que analizan criterios sobre las realidades educativas estudiadas. Es de destacar, la utilización por vez primera de los informes de la Oficina Internacional de Educación en Ginebra, precursora de la UNESCO.

Los países que se seleccionaron para el estudio fueron tres: Inglaterra, Estados Unidos y la exUnión Soviética, políticas y sistemas educativos considerados modelos que influían en la educación mundial. Las guías temáticas enfatizaban en una característica del país (Inglaterra ‘cuna del imperialismo’, Estados Unidos, ‘gran civilización material’) proponen el estudio de los diferentes factores que influyen en la educación dando una panorámica multifactorial y dinámica del acto educativo. Los aspectos que contemplan la guía son:

- Religión y Educación.
- Escuela y Estado.
- Filosofía y Educación.
- Teorías Educativas e Historia de la Educación.
- Principales Leyes.
- Los Maestros.
- Panorámica de las Instituciones (diferentes tipos de institución y características).

En la segunda parte (apéndice) se estudian problemas educativos que se manifiestan en los países objeto de estudio y otros que comienzan a ser significativos en el ámbito internacional como es el analfabetismo en América Latina.

La guía temática propuesta, es el punto de partida para las investigaciones que desarrollan los estudiantes las cuales conforman la mayor parte del texto analizado. Se

puede valorar que el resultado de los estudios presentados se caracteriza por su enfoque multifactorial y dinámico.

La región Latinoamericana se presenta a través de un cuadro comparativo, que recoge la realidad educativa de diez países (Argentina, Brasil, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Uruguay, Venezuela, Paraguay y Perú). Este cuadro comparativo se hace con los siguientes indicadores:

- Relación entre Estado y Escuela.
- Asistencia Social Escolar.
- Analfabetismo.
- Escuela Elemental Pública.
- Escuelas Secundarias.
- Preparación de los Maestros.
- Enseñanza Rural.
- Estudios Técnicos.
- Educación de Adultos.
- Escuelas Privadas.
- Problemas Fundamentales a Resolver.

Otros de los temas que se investigan son el analfabetismo en Canadá, Estados Unidos y América Latina, valorándose varias ideas interesantes como son la existencia de analfabetismo en parte de la población de ascendencia africana en los Estados Unidos de América (EUA) y su erradicación en el resto de la población de ese país y en Canadá. En los demás países de la región el analfabetismo es un gran problema sin resolver. Para solucionarlo habría que eliminar la miseria, el abandono que sufren las áreas rurales y la falta de escuelas y personal calificado entre otras razones.

El texto que se analiza y la propuesta didáctica para el estudio de la Educación Comparada, es novedosa desde el punto de vista didáctico, permitiendo que desde las aulas los docentes amplíen su universo intelectual y que aprendan a realizar comparaciones con una perspectiva de lo universal a lo particular, comprometida con su función de educador.

La Enseñanza de la Educación Comparada en la Universidad Pedagógica "Enrique José Varona"

La creación de las universidades de formación de maestros en todo el país, constituyó un avance del sistema educativo cubano. La situada en la Ciudad de la Habana, tenía en esta época la carrera de Psicología y Pedagogía, y es en ella donde se reinicia la enseñanza de la Educación Comparada como disciplina universitaria. Ese período abarcó desde finales de 1970 hasta 1983.

La Educación Comparada fue parte del currículo de Formación de la Licenciatura en Educación en la Especialidad de Pedagogía y Psicología en la Universidad Pedagógica "Enrique José Varona". Durante este período se impartió como Seminario Especial para los estudiantes de quinto año en la Especialidad de Defectología y en cursos de postgrado.

Los programas de estudios se dividían en dos temas generales: 'El objeto de estudio de la Educación Comparada. Su evolución histórica', y 'Estudio de las políticas y los sistemas educativos de los países capitalistas desarrollados, los países socialistas y países en vías de desarrollo'. La docencia en este período se caracterizó por ser

descriptiva y anecdótica sin reflejar tendencias en la evolución de la ciencia ni de las políticas y los sistemas educativos.

Al modificarse durante la década del ochenta, el currículo de la Licenciatura en Educación en la especialidad Pedagogía-Psicología deja de ser una carrera que se estudia como una primera opción de licenciatura, para convertirse en una segunda especialidad. En estas condiciones, considerando las características de los estudiantes (que ya tienen una experiencia profesional previa) y la experiencia alcanzada por el colectivo de profesores que dirigía el Dr. Héctor Ferrán Toirac entre los cursos 1986-1994, se pone en práctica una experiencia metodológica que incorpora más temas al programa de estudio, individualiza la enseñanza a través de la aplicación, y aplica al proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje la concepción científico-metodológica de la ciencia.

Para cumplir con estas aspiraciones la propuesta se basó en los principios de la Enseñanza Centrada en el Estudiante. Esta concepción recoge los basamentos de la teoría del psicólogo norteamericano Carl Roger y las experiencias de su aplicación en universidades de Venezuela, Brasil y México. En el caso cubano la aplicación de la experiencia implicó que se elaboraran varios documentos de apoyo a la docencia; estos son: *El Convenio de Estudio Profesor-Alumno*, y *El Plan de Trabajo Individual*.

En el Convenio, prevalecía el componente evaluativo, al considerar fundamentalmente la posible calificación a alcanzar por el estudiante. Las nuevas ideas tenían propósitos formativos, donde el docente y el estudiante acordaban aspectos esenciales como son, el contenido a aprender, el método de trabajo y ritmo de aprovechamiento del estudiante, en su condición de persona cada vez más independiente y responsable con lo acordado.

El programa de la asignatura que le sirvió de base a la experiencia tenía tres temas generales: (1) Introducción a la Educación Comparada; (2) Políticas Educativas y Sistemas Educativos Contemporáneos; y (3) Problemas Contemporáneos de la Práctica Educativa. Pedagogos contemporáneos. Obras de y sobre la Educación. El curso se dividió en tres etapas fundamentales:

- *Primera Etapa:* Tiene el propósito de explicar el primer tema, diagnosticar al grupo en general y cada estudiante en particular, realizar la lectura y firma del Convenio de Trabajo, y del Plan de Trabajo Individual. Esta etapa tiene una duración de cuatro semanas.
- *Segunda Etapa:* Está encaminado a que los estudiantes, con la orientación del tutor, desarrollaran la mayor parte de las tareas del Plan de Trabajo Individual por medio de investigación. Esta etapa tiene una duración de cuatro semanas.
- *Tercera Etapa:* Aquí los estudiantes exponen el resultado de sus investigaciones. Esta etapa dura doce semanas. En el último encuentro se evalúa a los estudiantes según lo propuesto en su Convenio y los resultados logrados.

Para organizar la Tercera Etapa y decidir cuáles serían las políticas y los sistemas educativos estudiados, se considerarían los modelos en dependencia de su organización, resultados de su gestión o algunas otras características que lo identificarán para establecer las tendencias en el desarrollo de estos fenómenos a nivel mundial o regional.

En cuanto a la segunda temática, además de decidir los temas de mayor actualidad, se organizaba su estudio por acápite. Esto permitía la investigación de los mismos por los estudiantes individualmente. Este proceso de aprendizaje, posibilitaba la socialización de los resultados en paneles. La discusión colectiva propiciaba un análisis multifactorial de las tendencias y corrientes educativas estudiadas. La discusión del

tema tres se desarrollaba de manera individual con el tutor, y sólo se trabajaba en grupo sobre una obra o figura destacada.

La experiencia se puso en práctica durante cinco cursos académicos. Para que los estudiantes aprendieran a aplicar los fundamentos de la comparación, se determinaban los indicadores del estudio, los cuales fueron propuestos por profesores del curso. La utilización de este recurso investigativo permitió establecer tendencias en el desarrollo y realizar aproximaciones a las realidades educativas de otras regiones.

Un requisito indispensable consistía en la valoración de la información de fuentes oficiales y no oficiales. La implementación de este permitía comprender la aplicación de la política educacional y la pertinencia de sus resultados. Para el análisis de la obra se realizaba una ficha técnica del autor o los autores y de la obra. Otro elemento del estudio incluía la valoración de las tesis fundamentales de la obra.

En la actualidad, se continúa impartiendo la disciplina en la formación de psicopedagogos y se ha incorporado el estudio de la política y el sistema educativo cubano desde sus derivaciones en diferentes modelos para cada nivel de enseñanza, para todos los profesores en formación. De igual manera, se estudian las tendencias contemporáneas del currículo, las teorías de la enseñanza y aprendizaje, lo que permite incorporar un enfoque comparativo al tratamiento de estos temas.

Formación Continua o Postgraduada

La Educación Comparada y los estudios comparados en educación se han enseñado en las facultades de la Universidad Pedagógica Enrique José Varona, en el Centro de Perfeccionamiento de la Educación Superior (CEPES), el Instituto Superior de Arte (ISA), la Escuela Internacional de Educación Física y Deportes y otros.

En el caso del CEPES, importantes estudios acerca de las tendencias de la educación superior han sido implementados y de igual forma se han ofrecido cursos de esta ciencia en varias facultades de la Universidad de la Habana y en Perú. Por su parte entre los cursos dados en la Escuela Internacional de Deportes y en el ISA, se destaca el que analiza las tendencias de la educación de postgrado.

A Modo de Conclusión

Incorporar la Educación Comparada en la formación inicial y permanente de los educadores, responde a las exigencias contemporáneas de la educación. La Educación Comparada, permite que se investigue no solo el desarrollo contemporáneo de las políticas y sistemas educativos sino también los problemas, corrientes y tendencias educativas. Al estudiar otras realidades educativas se propicia un mejor desarrollo profesional de los docentes lo que ayuda a la toma de decisiones por parte de los responsables del diseño de las políticas educacionales.

Un acontecimiento significativo para la enseñanza de la Educación Comparada en Cuba, lo constituyó la celebración en La Habana en el año 2004 del XII Congreso Mundial de Sociedades de Educación Comparada. El mismo propició la realización de pre-eventos en 14 provincias del país, donde se presentaron alrededor de 600 ponencias acerca del tema. De igual forma, el Congreso favoreció el desarrollo de estudios comparativos en otros territorios del Caribe y Latinoamérica.

Con el lema 'Educación y Justicia Social' el XII Congreso Mundial acogió el XI Seminario entre educadores Cubanos y Estadounidenses, así como la celebración de un Simposio de habla francesa, donde académicos de Bélgica, Benin, Burkina Faso,

Canadá, China, Francia, Grecia y España presentaron estudios comparados efectuados en territorios de habla francesa. La creación de la Asociación Iberoamericana de Sociedades de Educación Comparada, también fue otro importante resultado del Congreso (Hickling-Hudson, 2007). El intercambio de conocimiento y de índole cultural realizado en La Habana, ratificó la necesidad de la enseñanza de la Educación Comparada, como vía para mejorar la educación, basada en la equidad y para la creación de un mundo mejor (Martín Sabina, 2006).

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Dra. Rosa María Massón, Profesora Auxiliar
Decana de la Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación
Instituto Superior Pedagógico “Enrique José Varona”
e-mail: rmasoncruz@yahoo.es

Dr. Alejandro Torres, Profesor Titular
Facultad de Lenguas Extranjeras
Instituto Superior Pedagógico “Enrique José Varona”
e-mail: alexts211961@yahoo.com

Un Panorama de la Educación Comparada en México

A Panorama of Comparative Education in Mexico

Marco A. Navarro-Leal

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to depict a panoramic view of Comparative Education in Mexico, in order to identify some issues for further research and discussion. Some comments are made about relevant events and publications that have driven comparative education activity in Mexico since 1931 to the present day. Besides, this paper explores the presence of the field in Mexican universities, through programs and courses. It is observed that Comparative Education has not been an extensive activity in educational institutions. Instead there have been small groups of researchers producing and publishing comparative studies, but a scholarly reflection on the epistemological status of the field is lacking. Of the very few universities that teach Comparative Education courses, no distinction is made between Comparative Education and Comparative Pedagogy, and between contents of undergraduate and graduate courses. Moreover, Mexican authored publications are very scarce among the reading materials for such courses.

Introducción

En México, la Educación Comparada no ha tenido una actividad extensiva entre las instituciones y programas dedicados al estudio de la educación y a la formación de educadores, pero aún con una presencia escasa en el conjunto de instituciones del nivel superior, su producción siempre estuvo presente desde la tercera década del Siglo XX.

El propósito del presente artículo es el de obtener un acercamiento panorámico a la actividad de la Educación Comparada en México, con el objeto de identificar algunos temas de interés para su profundización posterior. En este sentido, por ahora dejamos de lado el análisis más fino referido a la discusión de conceptos, modelos, métodos, tendencias en la Educación Comparada, pero sí reconocemos su estrecha (y en ocasiones indivisible) relación con la Educación Internacional (Wilson, 1994).

Para lograr este acercamiento panorámico, en una primera parte se describen algunos eventos y productos que han permitido una actividad y presencia constante de la Educación Comparada en México, para pasar enseguida a explorar la enseñanza de este campo en las universidades mexicanas.

Breve Historia de la Educación Comparada en México

Seguramente existirán algunos textos de viajeros de la Nueva España, similares a los que en ocasiones son considerados como fundamentos en la historia de la Educación Comparada, pero esta es una tarea pendiente y que aún queda por indagar. También habría que considerar opiniones como las de Calderón (1994), quien sugiere que, en los países latinoamericanos, habría que situar los orígenes de la Educación Comparada en las corrientes pedagógicas de la segunda mitad del siglo diecinueve, “en

el marco de los procesos de configuración de los sistemas educativos nacionales, que se constituyeron en el principal objeto de estudio de la educación comparada” (p.106).

Como un antecedente importante de la producción en este campo, se reconoce el estudio que Ezequiel A. Chávez, presentó a la Comisión Técnica Consultiva de la Secretaría de Educación Pública en diciembre de 1931 en el que analizaba el papel que el laicismo jugó en países como Estados Unidos, Francia, Suiza, Bélgica, Gran Bretaña y Alemania. Este estudio se publicó hasta el año de 1968, por la Asociación Civil “Ezequiel A. Chávez”.

Años más tarde, algunos textos que, de acuerdo a Calderón (1994), merecen reconocimiento en esta historia serían los del brasileño Lorenzo Filho (*Educación Comparada*, 1963) y del mexicano José Manuel Villalpando (*Líneas Generales de Pedagogía Comparada*, 1961 y *Pedagogía Comparada*, 1966); así como de Francisco Larroyo (*Historia Comparada de la Educación en México*, 1956), los cuales estuvieron presentes en la formación de maestros en la Escuela Normal Superior a partir de 1947, y desde 1955 en la Escuela de Pedagogía de la Facultad de Filosofía y Letras de la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México.

Se destaca también la integración del Grupo de Estudios de Pedagogía Comparada, en el contexto de la puesta en marcha, en 1959, del Plan Nacional para la Expansión y Mejoramiento de la Enseñanza Primaria, que para México significó la primera reforma importante en su sistema educativo. Dicho grupo estuvo dirigido por Celerino Cano, Arturo Fajardo Carvajal y por el tamaulipeco Arquímedes Caballero, y realizó varios estudios y jornadas de Pedagogía Comparada entre 1959 y 1968 auspiciados por el Consejo Nacional Técnico de la Educación. En uno de sus primeros eventos, Caballero presentó una ponencia sobre Chile, y posteriormente realizaron “un estudio sobre el sistema educativo francés y emprendió, en su primera fase, una investigación comparada acerca de la enseñanza técnica entre Italia, Checoslovaquia, Francia, Israel, Chile y México” (Calderón, 2000, p.15).

Por otra parte, en 1963 se funda el Centro de Estudios Educativos Asociación Civil, que ha jugado un papel importante en la investigación educativa en México, así como también en el campo de la Educación Comparada. A partir de 1964 empezó a publicar reportes de su producción mediante opúsculos. Destaca el trabajo emprendido por Pablo Latapí en relación a su producción en materia de Educación Comparada e Internacional (Latapí, 1966, 1967a, 1967b, 1970); en esa misma colección, destacan también los textos de Carlos Muñoz Izquierdo (1965 y 1966).

A partir de 1971, el Centro de Estudios Educativos (CEE) inicia la publicación de una revista trimestral con el nombre de *Revista del Centro de Estudios Educativos* pero que, por sus mismos contenidos, en muy poco tiempo cambió su nombre por el de *Revista Latinoamericana de Estudios Educativos*. Desde los primeros números de ese mismo año aparecieron artículos sobre la educación en Perú (Paulston, 1971), Puerto Rico (Carnoy, 1971), y Brasil (Gouveia, 1971). Si bien este tipo de artículos no son propiamente estudios comparados, la lectura de experiencias ajenas lleva irremediablemente a la reflexión sobre lo propio, promoviendo la comparación aunque de manera heurística.

A partir de 1972 inicia su aparición otra revista trimestral, la *Revista de la Educación Superior* de la Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior (ANUIES), la cual desde sus inicios ha incluido temas de Educación Internacional y Comparada, tales como la ‘Declaración General de la Conferencia de Ministros de Educación convocada por la UNESCO’, celebrada en

Venezuela en Diciembre de 1971; el 'Libro universitario en la integración Latinoamericana' de Hector Murillo (1972), así como diversos artículos sobre la educación en Brasil, Perú y Cuba, y el resumen de un 'Plan Mundial' elaborado por Víctor Urquidi (1972). Después vendrían distintos artículos, destacando por ejemplo los de Schiefelbein (1973) y de McGinn (1998).

En marzo de 1978, la Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) de los Estados Unidos, celebró en México su Congreso Anual. Una selección de las ponencias ahí presentadas fueron publicadas por el Centro de Estudios Educativos en 1978, con el título de *Perspectivas de la Educación en América Latina* (CEE, 1978).

Se debe destacar el I Foro Latinoamericano de Educación Comparada celebrado en la Universidad de Colima en el mes de marzo de 1980. Ahí se analizaron temas en torno a las relaciones de la universidad con el Estado, los regímenes políticos, la reproducción de la estructura social en México, Argentina, Perú, Panamá, Nicaragua, Brasil y Honduras. Participaron en este foro: Carlos Muñoz Izquierdo, José Luis Parisí, Carlos Alberto Torres, Julia Alba, Humberto Brugiari, Miguel de Castilla, Vanilda Paiva, Carlos Ma. Vilas, Olac Fuentes, Adriana Puiggrós, Mario Miranda Pacheco, entre otros.

En el mes de marzo de 1997, la CIES organiza nuevamente su congreso anual en un hotel del sur de la Ciudad de México, con el propósito de promover los estudios comparados en este país. La Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México publicó una selección de los trabajos ahí presentados.

La impronta del fin del siglo y las perspectivas de la globalización plantearon la necesidad de revisar el rumbo seguido hasta entonces por los sistemas educativos y el establecimiento de nuevas agendas de política en el marco de una interacción económica diferente entre las naciones; ello obligó a intensificar el uso de enfoques de Educación Comparada e Internacional. Ejemplos que dan cuenta de ello son los siguientes: Kent, 1996; Aboites, 1997; Didou, 1998; Acosta, 1999; Balán, 2000; García de Fanelli et al., 2001; Didriksson & Herrera, 2002; Andere, 2003; Rosario & Marín, 2004; y Alcántara, 2005. En el esfuerzo por impulsar el campo de la educación comparada en México, no se debe pasar por alto el libro de Elvia Marveya Villalobos (2002) que, con el título de *Educación Comparada*, pasa revista a las reflexiones que sobre el objeto, métodos y enfoques se han desplegado en el transcurrir internacional de este campo.

A instancias de Mark Bray, siendo Presidente del World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES), un grupo de académicos mexicanos, asiduos participantes de los congresos anuales de la CIES de los Estados Unidos, promovieron la creación de lo que sería el equivalente al capítulo mexicano de aquella organización mundial, de tal forma que el día 20 de noviembre del 2003, en el marco del VII Congreso Nacional de Investigación Educativa, celebrado en Guadalajara, Jalisco, tuvo lugar la reunión constitutiva de la Sociedad Mexicana de Educación Comparada (SOMECE)¹. En esta, la Asamblea designó a la primera mesa directiva: Marco Aurelio Navarro-Leal como presidente, Armando Alcántara como Vicepresidente, como Secretario a Medardo Tapia, a Sergio Martínez Romo como Tesorero y a Carlos Ornelas como Vocal.

¹ Ver también Manzon & Bray (2007) sobre una breve historia de la SOMECE.

Teniendo como objeto promover el estudio de la Educación Comparada e Internacional, y elevar el estatus académico de este campo, esta sociedad fue protocolizada como 'Asociación Civil' ante el Notario Público No. 204 de Ciudad Victoria, Tamaulipas, con fecha 12 de febrero del 2004 y su reconocimiento como integrante del World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES) se hace durante la asamblea celebrada el 25 de octubre del mismo año, en el marco del 12º Congreso Mundial de Sociedades de Educación Comparada, celebrado en La Habana, Cuba.

Además de celebrar sus asambleas de socios cada dos años, en el marco del Congreso Nacional de Investigación Educativa, la SOMEC ha realizado dos mesas redondas en la Unidad Académica Aztlán de la Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, situada en la Ciudad de Reynosa, del mismo Estado. Así mismo, la SOMEC ha publicado cuatro libros, en coedición con la Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, la Universidad Iberoamericana-Puebla, la Universidad Autónoma de Chapingo, la Universidad Tres de Febrero de Argentina y la Sociedad Argentina de Estudios Comparados en Educación (SAECE) (Navarro, 2005; Navarro & Sánchez, 2007; Sánchez & Navarro, 2007; Victorino, 2006).

La Educación Comparada en las Universidades Mexicanas

En México, el nivel de educación superior tuvo 2, 446,726 estudiantes en el ciclo escolar 2005-2006, de acuerdo a la última publicación estadística de la Secretaría de Educación Pública (2007). Esta matrícula se distribuyó de la siguiente manera: 80'251 en el nivel de Técnico superior o profesional asociado; 142,257 en licenciatura de educación normal; 2, 070,311 en licenciatura universitaria o tecnológica; y 153,907 son estudiantes de postgrado. La educación superior es atendida por un total de 2122 instituciones (235 federales, 489 de los estados, 44 universidades autónomas y 1354 instituciones privadas). En la distribución de la matrícula por el carácter de la institución hay una relación proporcional inversa. Mientras que un 67% de los estudiantes son atendidos por 768 instituciones públicas, el 33% restante es atendido por 1354 instituciones privadas.

La Tabla 1 muestra las instituciones públicas de educación superior en las que se imparten cursos de Educación Comparada y/o Internacional. Como se podrá observar, son 14 instituciones y 23 programas, pero habría que hacer al menos un par de observaciones. En el caso de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, el curso de Educación Comparada aparece como parte de los cursos optativos, sin embargo fuimos informados de que nunca se ha impartido.

Si bien en la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM), campus ENEP-Aragón, el plan de estudios de la Licenciatura en Pedagogía incluye un Seminario de Pedagogía Comparada, en el caso de la Licenciatura en Pedagogía de la Facultad de Filosofía y Letras (UNAM-CU), los cursos de Pedagogía Comparada I y II ya no aparecen en el nuevo plan de estudios que entrará en vigor a partir del año 2008, aunque, según información obtenida de los mismos profesores, los contenidos ahí tratados ya no eran los enunciados con ese nombre. Pero en el Centro de Apoyo a la Investigación, de esta Facultad, se lleva a cabo un seminario institucional con el nombre de 'La Educación Comparada, un horizonte de lectura en el campo educativo'. Además de proponer el estudio de la Educación Comparada (su campo y sus métodos)

se propone desarrollar estudios comparados en dos ejes: la formación universitaria en educación y la educación basada en normas de competencia.

Tabla 1: Educación Comparada en Universidades Públicas de México

| Institución | Programa | Curso |
|--|---|---|
| Benemérita y Centenaria Escuela Normal del Estado de Durango | Licenciatura en Educación Especial | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma de Chiapas | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma de Baja California | Maestría en Ciencias Educativas | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez | Licenciatura en Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Organización de Sistemas Educativos Extranjeros (Pedagogía Comparada) |
| Universidad Autónoma de Nayarit | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma de Sinaloa | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Educación Comparada |
| | Maestría en Ciencias de la Educación | Problemas de Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación opción Administración y Planeación Educativas Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación opción Ciencias Químico-Biológicas Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación opción Tecnología Educativa | Educación Comparada |
| | Doctorado en Educación Internacional | Análisis Comparado de los Sistemas de Educación Superior Internacionalización de la Educación y Políticas Públicas |
| Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Hidalgo | Licenciatura en Educación | Modelos Internacionales de Educación Superior |
| | Maestría en Ciencias de la Educación | Educación Comparada |
| | Doctorado en Ciencias de la Educación | Estudios Comparados en Educación |
| Universidad de Colima | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Universidad de Guadalajara | Licenciatura en Educación (Sistema Virtual) | Educación Comparada |
| | Maestría en Gestión y Políticas de la Educación Superior | Gobierno y Gestión de la Educación Superior |
| Universidad de Guanajuato | Licenciatura en Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (CU) | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Pedagogía Comparada I (termina en 2008) Pedagogía Comparada II (termina en 2008) |
| ENEP- Aragón | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Seminario de Pedagogía Comparada |
| Universidad Pedagógica Nacional (Ajusco) | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Educación Comparada |
| | Maestría en Desarrollo Educativo | Análisis Comparativo |

En el caso de la Maestría en Gestión y Políticas de la Educación Superior de la Universidad de Guadalajara, se ha incluido en esta Tabla el curso de Gobierno y Gestión de la Educación Superior, porque sus contenidos tienen un enfoque de Educación Comparada, pero se advierte también la existencia de dos cursos de Educación Internacional: uno en la Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas y otro en la Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Hidalgo.

En la Tabla 2 se muestran las instituciones privadas de educación superior cuyos programas de licenciatura o postgrado ofrecen cursos de Educación Comparada y/o Internacional. Como se podrá observar, se trata de 27 universidades privadas con 31 programas. En tres de los casos se trata de cursos de Educación Internacional, como son los de la Universidad La Salle Bajío, Universidad La Salle Victoria y la Universidad Panamericana.

Tabla 2: Educación Comparada en Universidades Privadas de México

| Institución | Programa | Curso |
|--|--|---|
| Centro de Estudios Superiores del Sureste (Mérida, Cancún) | Licenciatura en Psicopedagogía Asistencial | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Centro Internacional de Prospectiva y Altos Estudios (Puebla) | Doctorado en Educación | Análisis Comparativo de Planes de estudio de las carreras de Educación en el nivel superior |
| Centro Universitario Hipócrates | Licenciatura en Ciencias Sociales (Verano) Licenciatura en Enseñanza del Inglés (Verano) Licenciatura en Literatura y Ciencias del Lenguaje (Verano) | Pedagogía Comparada |
| CEO Comunidades Educativas Unidas (Chicontepec) | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Instituto de Estudios Superiores de Chiapas Universidad Salazar (Tapachula, Pichucalco, Cintalapa) | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Instituto de Estudios Superiores de Xalapa | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Educación Comparada |
| Instituto de Estudios Universitarios (Puebla) | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Instituto Tecnológico Latinoamericano (Mineral de la Reforma, Tula de Allende) | Licenciatura en Educación (Plan Cuatrimestral) | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Instituto Tecnológico y de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey | Doctorado en Innovación Educativa | El proceso de cambio y la comparación entre sistemas educativos. |
| UNIDES Universidad del Desarrollo del Estado de Puebla | Licenciatura en Docencia Universitaria | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma de Guadalajara | Licenciatura en Educación Doctorado en Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Autónoma del Noreste | Maestría en Gestión de Instituciones de Educación Superior | Sistemas Educativos Comparados |
| Universidad de la Concordia (Aguascalientes) | Licenciatura en Pedagogía Infantil | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad de Montemorelos | Doctorado en Educación | Seminario de Educación Comparada |
| Universidad La Salle Bajío | Maestría en Educación | Prospectiva Educativa Internacional |
| Universidad La Salle Victoria | Maestría en Educación | La educación en el contexto de la globalización |
| Universidad de Monterrey | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad del Golfo de México (Veracruz) | Maestría en Valores para la Acción Educativa | Evaluación Comparada |
| Universidad del Valle de Orizaba | Licenciatura en Ciencias de la Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Iberoamericana- León | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Universidad Internacional (Cuernavaca) | Doctorado en Humanidades Área de Formación Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Kino | Doctorado en Educación | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Latinoamericana del Caribe | Licenciatura en Psicopedagogía Asistencial | Pedagogía Comparada |
| Universidad México Americana del Norte (Reynosa) | Maestría en Enseñanza de la Educación Superior | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Panamericana (Bonaterra, Aguascalientes) | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Políticas Educativas Internacionales |
| Universidad Popular Autónoma del Estado de Puebla | Licenciatura en Pedagogía | Educación Comparada |
| Universidad Regiomontana | Maestría en Educación con Acentuación en Psicología Educativa Maestría en Educación con Acentuación en Educación Superior | Educación Comparada |

Por la información de ambas tablas se puede observar que la proporción de instituciones en las que se ofrecen cursos de Educación Comparada, respecto al universo de instituciones, es extremadamente escaso tanto en las públicas como en las privadas. Así mismo se puede observar que al parecer se da un tratamiento indistinto sea Educación Comparada o Pedagogía Comparada. En algunos programas de pedagogía la materia se llama Educación Comparada y en algunas licenciaturas en educación se llama Pedagogía Comparada.

Los contenidos de los cursos son sumamente variados, pero la mayor parte de ellos inicia con el estudio de la evolución histórica y la naturaleza de la Educación Comparada como disciplina científica o como campo interdisciplinario, así como la comprensión y la utilización de la metodología comparativa aplicada a la educación, o los procedimientos básicos para la aplicación de métodos comparados y después se analizan o realizan trabajos comparados sobre distintos objetos; es notorio que en todos los casos se consideren unidades de comparación de distintos países. Se debe advertir que en algunos programas los temas sobre el campo de la Educación Comparada están ausentes y pasan directamente al estudio de reportes de Educación Comparada y de Educación Internacional. Solamente en uno de los casos se aborda la polémica entre Pedagogía y Educación Comparada. No hay una distinción entre los contenidos estudiados en la licenciatura y el postgrado.

Los autores cuyos trabajos aparecen con una mayor frecuencia en la bibliografía estudiada son aquellos que originalmente escriben en español, como Francisco Pedró, José Luis García Garrido, Miguel Pereyra, Marcela Mollis; o aquellos cuyos textos han sido traducidos al español, como Philip Altbach, George Bereday, Harold Noah, Rolland Paulston, Jürgen Schriewer, y Robert Arnove. También se consideran algunos materiales de los organismos multilaterales, como la UNESCO, OCDE (Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económicos) y Banco Mundial. En las lecturas de los cursos es notoria la proliferación de textos digitalizados de revistas en línea.

A Manera de Conclusión

Después de este breve recorrido por la historia de la Educación Comparada en México, podemos observar que si bien la Educación Comparada no ha sido una actividad extensiva en los ámbitos educativos, los pequeños núcleos de estudiosos que la cultivan han tenido una producción que en cantidad y calidad le han dado cierta constancia y presencia en los medios de difusión impresa. Se puede observar que la obra publicada se refiere casi totalmente a comparaciones entre países sobre ciertas temáticas de interés, mientras que la reflexión epistemológica sobre su estatuto científico y disciplinario casi ha estado ausente.

La exploración de la enseñanza actual de este campo, en las universidades mexicanas, nos permitió observar que es muy reducido el número de instituciones en cuyos programas de educación se imparten cursos de esta materia; que se considera a la Educación Comparada y a la Pedagogía Comparada como la misma cosa; y que no hay diferencia de contenidos en los niveles de licenciatura y postgrado. Pero además, lo que parece ser más grave, es que en las lecturas utilizadas en los cursos universitarios, la referencia a autores mexicanos es sumamente escasa.

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Prof. Dr. Marco A. Navarro-Leal
Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas
Ciudad Victoria, Tamaulipas, México
e-mail: mnavarro@uat.edu.mx

Educación Comparada en Universidades Sudamericanas: El Caso de Uruguay

Comparative Education at South American Universities: The Case of Uruguay

Enrique Martínez

Abstract

This paper aims to provide some references about Comparative Education in Uruguayan universities. Uruguay is a small South American country and member of the MERCOSUR¹. The national education system in Uruguay, formed in the 1870s, emerged largely from a comparative study with the American educational system undertaken by José Pedro Varela, a young lawyer and sociologist, who headed the positivist movement of Uruguayan educational reforms. Varela was particularly interested in the process of educational transfer and adaptation of European educational practices into the American educational system pioneered by Horace Mann.

The current Uruguayan Higher Education System can be mentioned as an example of a very slow transition from old to new patterns. Uruguay has only one public university and the private sector emerged just a decade ago (1995-98). Teacher education used to be a task performed outside the university until the new private universities started to offer Master's degrees in this field. Recently one doctoral program at a private university, the Advanced Program of Education (Universidad de la Empresa-UDE/University of Business), which includes Comparative Education as a main line of research, was approved. Besides at the Universidad de la República (University of the Republic) a new Master's degree on Higher Education Teaching was established, which includes some modules linked with the field. Nevertheless, the field of comparative studies in education has not been developed as a differentiated one. Since the 1970s, some Uruguayan researchers had started to make contributions to the comparative field within the framework of international agencies engaged in technical assistance or educational research. This paper explores this process as well as the recent initiative towards the institutionalization of the field in Uruguay.

Introducción

La Educación Comparada no es aún un campo de investigación diferenciada en el Uruguay, aunque el sistema educativo del país es tal vez un buen ejemplo de la contribución de esta disciplina al surgimiento de los sistemas educativos modernos. En la actualidad, sólo un programa de postgrado incluye a esta disciplina en su plan docente y como línea de investigación específica. Desde ese marco institucional se ha

¹ Spanish acronym of Mercado Común del Sur or Common Market of the South, is the South American regional economic organization, comprised of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay.

organizado una jornada nacional y encuentro regional de educación comparada en julio de 2008. Veamos una breve descripción histórica de ese proceso.

Breve Marco Histórico

El territorio de la actual República uruguaya perteneció históricamente al Virreinato del Río de la Plata, que reunía a las actuales Argentina, Bolivia, sur de Brasil, Paraguay y Uruguay. La circunstancia de que las dos ciudades capitales vecinas –Buenos Aires y Montevideo– poseyeran puertos importantes y funciones políticas y militares relevantes, contribuyó a la formación de un sentimiento autonomista local en la llamada Banda Oriental. Tales razones geopolíticas y en especial el interés de Gran Bretaña en evitar el control de la llave de la Cuenca del Plata en exclusividad por las Provincias Unidas Argentinas o por el Imperio del Brasil, determinó en 1828 una convención entre estas potencias para declarar la independencia del Uruguay (1830), un rol similar al que jugó la independencia de Bélgica, llave de la estratégica cuenca europea del Rin.

Los primeros años de la joven república fueron tumultuosos e incluyeron una guerra internacional (la Guerra Grande, 1839-1851), en la que se involucraron Argentina, Brasil, Francia e Inglaterra. Hacia 1875 una coalición de hacendados, militares y dirigentes civiles comenzó la consolidación del poder estatal y promovió símbolos de nacionalidad. En esa reforma modernizadora del Uruguay, encontramos un componente militar (la creación del ejército de línea), un componente tecno-económico y productivo (alambrado de los campos, genética ganadera, producción para el mercado mundial) y un decisivo componente político-social: la creación de un sistema escolar nacional. Es José Pedro Varela, un joven abogado y sociólogo, quien tiene a su cargo el diseño del sistema. Para concebirlo, Varela viaja al exterior y estudia el sistema escolar de los Estados Unidos, que había experimentado recientemente, bajo la conducción de Horace Mann, la transferencia y adaptación de prácticas educativas europeas. En la vecina Argentina y por la misma época, Domingo Faustino Sarmiento conduce la creación del sistema educativo nacional argentino, también influido por las prácticas educativas norteamericanas.

Al mismo tiempo va a tener lugar la reforma positivista en la universidad. El espiritualismo ecléctico de la ‘Universidad vieja’ dejará su lugar a una nueva concepción positivista, progresista y burguesa, que completa los rasgos napoleónicos de la Universidad de la República. Esta universidad pública, nacida entre los años 1833 y 1847, será la única universidad del país hasta 1985 y es aun hoy la única universidad pública.

La Educación Comparada como Campo

De este modo podemos decir que el sistema educativo del Uruguay, en su concepción inicial, es el resultado de un esfuerzo intelectual que corresponde a una, la primera, de las funciones históricas de la Educación Comparada: la de operar, como lo señalaba King (1968), como un insumo para la toma de decisiones. Las restantes funciones apuntadas por Cowen (1981), la de ofrecer un cuerpo teórico y un sistema institucionalizado de docencia, se encuentran en desarrollo incipiente.

La producción de teoría sobre la educación como un enfoque trasnacional no ha sido del todo ajena a los investigadores uruguayos, pero será sólo desde la década de los años setenta, cuando se vuelve más periódica y frecuente la canalización de estudios

comparativos en educación, principalmente en el marco de proyectos de investigación propuestos y desarrollados por organismos regionales o internacionales de asistencia técnica e investigación.

Este es el caso de investigaciones debidas, entre otros, a Germán Rama y Carlos Filgueira, entre la generación de los fundadores de la sociología uruguaya. El primero de ellos, realizó contribuciones de importancia en el marco del proyecto Desarrollo y Educación en América Latina, en el que participaron asimismo los argentinos Norberto Fernández Lamarra y Juan Carlos Tedesco, desarrollado con apoyo de CEPAL (Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe) en la década de los setenta. Más recientemente, desde el BID (Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo/Inter-American Development Bank), Rama aportó estudios que poseían cierta clave comparada, en torno del estudio de la lógica social y pedagógica de los cambios en la educación secundaria². Merece mencionarse un reciente estudio comparado sobre las reformas educativas en la década de los noventa, coordinado por Martin Carnoy (University of Stanford) (Carnoy et al., 2004).

Claudio Rama Vitale dirigió el Instituto para la Educación Superior en América Latina y el Caribe (IESALC), entre 2001 y 2006. En su gestión, IESALC, como nunca antes o después, promovió a lo largo de la región de América Latina y el Caribe un voluminoso conjunto de estudios nacionales y regionales, que constituyen un aporte decisivo a los estudios comparados en educación superior y en los que participaron varios investigadores uruguayos.

Una corriente de orientación liberal, al realizar la crítica de las orientaciones burocráticas del estado docente, recurrió tangencialmente a ejemplos globales y miradas comparativas para mostrar formas alternativas, exitosas y eventualmente más libres de ofrecer educación.³

El proyecto ACRO (Acreditación y Reconocimientos Oficiales entre universidades de MERCOSUR y la Unión Europea) de la Universidad Argentina de Tres de Febrero, liderado por Norberto Fernández Lamarra, volcado al análisis de las políticas de evaluación y acreditación, incluyó el caso de Uruguay. Así fue también el caso de otros proyectos regionales, por ejemplo, los estudios comparados en materia de formación docente, desarrollados por un Grupo de Trabajo de PREAL (Programa para la Reforma Educativa en América Latina) e Inter-American Dialogue (Vaillant, 2004).⁴

Este breve recorrido, que no tiene pretensiones de exhaustividad y sólo de ejemplificación, permite advertir cómo, por diversas circunstancias propias de la especial configuración del sistema de educación superior del Uruguay y de su importancia relativa, las fuerzas académicas que han promovido los estudios comparados en educación se encuentran en cierta medida –para seguir la imagen del ‘modelo de coordinación’ de Burton Clark (1992)– fuera de la academia, mucho más cercanas a los polos del estado (la búsqueda de alternativas de política) y del mercado

² <http://www.iadb.org/exr/am2001/seminars/seminar11c.htm>

³ El Centro de Estudios de la Realidad Económica y social (CERES) sustentó investigaciones de Pablo da Silveira, que examinaron críticamente la realidad educativa nacional y propiciaron en cierto sentido, una recuperación de la dimensión global del debate. Cfr. Por ejemplo: <http://www.oei.es/pensariberoamerica/ric03a04.htm>

⁴ Este proyecto, coordinado por la doctora Denise Vaillant se asienta administrativamente en la Universidad ORT de Uruguay.: www.ort.edu.uy.

(la demanda por estudios específicos de parte de los organismos internacionales). Así, aún hoy, el lugar de la educación comparada en el seno de las universidades es un fenómeno prácticamente inédito, que comienza a surgir en el año 2006 desde dos marcos institucionales diferenciados.

Infraestructura Institucional y su Rol en la Oferta de Postgrado: Currícula, Textos y Métodos

El Programa de Formación Avanzada en Educación de la Facultad de Educación de la Universidad de la Empresa (UDE) se compone de una maestría y un doctorado. Se trata del primer programa de doctorado en educación en el país y el primer programa de doctorado reconocido a una universidad privada. Aunque comenzó a operar en 2005 sólo alcanzó el reconocimiento en 2006. En el nivel doctoral, se ha incluido un seminario de 40 horas de Educación Comparada, que ha sido dictado desde 2006 hasta el presente por investigadores argentinos y uruguayos miembros de SAECE, la Sociedad Argentina de Educación Comparada. Los materiales académicos de referencia provienen en su mayoría de los aportes de las publicaciones de las sociedades latinoamericanas de educación comparada⁵; el método predominante es el del seminario de investigación, del que se espera la producción individual de un artículo de buena calidad.

En la Universidad de la República, la institución de educación superior uruguaya más antigua, ha sido implementada, desde 2006, una maestría en Enseñanza Universitaria, sostenida por diversos servicios. En el plan curricular de esa maestría se incluye el estudio de los sistemas de evaluación y acreditación de América Latina en perspectiva comparada, dictada por investigadores argentinos y uruguayos, asimismo miembros de SAECE.

En el nivel de grado, no se registra provisión institucional de una oferta docente ligada específicamente al campo, aunque sí a otras ciencias de la educación.

La iniciativa hacia la Sociedad Uruguaya de Educación Comparada

El Programa de Formación Avanzada en Educación de la Facultad de Educación de la Universidad de la Empresa (UDE) promovió en julio de 2008 la realización de la primera Jornada Uruguaya y Encuentro Regional de Educación Comparada. El objetivo es reunir la masa crítica de investigadores interesados en los estudios comparados en educación que actualmente trabajan en diversos marcos institucionales y en líneas con frecuencia conectadas y convergentes, con el objetivo de propiciar la gradual institucionalización del campo. El mencionado programa sostiene la *Revista Sudamericana de Educación, Universidad y Sociedad*, que más allá de la amplitud de su nombre, ha sido concebida como vehículo de desarrollo de los estudios comparados.

⁵ En 2008, existen cuatro sociedades latinoamericanas de Educación Comparada que son miembros sociedades del World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES). Son la Sociedad Argentina de Educación Comparada (SAECE), la Sociedad Mexicana de Educación Comparada (SOMECE), la Asociación de Pedagogos de Cuba (Sección de Educación Comparada), y la Sociedade Brasileira de Educação Comparada (SBEC). También hay una Sociedad Española de Educación Comparada (SEEC) (cfr. Masemann, Bray & Manzon, 2007).

Factores que Promueven los Estudios Comparados en Educación en Uruguay

Un primer orden de factores debe ser situado en el ámbito de los procesos de globalización. América Latina como conjunto y sus dos bloques principales, el MERCOSUR y la Comunidad Andina de Naciones (CAN) se encuentran desafiadas por la necesidad de una inserción internacional autónoma que viabilice el desarrollo económico y social aun postergado (Altbach, 2001; Pérez Lindo, 1998; Schwartzman, 2000; Vessuri, 2005). Ello es válido para la región como un todo, pero también para sus países, individualmente considerados. En el caso de Uruguay, la necesidad de formación de recursos humanos para hacer frente a los desafíos globales, configura las características del debate sobre las políticas. Así, los ejemplos de Finlandia y de otros países con altos resultados educativos, comienzan a insertarse en el debate público⁶.

Desde el punto de vista de la integración educativa, tanto el MERCOSUR como la CAN poseen mecanismos específicos. El MERCOSUR posee, desde diciembre de 1991 –año de su creación– un Sector Educativo y la Reunión de Ministros de Educación, que ha desarrollado sucesivos Planes Trienales (1991-1995-1998) y Planes Estratégicos (2001-2005, 2006-2010) (Martín, 2004).

Por su parte, el Convenio Andrés Bello (CAB), constituye un tratado entre países latinoamericanos y europeos no limitado solo al mundo andino, pues incluye a Bolivia, Chile y Paraguay –entre los estados asociados y socios del MERCOSUR– y a países que se han retirado de la Comunidad Andina de Naciones (recientemente, Venezuela; y antes, Chile, que ha retornado como estado asociado), así como a países de Centroamérica (Panamá) y del Caribe (Cuba), de Norteamérica (México) y a países extra-americanos (España). Los objetivos del convenio son más amplios: de carácter educativo, científico-técnico y cultural. A nivel educativo, el organismo de conducción es la Reunión de Ministros del Convenio Andrés Bello (REMECAB) (Convenio Andrés Bello, 2005; Instituto Internacional de Integración–CAB, 2000; Vallone, 2000).

Por otra parte, ambos subconjuntos (superpuestos en alguna medida) comparten los esfuerzos de integración educativa con otros acuerdos y mecanismos más amplios que también se les superponen: la Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe (OREALC/UNESCO)⁷; y la Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos para la Educación, la Ciencia y la Cultura (OEI)⁸, cuya Asamblea está constituida por todos los países iberoamericanos de las Américas, incluidas España y Portugal y, en África, Guinea Ecuatorial⁹. La Asamblea de la OEI está constituida por la reunión de los ministros de Educación de los países miembros.

Finalmente, cabe mencionar a la Reunión de Ministros de Educación en el ámbito del Consejo Interamericano para el Desarrollo Integral, un dispositivo de la Organización de Estados Americanos (OEA)¹⁰, cuyo organismo de coordinación y

⁶ Desde la Oficina Internacional de Educación de UNESCO (OIE), se ha promovido el estudio comparado en el campo del currículum.

⁷ www.unesco.cl/esp/index.act

⁸ www.oei.es

⁹ Son miembros de la OEI: Argentina, Bolivia, Brasil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Chile, República Dominicana, Ecuador, El Salvador, España, Guatemala, Guinea Ecuatorial, Honduras, México, Nicaragua, Panamá, Paraguay, Perú, Portugal, Puerto Rico, Uruguay y Venezuela.

¹⁰ www.oas.org/udse/cie/

seguimiento es la Comisión Interamericana de Educación, creada en la Tercera Reunión de Ministros, en México D.F., en 2003. En la subregión centroamericana, existe una Coordinación Educativa y Cultural Centroamericana, cuyo núcleo es la Reunión de ministros de Educación y Cultura. Ambos mecanismos poseen en común activas líneas de desarrollo y cooperación en materia de educación superior.

El debate sobre políticas de evaluación y acreditación universitaria o sobre la política de postgrados, debe mucho a la labor de estos esquemas de cooperación, formación de tecnoburocracias, intercambio de agendas, problemas y estrategias interpretativas y analíticas. Se trata de procesos que tienen apenas veinte años de desarrollo, y menos aun en algunos casos, pero que han ejercido cierta influencia favorable en la progresiva constitución de una comunidad de investigadores dedicados a la Educación Comparada, en especial a los estudios comparados en educación superior (García Guadilla, 2002; Neave, 2001).

Finalmente, en el nivel de la cultura académica y política local es posible encontrar también fuerzas reguladoras y configuradoras de importancia. Entre las primeras, cabe mencionar especialmente el proceso actualmente en curso, en pos de la elaboración de una nueva ley de educación. El proceso inaugurado en 2005 incluyó un debate educativo nacional, propuesto por el entonces flamante gobierno de izquierdas y un Congreso Nacional de Educación (2006) pero se enfrenta actualmente a una situación de bloqueo promovida por los sindicatos de maestros y profesores, quienes reclaman un sistema íntegramente estatal y autogobernado. En cambio, la Universidad de la República y diversos partidos, de gobierno y de oposición, han reclamado la elaboración de una ley programática. En esta medida, los aportes teóricos y pragmáticos provenientes del campo de la educación comparada, poseen un valor agregado evidente en el debate político local.

Entre las fuerzas configuradoras, a nivel nacional, cabe señalar el desarrollo de cambios en el sistema de educación superior, fundamentalmente, la consolidación de una relativamente nueva comunidad académica en el campo de las ciencias de la educación. En efecto, a través de la institucionalización de programas de maestría en el área, ha surgido una masa crítica de investigadores y profesores, un escenario cualitativamente diverso al que presentaban estas ciencias antes de la recuperación de la democracia en 1985, tras doce años de gobierno militar. Al mismo tiempo, la universidad se encuentra frente a nuevos desafíos, que no difieren en el caso uruguayo de los de otros países, aunque el ritmo local sea más lento, como resultado del largo monopolio ejercido históricamente por la Universidad de la República (Ribeiro, 1968; Chiancone & Martínez Larrechea, 1997; Sebastián, 2000; Martínez Larrechea, 2003). El reciente desarrollo de las universidades privadas ha contribuido al surgimiento de nuevas visiones y al ejercicio de formas nuevas de articulación en el seno de una cultura académica sumamente homogénea.

Discusión

En suma, el caso uruguayo resulta llamativo por una triple circunstancia. En primer lugar, la Educación Comparada en las universidades ha sido prácticamente inexistente antes del reciente año 2006, cuando la disciplina comienza a ser cultivada en dos universidades, una privada y otra pública: la Universidad de la Empresa y la Universidad de la República (UR). En el primer caso (UDE) el Programa de Formación Avanzada apunta hacia la consolidación académica de la disciplina de la Educación

Comparada; en el caso de la UR, su maestría en enseñanza universitaria, se orienta a la comprensión en clave comparada de los procesos de evaluación y acreditación de la educación superior y de las políticas de los organismos internacionales.

En segundo lugar, el nacimiento académico de la disciplina ha sido largamente preparado en el último cuarto del siglo por la contribución de diversos investigadores uruguayos en el marco de proyectos de investigación de características regionales, impulsados por organismos internacionales.

En tercer lugar, esta nueva visibilidad académica de la disciplina que podría coronarse en el año 2008 con el surgimiento de alguna clase de red académica local y de una publicación, aparece genética y estructuralmente conectada a los procesos de integración regional, internacionalización y globalización de la educación superior, una característica que no resulta extravagante, si se examina el carácter en general universalista y vocacionalmente cosmopolita de la sociedad uruguaya.

La presencia en la región latinoamericana de dos sociedades académicas fuertes –la Sociedad Brasileña de Educación Comparada y la más recientemente creada Sociedad Argentina de Educación Comparada– más las referencias de las sociedades cubana y mexicana, es también un factor que merece señalarse. En especial, dada las cercanías geográfica y cultural de Buenos Aires y Montevideo, la Sociedad Argentina opera actualmente como un factor catalizador de la convergencia de los investigadores uruguayos, tanto a través de sus encuentros nacionales y congresos latinoamericanos, como al ofrecer un cuerpo de especialistas capaces de apoyar la docencia y la investigación en las universidades del vecino Uruguay, junto a los investigadores locales (Fernández Lamarra, 2004; Fernández Lamarra, Mollis & Dono Rubio, 2005).

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Prof. Dr. Enrique Martínez
Universidad de la Empresa (UDE), Facultad de Educación. Montevideo, Uruguay
e-mail: emartinez@ude.edu.uy
Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales (FLACSO) Montevideo, Uruguay
e-mail: emartinez@flacso.edu.uy

PART IV

*Comparative Education at
Universities in Asia*

Teaching Comparative Education in Greater China: Contexts, Characteristics and Challenges

Maria Manzon

This chapter is modeled after the article of Bray & Gui (2001), which was the first of its kind to review the state of the field of Comparative Education in Greater China taking that as its specific geographic focus. That article was entitled 'Comparative Education in Greater China: Contexts, Characteristics, Contrasts and Contributions'. As the title of the present chapter indicates, this paper takes the same geographic focus on Greater China, which encompasses Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao. However, this chapter concentrates on the institutionalization of Comparative Education in universities in these four societies. The discussion commences with a review of the historical contexts of Comparative Education in these four territories. The article then profiles the characteristics of the teaching of Comparative Education in their universities. The data for this article was gathered from three main sources: a review of the published literature, by personal interviews with key Chinese comparative education scholars, and course information obtained mainly from university websites. The chapter concludes with a reflection on the challenges that lie ahead for teaching Comparative Education in an increasingly globalized context of Greater China.

Contexts

Cowen (1990, 2000) highlighted the socially contextualized nature of Comparative Education. He noted that comparative educationists who identify with the field shape the contours and boundaries of the field, yet are in turn shaped by wider contexts (1990, p.333). Thus the knowledge communities which comprise comparative education are embedded in and shaped by their social contexts, embracing a host of geographical, political, economic, cultural, linguistic and epistemological factors. Bray and Gui (2001) discussed the contexts of Comparative Education in Greater China along these domains. This section will thus dwell briefly on context to lay the background for the historical section discussing the institutionalization of Comparative Education in each of the four societies.

Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao are connected not only by the geographic proximity of their territories, but also in their political histories and shared cultural and linguistic characteristics. Pertinent data are summarized in Table 1. In terms of land area and population, Mainland China is the largest territory, followed by Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao. The sections below will thus follow this order.

Table 1: Greater China: Some Basic Features

| | Land Area (in '000 sq km) | Population in 2006 (in millions) | Political History | Official Language |
|----------------|---------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Mainland China | 9,572 | 1,311 | People's Republic of China (1949) | Chinese |
| Taiwan | 36 | 22 | Republic of China (1949) | Chinese |
| Hong Kong | 1.1 | 7 | British Colony (1842); SAR* (1997) | English, Chinese |
| Macao | 0.03 | 0.5 | Portuguese Colony (1557); SAR* (1999) | Chinese, Portuguese |

*SAR – Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China (PRC)

China has a long history spanning several thousand years with its first dynasty dating back to 1600 BC. The dynastic era was brought to a close in 1911 with the founding of the Republic led by Sun Yat Sen and the Nationalist Party. This nationalist regime was replaced in 1949 by the People's Republic established by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP), under the leadership of Mao Zedong. The new Chinese leadership took the Soviet Union as its model in most areas of socialist planning. Further political upheavals took place in the 1960s, notably the Cultural Revolution in 1966 which ushered China into a 10-year period of national isolation. After Mao's death in 1976, his successor Deng Xiaoping initiated China's Open Door Policy which gradually increased China's ties with the rest of the world.

Taiwan, an island located about 161 km off the southeast coast of Mainland China, was separated from Mainland China in 1895 by Japanese colonialism. In 1945 Taiwan reverted to China, but in 1949 separated again when the nationalist government in Mainland China was defeated by the communist forces and fled to Taiwan. Although Taiwan is widely regarded as part of Mainland China, the two societies have operated separately since 1949.

Hong Kong, located on the south coast of China, was a British colony since 1842 until the territory reverted to China in 1997. As a Special Administrative Region, the territory retains a large degree of political and economic autonomy, including its own education system.

Macao also stands at the south coast of China located about 64 km west of Hong Kong. Macao's colonial history dates back to 1557 when it came under Portuguese administration. Macao reverted to Chinese administration in 1999 on a parallel model to Hong Kong as a Special Administrative Region.

These different political histories have left legacies in the language policies of each place. Thus, while Chinese is the official language in all four states, English and Portuguese are official languages alongside Chinese in Hong Kong and Macao, respectively. Russian was a dominant language during the initial years of the People's Republic of China, but after the break up of ties between Russia and China in 1960, English has increasingly gained importance in the territory alongside other foreign languages. English has likewise largely retained its dominance as a vehicle for international academic discourse in all the four societies of Greater China.

In recent years, the political scenario within Greater China and within the world has changed. Mainland China is emerging to be a leader in world affairs and is attracting world attention. There is also increased collaboration among the four societies of Greater China, particularly after the return of sovereignty of Hong Kong and Macao to the Mainland, the greater openness of China to the world, and the relative easing of relations with Taiwan. This is reflected in the stronger and more intense scholarly collaborations among academics in Comparative Education within the region.

Comparative Education in Mainland China

The pre-history of Comparative Education in Mainland China can be traced to the scholarly works on foreign education systems of the late 19th century. After its 1840 defeat by Western forces in the first opium war, China was intent on strengthening the country in all dimensions, one of the means being through education. This motivation served as a catalyst for the study of foreign education systems. In the 1930s Comparative Education was established as a formal course at Beijing Normal University and Zhongshan University (Bray & Gui, 2001, p.454).

This phase of development was, however, disrupted first by the Japanese invasion of China in 1937, then by World War II. Comparative Education was abolished as a field of study in the 1950s after the establishment of the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949. The new government considered comparative education to be "a bourgeois pseudoscience that worshipped and had blind faith in things foreign" (Chen, 1992, p.5). Nevertheless, prior to the 1966 Cultural Revolution, the first research section of foreign education was established in 1964 in Beijing Normal University. The following year, the first journal *Educational Trends in Other Countries* was launched, and seven issues were published before the start of the Cultural Revolution (Wang, 2007).

After the death of the Chinese Communist Party leader Mao Zedong in 1976, his successor Deng Xiaoping adopted an Open Door Policy in its foreign affairs, re-establishing China's trade and cultural ties with the West. China was eager to catch up with the developed world, and Comparative Education was to serve an instrumental role in national development. This marked a renaissance of the field, with the establishment of institutes of foreign education at Beijing Normal University, East China Normal University, South China Normal University, Northeast Normal University, and some research organizations at Hangzhou University and Fujian Normal University (R.Yang, 1998, p.3). In 1979 the Chinese Comparative Education Society was established, serving as an inter-institutional nationwide society to promote the aims of Comparative Education in China (Gu & Gui, 2007). In the same year, Beijing Normal University admitted its first cohort of master's degree students in Comparative Education, and in 1985, its first doctoral student in Comparative Education. Perhaps an important impulse to the institutionalization of Comparative Education was a government policy document issued in 1980 classifying it as a sub-discipline of educational science. This catalyzed the renaming of the field and its institutions from Foreign Education to Comparative Education. By 1989, China had four institutes and 20 programmes of Comparative Education (Chen, 1994, p.233).

Further developments in the 1990s contributed to the growth of Comparative Education. In order to achieve a world-class status for its universities, the Ministry of Education in China launched Project 211 which supported targeted initiatives in 100 selected universities. In 1996 Comparative Education was designated one of the 300 core disciplines for this project, and Beijing Normal University's (BNU) International and Comparative Education Research Institute (BNU-ICERI) became a National Research Base in the Discipline of Comparative Education (BNU 2004).

The development of Comparative Education in China since the Open Door Policy era of the 1980s may be categorized into three stages. The first stage (early 1980s) consisted of the "factual introduction and description of education in foreign countries" (Gu, 2001a, p.228). The field and its institutional infrastructures were labeled 'Foreign Education'. The second stage (late 1980s) was characterized by "comparative research between China and other countries, and the application of foreign experience in China" (Gu, 2001a, p.229). A third stage in the 1990s saw a widening in the foci of analysis studied in China, previously dominated by studies on educational systems in the US, UK, France, Germany, the former USSR, and Japan. Instead, "research into the educational phenomena in peripheral countries and the problem of the localization of education" came into focus (Gu, 2003, p.228). This was mirrored in the renaming of the field in China and some of its infrastructures to Comparative and International Education (although the national professional society and its society journal did not

change their names). This name change denoted a widening of the discourse to include the work of international organizations, and the inclusion of intra- and sub-national units of comparison taken from within China (Wang, 2004; Zhao, 2004). During this period, Chinese scholars began to seriously discuss the disciplinary status of Comparative Education and methodological issues (Gu, 2004).

Comparative Education in Taiwan

Although various works (e.g. Lo, 1999) traced the historical development of Comparative Education in Taiwan back to the 1940s, a more identifiable scholarly community became visible only in the early 1970s. Concretely, in 1974 the body which in English is currently called the Chinese Comparative Education Society-Taipei (CCES-T) was founded, after a preparatory meeting was held at the College of Education of the National Taiwan Normal University in Taipei a year earlier (Chiang, 2005). According to its Constitution, the main purpose of the CCES-T is “to study current education in the important countries, to achieve international education and academic cooperation, and to promote education at home” (CCES-T, 2006). In 1982 the society launched a newsletter, which in 1997 became the Chinese-language *Journal of Comparative Education*.

As in Mainland China, the nature of the field of Comparative Education in Taiwan has changed over time. Lee (1999) analyzed journal articles written by Taiwanese scholars which could be classified under Comparative Education. His work revealed that from 1945 to 1995, the field was dominated by area studies, focusing on a single foreign country’s education system or practice, and were thus not explicitly comparative. Typically, the ‘important countries’ studied were the USA, UK, Japan, and to a lesser extent Russia, Germany and France (Lee, 1999, pp.436-441). However, after the mid-1990s, despite the continued dominance of area studies in the articles, theoretical and explicitly comparative studies both picked up. Also, Mainland China displaced the USA as the dominant research focus (Lee, 1999, pp.459-460). This trend was echoed in the work of Manzon (2005) which analyzed articles published in the CCES-T *Journal of Comparative Education* during the period 1994-2004. Among the 97 articles published during that decade, 75 percent were area studies, and 21 percent focused on comparative education theory. The top five countries investigated in the area studies were Germany, UK, PRC, USA and Japan. Also notable during the last decade was the interest given to education in developing neighbor countries in Asia. The growing interest in the PRC echoed a change in the political climate in both territories which facilitated mutual scholarly collaboration and exchange of information.

Comparative Education in Hong Kong

Hong Kong is by nature an international community and has always been outward-looking, given the small size of its territory, the nature and level of its economic development, and its political history (Bray, 1999). Thus, expertise in international comparative studies has developed in Hong Kong, even if only a limited number of researchers identify with the field as such.

Sweeting (1999, p.9) documented the early history of Comparative Education in the University of Hong Kong (HKU), the oldest university in the territory. The earliest form of comparative education courses were delivered in 1939 as part of a postgraduate diploma programme in its department of education. This was disrupted by the Japanese

occupation of Hong Kong in the 1940s and it was not until 1951 that teacher education experienced a renaissance in HKU. At this time, the pre-war postgraduate diploma course 'The Study of Comparative Education: Present Day Trends' was re-instated, but was replaced in 1953 with 'The English Educational System since 1944' and 'The History of Education of Overseas Chinese, with Special Reference to Hong Kong'. This core curricular subject remained unchanged until in 1975, when the overt reference to 'comparative study of systems of education' reappeared in official course descriptions. During this same decade, moves to institutionalize Comparative Education at the Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) were afoot. The then head of its School of Education, Cheng Tung Choy, who was educated at the University of London Institute of Education, was pivotal in the inclusion of Comparative Education as an option for the Master's degree at the CUHK (Luk, 2005).

In the 1980s, HKU's Faculty of Education started to play a major role in the cross-national studies of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) (Bray, 2004, p.14). During this period, courses on Comparative Education were offered at the postgraduate level in both HKU and CUHK. In 1989, the Comparative Education Society of Hong Kong was established and promoted greater inter-institutional collaboration in the field among scholars from Hong Kong and beyond (Wong & Fairbrother, 2007).

The maturity of the field was further marked and promoted by the establishment of the Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC) at HKU in 1994, and the Comparative Education Policy Research Unit at the City University of Hong Kong in 1999. Among the aims of CERC is "to support comparative research in education, and to disseminate information throughout the region and further afield through publications, newsletters, research activities, including seminars, symposiums, conferences, etc." (CERC, 2007). CERC's most visible products have been its publications (www.hku.hk/cerc/Publications/publications.htm). Its series *CERC Studies in Comparative Education* is co-published with Springer, and in 2007 launched a notable volume on *Comparative Education Research: Approaches and Methods* edited by Bray, Adamson & Mason (2007).

In 2005 Comparative Education was identified by the University of Hong Kong's Research Committee as one of 21 constituent themes for strategic research development. As reported in CERC's newsletter, *CERCular* (2005, Vol.10, No.2, p.2), "this meant the allocation of additional places for research postgraduate students", and seed funding to support the production of research publications in the field.

Comparative Education in Macao

Despite the natural outward-looking orientation of its citizens and its historical links with Portugal, Macao has had a limited contribution to the field of Comparative Education. As explained by Bray & Gui (2001, p.462), Macao's small population and consequently small and young university base account for this. Macao is thus brought into this chapter mainly for the sake of completeness since it is a component part of Greater China.

Macao's first modern university, then called University of East Asia, was established only in 1981; in 1991, its name was changed to University of Macau (UMAC). UMAC's Faculty of Education was formed in 1987. Located in a small territory, it had recruited teaching staff from within Greater China and did hire some specialists in Comparative Education (e.g. from Beijing, Hong Kong and Taiwan).

Among them, two had served as faculty Dean. In addition, local scholars who have studied in metropolitan centers of education abroad, and who have had an exposure to Comparative Education, have returned. These factors may well pave the way for the development of the field in the territory.

Characteristics

This section of the chapter describes the teaching of Comparative Education in each of the component societies of Greater China, focusing on courses offered in universities. Although there are other infrastructures of Comparative Education such as research institutes as well as comparative education societies, their roles and contributions are not discussed here due to space constraints. It is however worth noting that three out of the 36 member societies of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies are based in Mainland China, Hong Kong and Taiwan, respectively (Masemann, Bray & Manzon, 2007).

As a prolegomena to the following paragraphs, the models of teaching Comparative Education proposed by Walterová (see Czech chapter) are helpful. She offered three models: first, Comparative Education as a separate compulsory subject or as an optional course; second, Comparative Education as a compulsory component in the introductory course of General Education combined with History of Education; and third, Comparative Education as selected topics spread out in several courses (e.g. school policy, methodology of educational research, etc.). These models apply to teaching at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Comparative Education Courses in Mainland China

In Mainland China, the specialized teaching of Comparative Education is undertaken by institutes and programmes, most of which are in normal/teacher training universities (Chen, 1992, p.165). From the four Institutes of Comparative Education existing in Mainland China in 1989 (Chen, 1994), there were almost one hundred in 2005, including research think-tanks and other entities (Gu, 2005, p.4).

Comparative Education is taught at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. At the undergraduate level, R.Yang (1998, p.3) distinguished between normal/teacher training universities and comprehensive universities. At some normal universities, BA students majoring in Education are required to take Comparative Education on their third year; the subject is also offered as an elective to students from other specializations. By contrast, in comprehensive universities which generally do not have an Education Department, Comparative Education is offered as an elective course, usually at institutes of higher education.

At the postgraduate level, six universities offer Comparative Education at the PhD level and more than 10 colleges at the Master of Education level (Gu, 2005, p.4). Among the longstanding and prestigious institutes are the International and Comparative Education Research Institute of the Beijing Normal University (BNU-ICERI) and the Institute of Curriculum and Instruction at the East China Normal University (ECNU-ICI). The BNU-ICERI was established in 1964 as the Research Institute of Foreign Education, and acquired its present name in 1995 (BNU-ICERI, 2007a). In Shanghai, the ECNU-ICI was also established in 1964 then known as the Research Division of West European and North American Education. It was re-organized, and acquired its present name, in 1999. Although not self-evidently

comparative judging by its institutional name, the ECNU-ICI is a major player in cross-cultural curricular research in China. In 2006, the two institutes had almost 200 postgraduate students (Jiang, 2006).

Gu Mingyuan (2001b, p.240) defined the nature and purpose of comparative education in Mainland China as being

...concerned with the comparative analyses of education in different countries/regions in the contemporary world, *so that we can identify general and specific principles in educational development*. The principles can act as a *reference point for educational reform in our own country or region* [italics added].

The teaching of Comparative Education at Beijing's ICERI and Shanghai's ICI somewhat echoed the overall mission outlined by Gu. Among the main aims of ICERI were "to explore the common rules and the international trends of educational development" (BNU-ICERI, 2007a). Its dominant research foci were education systems, educational thought and theory and methodology in Comparative Education (Jiang, 2006, p.7). By contrast, among the ECNU-ICI's main purposes were "to explore and innovate theories in curriculum and instruction... and to participate in educational practice and knowledge-sharing with schools" (ECNU-ICI, 2007a). Jiang (2006) thus noted that the BNU-ICERI emphasizes theoretical inquiry and the contribution of Comparative Education to national development, while the ECNU-ICI underscores educational practice and school linkages. Both institutes however serve the function of policy advice to the government, including the drafting of major policy documents and curricula.

Bearing in mind the different thrusts of teacher education at universities in Mainland China, the following section examines a pair of course curricula at the PhD and MPhil level offered at the BNU-ICERI and ECNU-ICI. Both institutions offer Comparative Education as a specialist programme. The pertinent subjects specific or related to Comparative Education are listed in Table 2.

By way of example, the MPhil specialist course on Comparative Higher Education offered at ICERI aims to help students compare the higher education systems of the USA, Japan, France, Germany, UK, Russia, and some developing countries. Aspects examined include educational administration, staffing, international exchanges, financing, and patterns of educational development in higher education. At the PhD level, the Comparative Education course offered at ICERI "explores the history and development of the field, studying the works of individual authors; examines the development of the world's most important national educational systems and their curricula; compares education in China and the West; and studies research methodologies in comparative education" (BNU-ICERI, 2004). The foreign language component of these programmes is worth noting. The mastery of English as a first foreign language has been a top priority in China in recent decades.

R.Yang (1998) described mainstream teaching methods in Chinese universities as traditional and teacher-centered. Course contents were contained within key textbooks. Though there were specialist publications dating back to the early decades of the twentieth century (e.g. Yu, 1917), and some carried 'Comparative Education' in their titles (e.g. Chang, 1930; Chen, 1933), the first post-1949 national textbook on Comparative Education was published only in 1982 by Wang, Zhu & Gu, signaling the renaissance of the field in China. Other volumes followed (e.g. Cheng, 1987; Wu & H.Yang, 1989).

Table 2: Sample Postgraduate Comparative Education Courses in Beijing and Shanghai, China (2007)

| <i>BNU-ICERI (Beijing)</i> | <i>ECNU-ICI (Shanghai)</i> |
|---|---|
| MPhil Foundations (3 credits each): Introduction to Comparative Education, Readings in Foreign Education | MPhil Foundations (3 credits each): not explicitly comparative. |
| MPhil Specialist (3 credits each): Comparative Higher Education, Comparative Basic Education, Comparative Teacher Education, Comparative Life-long Learning, Comparative Childhood Education, Studies of Foreign Education | MPhil Specialist (3 credits each): Comparative and International Education; Comparative Education Theory and Methodology; Trends in International Education Theory |
| MPhil Electives (3 credits each): Comparative Educational Legislation Studies, Education and National Development, Cultural Tradition and Educational Modernization, Comparative Studies of Private Education, Theory and Practice of Education Reform in China and Abroad, Curriculum and Instruction in China and Abroad | MPhil Electives (2 credits each): Western Philosophy of Education; Education Reform in China and Abroad. PhD Electives (2 credits each): Trends in International Education Theory; Key Issues in International Education Sociology; Education Reform in China and Abroad; |
| PhD Specialist (2 credits each): Comparative Education, Comparative Studies of Educational Economics. | PhD Specialist (3 credits each): Comparative Education Theory and Methodology |
| Foreign Language: Requires mastery of a first foreign language, and basic knowledge of a second foreign language. | Foreign Language: first foreign language (4-5 credits); second foreign language (1 credit) |

Sources: BNU-ICERI (2007b); ECNU-ICI (2007b)

The 1982 textbook by Wang et al. had two parts: the first discussed the purposes, methodology and history of Comparative Education in the world and in China, while the second reviewed, from a comparative perspective, worldwide experiences of educational development and reform at different levels of education. The 1989 book by Wu & H. Yang added two more parts to its 1982 predecessor, namely one part dealing with education in the USSR, US, UK, Japan, France, West Germany, the PRC, and India. The other section identified the factors determining educational development following a systemic approach. New books were published since the 1990s, both by Chinese authors (e.g., Gu & Xue, 1996; Wang, 1992; C. Wang, 1999) as well as translations of Western volumes (e.g. Kandel, 2001; King, 2001), through the Comparative Education Translations Series of the People's Education Press, Beijing.

Comparative Education Courses in Taiwan

Teacher education in Taiwan is delivered at normal universities and teachers' colleges. Teachers' colleges prepared primary and kindergarten teachers, while normal universities catered to secondary education teachers (Chou & Ho, 2007). In 2007, Taiwan had nine normal universities and 73 comprehensive universities with departments of education engaged in teacher education (MOE, 2007). As in other parts of the world, courses on Comparative Education in Taiwan were offered within education programmes. Examples of specialist courses taught at two normal universities and two comprehensive universities are shown in Table 3. They are from

the National Taiwan Normal University (Taipei), National Chengchi University (Taipei), National Kaohsiung Normal University (Kaohsiung), and National Chi Nan University (Nantou).

Table 3: *Models of Teaching Comparative Education in Taiwan (2007)*

| <i>National Taiwan Normal University (NTNU)</i> | <i>National Chengchi University (NCCU)</i> | <i>National Chi Nan University (NCNU)</i> | <i>National Kaohsiung Normal University (NKNU)</i> |
|---|---|---|---|
| <p>B.Ed. -Year 3 Comparative Education (compulsory) MPhil, PhD electives (2 credits) Comparative Education Theory and Methods; Education in the USA; Education in the UK; Education in France; Education in Germany; Education in Japan; Education in Mainland China.</p> | <p>B.Ed. -Year 2 Comparative Education (elective) MPhil, PhD (2-4 credits) Comparative Education: Topical Research; Educational Development in Mainland China; Education Reforms.</p> | <p>B.Ed: 4-year degree program in international and comparative education. MA, PhD in international and comparative education</p> | <p>PhD Comparative Adult Education offered at the Graduate Institute of Adult Education.</p> |

Sources: NCCU (2007); NCNU (2007); NKNU (2007); NTNU (2007a)

Although the NCNU is the youngest among the four universities compared above, having been established only in 1995, its Graduate Institute of Comparative Education is the first of its type in Taiwan. In 2002, the Institute expanded to a Department of Comparative Education. The NCNU described itself as the only institution in Taiwan with a specific focus on International and Comparative Education. In 1995, the institute launched a master’s degree programme, a doctorate in 1998, and an undergraduate programme in 2002. In 2006, it had 200 undergraduate students and 50 postgraduate students (NCNU, 2007).

The NTNU course outline on Comparative Education taught by Wang Ru-er is taken as an example here. This elective course aimed “to cultivate the students’ comparative analytical skills, facilitate an understanding of the educational system, policy and related issues in key countries in the world, and develop a critical understanding of the social, political and cultural factors which account for regional differences in education, enabling students to evaluate trends in educational development and reforms” (NTNU, 2007b). The first two topics gave an overview of Comparative Education, its history, theories and methods. Four classes were devoted to the exploration of national educational systems, each in turn: the UK, USA, Canada, and Australia and New Zealand. Another four sessions focused on international comparisons on the following aspects: the knowledge economy and educational policy; students; teachers; and principals.

Taiwanese scholars have produced a steady stream of specialist textbooks in the field since the late 1960s (Yang, 1996, pp.199-200). These included five books authored by Lei Guoding (1967, 1968, 1974, 1978, 1979). Books that dealt with

Comparative Education theory were *Introduction to Comparative Education* (Wang, 1979), *Comparative Education* (Lin, 1983; Yang & Shen, 1996; Wang, 1999), and *International Comparative Education* (Shen, 2000). The work of Yang & Shen (1996) entitled *Comparative Education*, for example, is a 435-page volume containing five parts: an introduction to comparative education history and theory; national educational systems (Taiwan, USA, UK, France, Germany, Australia, Japan, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Mainland China); special topics for comparison; trends of education development in the 21st century examining the development of Comparative Education in Taiwan and in the world, and educational reforms at home and abroad.

Comparative Education Courses in Hong Kong

Teacher education in the territory is traditionally delivered at comprehensive universities with faculties of education (Chinese University of Hong Kong-CUHK, The University of Hong Kong-HKU) and at the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd). Also, the Hong Kong Baptist University and City University of Hong Kong offered undergraduate and postgraduate courses in education (Li & Kwo 2004). Although several academics who identified themselves with the comparativist community were working in the latter three institutions, a more vigorous and visible institutionalization of Comparative Education took place in the Faculties of Education of HKU and CUHK. Both offered specialist courses at the Master's level. In addition, the Graduate School of Education of the University of Bristol in association with the City University of Hong Kong, offered since 2000 an EdD programme taught by academics from Bristol, including several comparative education scholars. A specialist module, 'Comparative Perspectives, Globalisation and Education', was taught by Michael Crossley. The course served as an introduction to comparative and international education research and drew from the specialist literature in the field.

Lo (2005) described the initial phase of trying to establish Comparative Education as a viable field of study offering it in various forms such as educational development in Chinese societies, education in small states, education and national development. In the early 1990s, Mark Bray at HKU reported that courses of comparative education were offered at the MEd, BEd and Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PCEd) programmes (Altbach & Tan, 1996, pp.18-19). These were mainly elective courses taught by faculty members, not all of whom necessarily identified with the comparativist community. Thus, similar courses with similar names have at times been taught within the same Faculty and in the same semester. By way of example, courses offered included Analyzing Educational Reform: Comparative and Sociological Perspectives; School-based Teacher Development in Hong Kong and China; Education in the context of Globalization; Global Perspectives on Education in Hong Kong; and Understanding the Hong Kong Education System: Learning from Comparing.

Further, in 1998 HKU launched the MEd in Comparative Education followed by two successive cohorts in 2001 and 2003, under Bray's leadership. Each cohort was small, ranging from 8 to 11 students, coming mainly from Hong Kong in-service teachers, and a few overseas students. Many PhD students in the faculty have also undertaken explicitly comparative research studies (Bray, 2004, p.17).

In its 2001-03 cohort, the MEd programme in Comparative Education in HKU comprised five specialist modules: Scope and Methodology in Comparative Education; Policy and Analysis in Education: Comparative Perspectives; Comparative Studies of Curriculum Development and Reform; Culture and Schooling in a Global Society; and

Economics of Education. These specialist courses could be taken as electives by students from other MEd specialisms. Thus, the class size typically ranged from 25-40 students. The classes were a combination of lecture, small group discussion and class presentation on assigned topics. Degree completion requirements consisted in the submission of 4,000 word essays at the end of each module and a thesis at the end of the two-year programme. Some theses have been published in the CERC Monograph Series (e.g. Yamato, 2003; Manzon, 2004).

By way of illustration, the course outlines from the last cohort of the MEd in Comparative Education (2001-03) are provided in Table 4. One course was a compulsory specialist module, and the other an elective. Both courses were taught by Mark Bray, Chair Professor of Comparative Education at HKU, and were attended by the author of this article who was then an MEd student.

Table 4: *M.Ed. Comparative Education Courses in HKU (2001-03)*

| <i>Scope and Methodology in Comparative Education (specialist)</i> | <i>Comparative Study of Education Systems (elective)</i> |
|---|---|
| <p>Topics (11): Comparative education as a field of study; Paradigms and theories in comparative education; Comparative education journals: their contents and biases; Organisations and Institutions in comparative education; Quantitative studies in comparative education; Case studies of quantitative approaches: IEA Studies; Qualitative Studies in comparative education; International Agencies as producers and consumers of comparative education research: UNESCO and UNICEF, World Bank and Asian Development Bank; Pairs and Multiple Cases: Comparison of Comparisons; Conclusion: The Field and the Future.</p> | <p>Topics (11): Introduction: Identifying and comparing education systems; Cross-national and sub-national comparisons: themes and lessons; Administration and control of education systems; Case study I: Education in Macau; Equity and elitism in education systems; Case study II: Education in Mainland China; Education and Political Transition; Case Study III: Education in the UK; Shadow Education: The nature, scale and implications of private tutoring; Continuity and change in education systems; Conclusion: uses, issues and trends in comparative education.</p> |
| <p>Readings: Gu (2001c); Noah & Eckstein (1998).</p> | <p>Readings: Arnove & Torres (1999); Bray & Koo (1999)</p> |

The textbooks in the earlier MEd programmes on Comparative Education were mainly edited volumes published in the USA and the UK. Over the years, CERC published more books relevant to the Chinese context such as Gu (2001c), and Bray & Koo (2004). The latter offered a systematic comparison of Hong Kong and Macao across various levels and domains of education, as well as two chapters on methodological issues in Comparative Education. In 2007, the edited volume on *Comparative Education Research: Approaches and Methods* by Bray et al. consisted of chapter contributions mostly from scholars who worked (or had worked) in Hong Kong academia.

In 2007, HKU opened a new MEd specialism in Comparative and International Education and Development (CIED) coordinated by Mark Mason and Bjorn Nordtveit. Gauging from its new name, this programme diverged from the focus and aims of its predecessor programme in Comparative Education described above. The CIED programme offered three specialist modules on international education development, education and development in the context of globalization, and comparative education

research: approaches and methods. Unlike the earlier Comparative Education specialism, the CIED devoted only one module to comparative education offered in the second year – Comparative Education Research: Approaches and Methods – positioning it from a methodological perspective. A brief overview of the field was offered at the end of the module.

Comparative Education Courses in Macao

As noted above, Macao has a relatively small university base. Teacher education is provided by three different bodies: the University of Macau (UMAC), St. Joseph's College, and the South China Normal University in Guangzhou, China (Li & Kwo 2004). In addition, the Inter-University Institute of Macau established in 1996 offers a Master of Science in Education (IIUM, 2007). Among these institutes, UMAC's MEd in Physical Education & Sports Studies had an elective course entitled Comparative Physical Education & Sports (UMAC, 2007a). The faculty member responsible for this course received his education in the University of Sydney and is an active member of the International Society for Comparative Physical Education and Sport (ISCPES). Also, the MEd specialism in Educational Administration offered several elective courses which though not explicitly comparative in name, are related to the field, e.g. education and development and educational planning (UMAC, 2007b).

Challenges

As highlighted at the beginning of this chapter, the contours of Comparative Education in each society of Greater China are partly influenced by the wider context in which they are embedded. Language affinities also play a role in shaping the discourse. The field likewise largely owes its development to the work of the individuals who promote the field and identify with the comparativist community. The challenges discussed here thus refer to these different macro, meso and micro factors.

A challenge commonly faced by the comparative education community in Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao, as by its counterparts elsewhere, is the assertion of a specific role and identity for comparative education in the academe, particularly in an increasingly globalized and neo-liberalized world. On the one hand, globalization is associated with the ease in international travel and communications, which renders the access of information about foreign education within easy reach of many. On the other, neo-liberalism's drive for efficiency in universities has led, among others, to institutional and/or departmental mergers within faculties of education. These changes have translated into an encroachment on the specific institutional identity of Comparative Education. Comparativists in China, for example, have gradually felt the erosion of their 'privileged' position as the link with the outside world in providing much needed educational information to contribute to national development (Gu & Gui, 2007). Occasionally, 'Comparative Education' courses are becoming marginalized from the higher education curriculum, or relegated as an optional course within another specialism (e.g. educational policy). It is also not uncommon that 'Comparative Education' is implicitly present in courses taught at education faculties, mainly as an information-gathering approach (albeit non-systematic) by academics who are not specifically identified with and trained in the field. In this respect, comparativists in Greater China share the lot of their counterparts elsewhere in the world who continue to do some soul-searching to see how to keep relevant in these changing times.

The language of international scholarly discourse is another challenge faced in the region as elsewhere. The incommunicability of some parts of the world due to language differences is a hindrance to having a comprehensive and globally-inclusive picture of the field of Comparative Education. In the case of Mainland China and Taiwan, substantial ‘academic borrowing’ takes place in the form of translations of specialist publications in English, Spanish and other foreign languages into Chinese. Yet the reverse has not been substantially the case. As Altbach (2007) reported, English continues to expand its dominant share as the lingua franca in international discourse. Times are however changing: on the one hand, Chinese is becoming an increasingly popular global language, and on the other, the intellectual diaspora of Chinese scholars worldwide bodes well for widening the academic discourse.

As highlighted above, a common challenge faced by the field of Comparative Education is how to keep itself alive and relevant. This has particular resonance at the micro-level, since, as other chapters in this book have highlighted, the dynamism of Comparative Education in institutions is attributable mainly to the work of a few enthusiastic individuals who promote an explicit comparativist identity. Some critical practitioners in comparative education have pointed out the field’s lack of a substantive institutional and epistemological core (Kazamias & Schwartz, 1977; Cowen, 1990; Cook et al., 2004). In this context, the role of leadership and continuity has been crucial over the field’s history. The departure of key players from their home institution had sometimes led to the weakening or even discontinuance of teaching and research activities, particularly where there is no core group of dedicated specialists identified with the field left to continue the work (see e.g. chapter on Canada, Switzerland). The mobility of academic staff and so-called ‘changing of the guards’ also have had an indirect impact of eroding formerly strong ties across institutions. Thus while new challenges bring change and fresh perspectives, they also raise questions as to why Comparative Education remains vulnerable to such metamorphoses.

Conclusion

This chapter began by highlighting the socially contextualized nature of Comparative Education. As Cowen remarked (1990, p.333), “this social contextualization of comparative education leads to different comparative educations in different parts of the world”. These multiple comparative educations are a result of the dynamic interaction between structural context (politics, language) and human agency, referring to the efforts and achievements of individuals who promote, organize and lead the scholarly community of comparativists in each place. The ebb and flow of Comparative Education programmes discussed in this chapter demonstrates this and echoes similar patterns of change in its professional societies (Manzon & Bray, 2007). The chapter has also elucidated the different faces of teaching Comparative Education in each of the four societies comprising Greater China. Modifying the earlier cited three models of Comparative Education teaching proposed by Walterová, the comparative educations featured here can be classified in the following matrix (Table 5):

Table 5: Models of Teaching Comparative Education, by Levels

| | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| Levels of Education | Distinct C.E. Specialism | Distinct C.E. Subject: a) compulsory b) elective | Amorphous Subject |
| B.Ed. M.Ed. MPhil, PhD | | | |
| P.C. Ed. | | | |
| | n.a. | | |

Note: n.a. – Not applicable; C.E. – Comparative Education

First, Comparative Education may take the form of a distinct specialist programme of studies at the undergraduate, Master's and doctoral levels. Second, it may be taught as a subject distinctively called or classifiable as 'Comparative Education' at all levels of teacher education, including the postgraduate certificate level; in these cases, it may be a compulsory or an elective course. Finally, Comparative Education might be offered as an 'amorphous' subject, that is, the comparative or international perspective may be adopted within bigger thematic or disciplinary groupings of subjects (e.g. school policy, education reform, etc.). In this latter category, it might also be treated as an integral component of research methods or a general approach to educational issues.

As this chapter has described, the status and location of Comparative Education in Greater China is patchy, and in some places, rather obscure. Some parts of Mainland China (e.g., Beijing and Shanghai) and a few universities in Taiwan exhibit a robust and dynamic scenario of teaching Comparative Education at its higher education institutes. Hong Kong has maintained teaching activity albeit slightly reshaped as in HKU's CIED programme.

With the increasing integration of the component societies of Greater China, especially Mainland China, into the world system, and the heightened international interactions taking place in their higher educational systems, comparativists in the region face new challenges in their work. The existence of structured programmes in Comparative Education particularly in Mainland China and Taiwan offer an anchor of stability in the preparation of new generations of comparative education scholars in the region. Moreover, the strong and prestigious publication and networking activity of the Comparative Education Research Centre in Hong Kong will keep the region on comparative education's global map in the years to come. Thus, while this article gave a separate treatment of the individual societies comprising Greater China, it concludes on a hopeful note pointing in the direction of greater collaboration and integration among the four societies. It is hoped that in this way, Greater China will not only emerge as a significant player in world affairs, but also in the global affairs of Comparative Education.

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Dr. Maria Manzon
Comparative Education Research Centre
The University of Hong Kong
e-mail: manzon@hku.hk

Comparative Education at Universities in Japan

Hisao Takekuma

History of Comparative Education as a Field

Early Traces of Comparative Education: Pre-Institutionalization Period

The oldest representative comparative research in education, *Riji kotei*, was done by Fujimaro Tanaka (1845-1909) with the assistance of Joh Neesima (1843-1890) in the early Meiji Period of Japan. Tanaka was a high-ranking government official in education and is regarded as a pioneer of Japanese comparative education research. *Riji kotei* (Tanaka, 1873-75) was a compilation of country-reports on the USA, UK, France, Germany, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, Denmark, and Russia, juxtaposing main features of their educational systems. The study aimed at utilizing the ideas and knowledge gained from other countries for Japanese administrative reforms. Later on, this book was made available to the public for reference (Kobayashi, 1974).

Prior to this work, Japan already had a long history of cultural exchanges with China and East Asia since the 9th century. Moreover, Medieval Japan saw the importation of state-of-the art practices from European countries through religious missions and commercial trade. But those previous educational absorptions from the study of foreign countries were disseminated only to limited sectors and not to the public system at large.

Travel reports of individuals and study delegations continued throughout the Meiji Period to the Second World War. One of the great works was a 46-volume research series on the trend of overseas educational thoughts, published between 1927 and 1948 by the Study Group of Educational Thought in the Research Room of Education, Tokyo Imperial University. These reports exerted a strong influence on Japanese national education policies and provisions. Moreover, they ushered in an academic dimension to the study of foreign education systems. The ground was thus laid for the study of Comparative Education in Japan.

The early lectures on Comparative Education at Japanese universities seem to have taken place in the 1920s. They did not have the name 'comparative' on them but were incorporated into general subjects such as education or pedagogy, which were taught at Faculties of Literature as a humanities subject. At that time, universities in Japan preferred the pure sciences to the applied ones, thereby excluding such fields as Comparative Education from the formal subjects of the course.

As the number of successive compilations of foreign country reports grew, the contents of those early lectures became more fertile. University teachers who were initially interested in educational reform or theory of education started to name their courses 'The Study of Educational Systems'. Interest gradually shifted to Comparative Education as a study.

The emergence of great books on comparative education studies in Western countries caught the attention of Japanese educationalists and researchers. A professor of Tokyo Imperial University, Shigetaka Abe, first introduced the name 'Comparative Education' to the Japanese educational society in 1918 (Kobayashi, 1979). Around the 1920s (through the Taisho Period: 1912-1926), Choichi Higuchi, Ken-ichi Hida, and

many educational researchers were given opportunities to visit European and American education offices to gather valuable materials. Hida made an acquaintance with two comparative educationalists at Columbia University, USA: Paul Monroe and Isaac L. Kandel. Higuchi and Hida were also professors of the Tokyo Higher Normal School. It was recorded that Hida gave there a lecture on 'The Recent Trend of Education in Europe and the USA' in 1929. Also Higuchi wrote a book in Japanese entitled *Comparative Education* in 1928 based on his overseas experiences. Higuchi's introductory book did not intend to juxtapose several education systems, but to serve as an explanatory research book. It was organized into educational topics such as academic education, vocational education, compulsory education, co-education, teacher education, and so forth to allow for 'problem comparisons', rather than for a holistic understanding of each country's educational system (Higuchi, 1928). Moreover, the book also explored some educational problems and prospects, under the prism of various research methodologies. From his enunciation of the book's introduction, it is noticeable that he was influenced by the writings of Nicholas Hans, Isaac L. Kandel and Peter Sandiford. Higuchi's book and subsequent publications (e.g. Higuchi, 1936) were written for the use of researchers and educationalists, but it might also have been used as a textbook at the university level.

During the 1930s, Comparative Education was acknowledged as an academic field in some universities and normal schools. 'Comparative Educational Systems' as a teaching subject was first introduced in literature departments at Tokyo University in 1938 (Umakoshi, 2007). There is also evidence that at Kyushu University, Masunori Hiratsuka (1907-1981), who later became the first president of the Japan Comparative Education Society and a former Director of Education UNESCO, used Hans' *The Principles of Educational Policy* (1929) as a textbook for the first seminar for undergraduate students. This was when he took up the Chair of Education in the Department of Literature and Law in 1944 (Hiratsuka, 1985).

Establishment of the Chair in Comparative Education as a New Disciplinary Field

After the Second World War, the antagonistic national tide that enveloped Japanese society was overturned, and a new democratic atmosphere began to surround the academic world and universities. Enlightened professors, reflecting on the hard lessons learned from an era of imperialism and exclusive nationalism, started to play an active role in educational reforms and increasingly undertook comparative studies.

Many researchers and teachers appeared in the field of Comparative Education at this time. At Tokyo, Kyoto, and Kyushu National Universities, formerly imperial universities, and at the Tokyo and Hiroshima Universities of Education, some Pedagogy professors were oriented toward comparative study. Comparative Education was becoming recognized as a popular research field in academic circles of education.

The first chair of Comparative Education was established at Kyushu University in 1952. Masuko Otake was invited by Masunori Hiratsuka, the first director of the Faculty of Education, to be the lecturer in-charge of the Comparative Education course in the undergraduate program. Otake was the first female teacher in Kyushu University and might have been the first female teacher of Comparative Education in Japan. She received her PhD from Yale University and her research field was on Philippine education. Subsequently, The Research Institute of Comparative Education and Culture was founded also at Kyushu University in 1955, which was attached to the Faculty of Education. This research institution was very influential among undergraduate and

graduate students of education. Staff members jointly undertook multidisciplinary research projects in Europe, America and in Asia which made a wide impact not only on comparative education, but also on other academic fields like educational anthropology and educational sociology.

The new field of Comparative Education increasingly took root in other Japanese universities. Hiroshima University founded the chair of Comparative Education in 1953, and Kyoto University in 1965, held by Professor Susumu Ikeda. Tokyo University followed in 1967 and Nagoya University in 1995. Unfortunately, however, no other new chairs or institutes of Comparative Education have been established since then.

Soon after the university chairs of Comparative Education were established, a prolific activity of translation of Western authored books into Japanese and the publication of Japanese authored introductory books about world education or comparative research ensued (e.g. Ikeda, 1969). In the process, eminent researchers and professors learned the contemporary situation of overseas education and state-of-the-art research methods from Japanese and Western authors.

Some universities which did not have the subject name of Comparative Education in its own courses allocated subjects such as 'Foreign Education Study' in the teacher training program or in the foundation courses of the educational sciences. As a result, Comparative Education was taught through the study of western educational systems and educational thought. Takao Ando, a professor of Tokyo University of Education (presently Tsukuba University), started to give lectures or seminars on Comparative Education in his course on educational policy since 1950 (Ando, 1965). This approach spread to other Universities of Education throughout the country and produced a large number of students who were interested in Comparative Education. This trend led to making the field of Comparative Education more fertile and recognized within educational circles.

As interest in Comparative Education grew and the number of researchers increased, the time became ripe for the creation of a professional society of comparative educators. Thus, the Japan Comparative Education Society (JCES) was founded in 1965, under the leadership of Masunori Hiratsuka. (For a history of the JCES, see Saito, 2004; Ninomiya, 2007.) The JCES is one of the five founding member societies of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies established in 1970. This fact together with the Japanese publication of *The Encyclopedia of World Education* in 1972 and its revised and enlarged second edition, as well as JCES' hosting of the 4th World Congress of Comparative Education Societies in Tokyo in 1980, attest to the dynamism of the Japanese comparative education community during this period.

Expansion and Diversification of Comparative Education

The expansion of Comparative Education to universities required training more researchers in graduate programs. In many cases at Japanese universities, each academic course normally had its own 'Research Room' that consisted of one professor and/or one associate professor and students. Some research rooms had a unique apprenticeship style as a training tradition. It was a somewhat authoritarian system on the inside and exclusive to the outside, taking such metaphors as 'octopus trap', 'a fractionalization of the research room' or an 'ivory tower' to describe it. This convention has continued to this day and has also impacted on comparative education.

Within such a climate, each university created its unique research perspective and atmosphere. As a result, Comparative Education developed in various directions.

At the undergraduate level, Comparative Education was generally taught either as a basic subject for pre-service teachers or as one of the liberal arts subjects. On the other hand, at a dozen of the major universities, Comparative Education was taught for the preparation of educational researchers. This type of Comparative Education subject was given either in lectures or in seminars, conducted mainly by reading introductory textbooks which were translated or written by Japanese researchers. The subject was usually offered to students taking the course of educational research. At the more specialized Comparative Education seminars, teachers used original foreign textbooks or documents collected from foreign countries, mainly from the UK, USA, or the country of their expertise.

At the graduate level, the students of Comparative Education were usually young researchers who hoped to study abroad in the duration of the program or as a postgraduate. Students who were interested in foreign countries could start with a country study then proceed to comparative study; others could commence by analyzing educational issues and learning a foreign language, as a preparation for undertaking a (foreign) country case study.

Two research approaches were in use in Japanese academia: the Problem Approach, which engaged in international comparisons of educational problems, and the Area Approach, which aimed at gaining a holistic understanding of a targeted geographic area. Given their interdisciplinary nature, both approaches came to be shared across closely related areas in Departments of Education, especially educational administration, teaching methods, philosophy, history, and other educational sciences. This prevalence permitted such fields to conduct simple comparative studies without due regard for context. As a result, a misunderstanding and misuse of the comparative approach in education threatened the identity of Comparative Education as an independent field within Japanese universities. Under these circumstances, Comparative Education tended to confine itself to area studies as a means to emphasize the importance of context and criticize superficial comparisons.

The Present State of Comparative Education at Japanese Universities

Some leading comparative education researchers in Japan who were members of the JCES conducted surveys about teaching Comparative Education (e.g. Umakoshi, 1987; Kubota, 1993; JCES Editorial Secretariat, 1999; Ninomiya, Sato & Kanai, 2006). This section describes the current state of comparative education teaching in Japan drawing on those survey reports as well as on the author's analysis of course syllabi gathered through the Internet in 2007-08.

Institutional Infrastructure

In Japan, *Kouza* as an 'academic chair' means the place for teaching that is appointed to a teacher and is accompanied by some subjects which are recognized as constructing an academic field in an undergraduate program. In graduate programs *Kouza* as a 'course' means the place where the teacher both teaches and does research in his or her common research room, in addition to the first meaning as an academic chair. In the case of those teachers who hold subjects related to Comparative Education in both undergraduate and graduate levels, such courses can provide, through a variety

of teachers and accumulated resources, a desirable environment for students. However, these optimal situations are limited to a few major universities. The system and the name of *Kouza* are now disappearing gradually under the new standards for university governance.

Place in Undergraduate Programs

Comparative Education is taught as a liberal education subject to all students of the university either as a subject in teacher training programs (compulsory or not), or as a specialized subject in the Department of Educational Sciences. In general, Comparative Education and related subjects are taught by a comparative education specialist. Because these subjects are cross-disciplinary, liberal education and teacher training programs need not only a comparative education specialist but also a teacher with expertise in a foreign language or area study. Except for some specialized courses explicitly named 'Comparative Education', subjects associated with the field tend to take diverse forms as comparative culture, comparative higher education, international education, international understanding, intercultural education, international cooperation of education, among others.

The aims of Comparative Education teaching are diverse depending on each course and its context. For example, in a teacher training program, Comparative Education subjects are located as part of an 'education for international understanding' subject, which is recognized more in circles of school teachers and administrators. Within liberal education, Comparative Education as a subject emphasizes knowledge-based information for widening one's view; hence, it tends to serve as an introduction to a series on overseas education.

On the other hand, in specialist courses, the aims of Comparative Education subjects are investigative and theoretical so as to train and educate prospective researchers. Students have an opportunity to learn various aspects of Comparative Education from a general overview to specific methods. In such a course, almost all students are required to write graduation theses on themes of their choice.

Curricula and methods are also multiple. Lectures are mainly divided into two types of curricula. The general study of Comparative Education commences with a discussion of its aims, history, and methods, followed by an introduction to and an explanation of some major countries. It concludes with a comment on the field's prospects and a summary applying the comparative method.

The lectures on particular topics are elaborated on depending on whether it is an area or a problem study. Especially for the introduction to overseas education, teachers are required to use photos, slides, and multimedia recordings from field research or from broadcasting programs. Seminars are held to read introductory books or journal articles on overseas education or Comparative Education, and discuss educational issues and methods. Each student is required to present on an assigned reading, supplemented by personal study sometimes through the Internet. Most of these curricula tend to deal with educational systems, policies, reforms, primary and secondary education, and the present and past history of foreign countries. An overseas field study tour is adopted in several universities in order to foster students' interest.

Textbooks of Comparative Education were mainly current Japanese books and translations of Western research books. Whenever necessary, overseas books were used in their original language.

Place in Graduate Programs

Generally there are two-year Master's programs and three-year Doctoral programs at the graduate level in Japan. In the past, there were only a limited number of universities that offered graduate programs on Comparative Education, especially at the PhD level. Nowadays, the pressures of the corporatization of universities and the restructuring of graduate education require Comparative Education to cover interdisciplinary studies or practical studies. As a result, traditional universities insisting on orthodoxy face a paradoxical dilemma. On the other hand, the expansion of graduate education has produced another avenue for training researchers in related interdisciplinary fields that are not necessarily in Comparative Education. New graduate courses associated with and close to Comparative Education are mushrooming in private and public universities.

Graduate courses that specialize in Comparative Education emphasize a combination of area studies and methodological studies in order to complete the Ph.D. dissertation. Graduate students are also encouraged to study abroad. Recently, this course has been receiving more foreign students from various countries, especially from Mainland China.

The aims of Comparative Education teaching are to train comparative education researchers on a theme. Master's and Doctoral students need to submit a thesis at the end of their candidature. They are required to conduct research, overseas research if possible, for completion of their thesis. Most classes are in the form of seminars with the aim of deepening students' cognition of the task, learning of research methods, and acquiring necessary skills depending on their chosen theme. Generally, publication of a Ph.D. candidate's paper in the JCES journal or a distinguished international journal is a prerequisite for writing the Ph.D. dissertation.

Curricula and methods are developed according to the topics such as the global trend of comparative education, methodological problems, urgent issues in education, field research methods, among others. Every participant in the seminar must give a presentation on an assigned article and discuss it with others under the guidance of the teacher. Besides the seminar, they should also regularly report on their research progress and receive advice on how to organize their research and complete their thesis. Some of them are fortunate to be able to gain valuable experience from participation in scholarly research projects.

As for **Textbooks**, the latest Japanese and foreign research books, journal articles, and documents from overseas countries are mainly used.

Conclusion

Comparative Education in Japan started from a bureaucratic and nationalistic base for the purpose of pragmatic educational borrowing to serve the needs and interests of the state. After a period of translation and assimilation of knowledge on Western institutions, ethos, intellectual styles, instructional methods, and methodological studies, Comparative Education became institutionalized in Japanese universities in recognition of its pragmatic contribution to education reforms. Introductory textbooks and research works on Comparative Education based on local as well as Western approaches were published. A professional society, the Japan Comparative Education Society, was established in the 1960s and has, throughout these four decades, served to

unite a visible community of scholars and practitioners working in the field. Comparative Education thus had disciplinary features in Japanese academia.

At present, however, Comparative Education at universities in Japan is swaying between pragmatism – with its aim of efficiency and practical cooperation with other international educational agencies – and academism – with its pursuit of ‘pure’ science, methodology, and inquiry on educational phenomena. Comparative Education in Japan remains to withstand the challenge of establishing a new academic direction within the current context of globalization and privatization of university governance.

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Associate Prof. Dr. Hisao Takekuma
Kyushu University
Faculty of Human Environment Studies
Fukuoka, Japan
e-mail: takumedu@mbox.nc.kyushu-u.ac.jp

Comparative Education at Universities in the Republic of Kazakhstan

Askarbek Kussainov & Kulamergeren Mussin

History of Comparative Education as a Scientific Field in Kazakhstan

The history of Comparative Education in Kazakhstan is traditionally divided into three periods. The first is a period of ‘borrowing’, when the main attention was paid to collecting, classifying and describing foreign pedagogical experience. It lasted up to the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century. The development of the education system in Kazakhstan at that time was determined by the great influence of scientists’ creative work such as Ibray Altynsarin (1841–1889) – a pedagogue, teacher, writer and folklorist (Sitdykov, 1968), Magzhan Zhumabayev (1893–1938) – a writer, poet, publicist, and one of the founders of innovative Kazakh literature (Abiev et al., 2004), Saken Seifullin (1894–1939) – a public figure and statesman, writer and poet, and founder of Kazakh literature (Kirabayev, 1973), Mukhtar Auesov (1897–1961) – a writer, scientist, pedagogue, public figure, and a person who had encyclopedic knowledge and erudition (Abiev, et al, 2004), and many others.

The second period covers the second half of the 20th century. It was characterized by the abandonment of mechanical educational transfer and the growing importance given to creating a theoretical base for Comparative Education, as well as to the examination of the cultural, historical and social conditions of the countries explored. Researchers from the USA consider this stage as the period of ‘prognostication’, because this function of Comparative Education began to develop and become salient. With the help of comparative analysis, attempts at offering prognostic recommendations concerning the possibility (or impossibility) of transferring educational experiences from one country to another were made through a study of the achievements and errors of education systems, and testing of what might happen if some components or the whole system were transplanted into other contexts. The main lesson derived from these studies was that even in countries with relatively identical conditions of socio-economic and political development, there is always a national specificity which influences the adopted experience, and in many cases determines its success or failure. Scholars and educationists of this period in Kazakhstan include: V. Khrapchenkov (1997), I. Sembayev (Abiev et al., 2004), K. Berzhanov & S. Mussin (1984), and others. Among the notable scholars who lived at that time in Kazakhstan but later moved to Russia were N. Belkanov (1994) and A. Dzhurinsky (1998).

The third period of the development of Comparative Education in Kazakhstan spanned the end of the 20th century to the beginning of the 21st century. This is a period of scientific investigations which takes precedence over the stages of borrowing and prognostication, raising the level of their reliability and value. During this period the number of publications on Comparative Education has been growing in the scientific literature of Kazakhstan, primarily through the contribution of A. Kussainov, K. Mussin, G. Nurgalieva and others. The first theses for the Doctor’s degree were defended during this period: N. Safarov (1993) studied progressive ideas and experiences of folk pedagogies in Uzbekistan; A. Kussainov followed in 1996

(Kussainov, 1997) with a comparison of the education systems of Germany and Kazakhstan; Sh. Sharapov (1997) examined the pedagogical system of high school students training in the Republic of Tajikistan. K. Mussin (1999) compared systems of teachers' training in Kazakhstan, Russia, Great Britain and USA; Z. Kenesarina (2000) explored the socialization of pupils in the USA; and V. Kim (2000) examined higher education in Kyrgyzstan. Candidate theses devoted to various problems of Comparative Education include: A. Iskakova (1998), R. Turyszhanova (2002), Zh. Tlesh (2003), A. Kalieva (2004), G. Alikhankyzy (2004), Zh. Baigozhina (2006), and others. The following textbooks were published during this period: *Introduction to Comparative Education* (Belkanov, 1994), *Education Development in Kazakhstan and Germany* (Kussainov, 1997), *Comparative Education* (Nurgalieva, Kussainov & Mussin, 1999), *Education Development: problems and perspectives* (Kussainov, 2005), and *Reforms and Education* (Kussainov, 2006), among others.

The Council on Comparative Education of Kazakhstan (CCEK) was established in 2005, and was admitted to the World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES) in March 2006. CCEK's leaders actively took part in the activities of the WCCES Executive Committee, particularly its founding president, A. Kussainov, and Vice-President, K. Mussin. Kazakh scholars also participated in the international conferences organized by Comparative Education societies in the USA (Hawaii, USA, 2006), Europe (Granada, Spain, 2006; Sofia, Bulgaria, 2007; Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2007), and Asia (Hong Kong, China, 2007; Taiwan, 2007). Among the conference papers presented were Kussainov & Mussin, 2006a; Kussainov & Mussin, 2006b; Mussin et al., 2006; Kussainov, Naby & Makhanova, 2007; Jamankulova & Mussin, 2007; Kussainov & Kussainova, 2007a; Mussin, Orazakynkyzy & Bozjigitova, 2007; Kussainov & Naby, 2007; Kussainov & Kussainova, 2007b; Mussin et al., 2007a; Mussin, Orazakynkyzy, Bozjigitova, & Tokusheva, 2007; and Mussin, Baimuldina, Dusebaeva & Kalmukhanbetova, 2007.

Present State: Institutional Infrastructure, Aims and Methods

Comparative Education in Kazakhstan is an independent field of pedagogical science, having its own subject, object, aims and goals of investigation. Comparative Education analyzes the state, principles and tendencies of pedagogical theory and practice in different countries of the world and different historical eras. It determines types, ways and limits of transferring international experience of education and school practice, and offers scientific prognostication of future models of training and teaching in the country.

The aim of Comparative Education in Kazakhstan is to improve training and teaching in the country on the basis of analyzing international experience in pedagogies and school practice. Comparative Education's goals are rather wide-ranging because it can essentially examine all problems of pedagogies and its fields. Methodological principles observed in Comparative Education have objective, complex and system character. The methodological uses of Comparative Education include explanation, prognostication and policy transfer.

The formation of Comparative Education as an academic discipline in Kazakhstani universities took place after the country gained independence in 1991, particularly during the transition of the higher education system to a multi-stage form of training (Baccalaureate – Master's degree), and the popularization of the 'teacher-psychologist'

profession. This discipline was included in the curricula of Master's programs for teacher training. This period of Comparative Education development is characterized as a period of preparing teaching aids – curricula, syllabus, educational resources, printed and electronic textbooks. Since 2000, Comparative Education has become a compulsory academic discipline at teacher training universities at the baccalaureate level, particularly for the specializations of 'teacher-psychologist', and 'teacher of foreign languages'.

Comparative Education teaching is based on the principles of active training. Great attention is paid to students' independent work. Within the bounds of this work, students prepare and present course papers, diploma projects, and a Master's thesis on comparative education problems. The main point in teaching is not only to provide students some general information on this field of science, but also to form skills on how to compare education systems and their component parts, and how to carry out research in Comparative Education. Programs of Comparative Education include not only the subject, goals, functions, and main directions of investigations, but also themes providing abundant information about methods and criteria of exploring comparative education issues.

Conclusion

In the era of globalization and integration taking place in education worldwide, an important role belongs to Comparative Education as an academic discipline. Not only does it allow future specialists to explore the tendencies of further development of national education systems and their entry into the world education community, but it also stimulates the preservation of national uniqueness, while fostering feelings of mutual respect and solidarity in a community of nations.

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Prof. Dr. Ped. Sc. Askarbek Kussainov
President of Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of Kazakhstan
President of the Council on Comparative Education of Kazakhstan
Almaty, Kazakhstan
e-mail: kusainov_apnk@mail.ru

Prof. Dr. Ped. Sc. Kulamergen Mussin
Vice-President of the Council on Comparative Education of Kazakhstan
Chairholder of the UNESCO Chair on Science of Education and Teacher Training in Kazakh
National Pedagogical University named after Abai, Almaty, Kazakhstan
e-mail: kulamergenms@mail.ru

Comparative Education in Teacher Education in Korea

Elisa L. Park & Kyung S. Hyun

Elisa L. Park (primary) & Kyung S. Hyun (secondary)

History of Comparative Education in Korea

Comparative Education as a field of study in the Republic of (South) Korea has a relatively short history that would be better understood within the context of historical developments in education in general. The study of education was first introduced at the Department of Literature in Seoul National University, the first national university in Korea, established in 1946. The educational field in Korean universities started to grow rapidly after the liberation from Japan in 1945. During the period of the US military administration (1945-1948), the American educational model was implemented and a large number of schools including higher education institutions were established both in private and public (national) sectors under this model. A large number of US-educated Korean scholars also returned home with their knowledge and experiences and adopted the US model into the Korean educational system.

During the postcolonial period of the 1950s and the early 1960s, the Korean government introduced various educational policies, expanding the level of support to provide more educational services to the public. Education was considered as a basic foundation in an effort to advance society and to further improve personal welfares. This overall atmosphere lifted Korean people's enthusiasm for education and created high demands for educational opportunities.

Along with the expansion in education, teacher education began to be emphasized in order to fill the increasing number of vacancies of qualified teachers. The teacher education and training system and its curriculum were initially in a simple form with a narrow selection of majors and a short list of available courses. A few majors were offered at teachers colleges such as English education, science education, math education and history education, and educational majors such as educational philosophy, educational psychology and educational sociology at departments of education. However, a growing number of students enrolled in the education field eventually instigated additional demand for more volumes and variety in majors and curriculum. Comparative education was introduced as an elective course in this time of incremental change.

It is difficult to trace back to the exact date of commencement of Comparative Education teaching in Korean universities due to a lack of data. However, it is possible to approximate the initiating date as around the early 1950s and gradually expanding during the 1960s. There is a record that a Comparative Education course was offered at the Department of Education at Yonsei University in 1953 (Lee and Kwon, 2007, p.184). Course offerings also expanded to other universities, such as Seoul National University, SungKyunKwan University, and Ewha Womans University, distinguished for the long history of their departments of education and teachers colleges. The graduate schools of education also started to offer Comparative Education courses mainly for educational administration majors in the 1960s (Lee, 1996). The first book

in comparative education was published in 1961 entitled *Comparative Education*, written by Han Y. Rim who was a professor at Yonsei University.

Another validating record for the expansion of Comparative Education in Korea is the establishment of the Korean Comparative Education Society (KCES) in 1968, which was a direct response to the constantly increasing need and interest in the Comparative Education field. Professors and researchers in higher education institutions, who were individually involved in instructing and researching comparative education, gathered their academic needs and personal reports and finally promulgated the opening of the KCES (KCES, 1994).

Development of the Korean Comparative Education Society (KCES)

The Korean Comparative Education Society held its inaugural meeting at the Korea UNESCO House on 24th February 1968, having its first president Hyung-Jin Yoo. Throughout its forty years of service, the society has been addressing these aims: exchanging global educational information, establishing networks with foreign educators and researchers, and opening Korean education to the world. It has organized over 170 society conferences and seminar meetings and has more than 400 society members (Lee and Kwon, 2007, p.186).

The KCES, as one of the five founding members of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES) alongside the societies of the USA, Europe, Canada, and Japan, has also been actively involved in sponsoring international symposium and researches in collaboration with the WCCES (KCES, 1994). The KCES hosted the pre-Congress for the 4th World Congress of Comparative Education Societies in Seoul, Korea in 1980. This international event became a valuable chance to refresh international interests about Korea and its education and also a great stimulus for further development of the KCES. The pre-Congress hosted researchers and scholars from 36 countries and was honoured with the presence of prominent scholars. On its 25th year, the KCES held an international conference in 1993, welcoming scholars from 7 Asian countries, which served as a seedbed for the establishment of the Comparative Education Society of Asia (CESA) in 1995. Another major international conference sponsored by the KCES was the 11th World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, entitled 'New Challenges and New Paradigms: Moving Education into the 21st Century,' which attracted 400 researchers and scholars from 38 countries in 2001.

The journal of the KCES first started with the name *World Culture and Education* in 1971, and was renamed as *Korean Journal of Comparative Education* in 1992. It was registered as an authorized scientific journal, approved by the Korea Research Foundation (KRF) in 2001 and has issued 17 volumes with 350 articles published as of December 2007.

It is true that the KCES, as a single society in comparative education in Korea, has enormously contributed to the development of the Comparative Education field in Korea. With extensive research and projects provided to the academe and its passionate vigor in acquiring competent young scholars with the support of senior professors, the society will continue to occupy a central role in the developmental history of Comparative Education in Korea.

Teacher Education and Training System in Korea

How much leeway Comparative Education courses have in teacher education is closely related to the system of teacher education and its curriculum structure. In Korea, there is a bilateral system for teacher education and training regulated by the government both at public (national) and private higher education institutions. High school students who wish to become secondary school teachers have two options: 1) entering a university that has a teachers college and majoring in any educational field such as math education and English education, or 2) entering a university, majoring in any field such as economics and engineering and taking a Teacher Training Program (if the program is available at the university).

Students who enroll in a teachers college should take a minimum of 42 credits in their educational majors and at least 20 credits in teacher training courses. Students in other majors but pursuing the Teacher Training Program (TT Program) at the same time should also take a minimum of 20 credits from the TT Program. Only the top 5-10% students in GPA are eligible to apply to the TT Program and completion of the required TT Program coursework provides the Second Level of Teacher's Certificate (SLTC)¹.

Requirements in the TT Program, slightly varying across universities, generally consist of the following 10 courses (2 credits each): Introduction to Education, Educational Psychology, Educational Philosophy and History, Curriculum and Educational Evaluation, Educational Sociology, Educational Methods and Technology, Subject-Related Teaching Methods and Research, Educational Administration and Management, Research and Theories for Subject Materials, and Teaching Practice (list from the TT Program curriculum at Yonsei University in Seoul, Korea).

Not many elective courses are offered in the TT program. Even though there are some choices, not much interest remains for the elective courses because students already reach the minimum required credits -20 credits- of the TT Program by taking all 10 required courses. Comparative education courses are mostly given at the introductory level as electives and further in-depth discussions and research become available at the graduate level. However, since neither the graduate school of education nor the graduate school of teachers' education has Comparative Education as an independent major, the courses in the Comparative Education field are still limited in number and variety.

Besides the bilateral formation in the undergraduate level, there is another type of university mainly designed for elementary school teachers' education and training: the university of education. There are a total of twelve such national institutions in South Korea that offer 4-year undergraduate programs. At the graduate level, the graduate school of teachers' education is another opportunity for students who wish to shift to teaching. The requisite credits and courses are similar to the composition of the TT program in the undergraduate level and thus, the situation regarding the course

¹ Students with SLTC become eligible to apply for teaching positions at private secondary schools. To become a public secondary school teacher, students who obtained SLTC must also take a Teacher's Qualification Examination, which is held nationwide annually in December. The First Level of Teachers' Certificate (FLTC) is given after several years of on-the-job training and enables eligibility for administration position at school.

offerings, including tepid demands for Comparative Education, is similar with the above.

Current State of Comparative Education Teaching in Korea

To grasp the current state of Comparative Education teaching in Korea both at the undergraduate and graduate levels, e-mail and telephone surveys were conducted in 2007 at 258 colleges and departments of education. The program directors, the department managers, and the relevant lecturers were contacted to gauge the current situation on the following aspects of 1) places in undergraduate/graduate where Comparative Education courses are available, 2) aims of Comparative Education teaching, 3) curricula, 4) titles of courses, 5) textbooks, 6) teaching methods and 7) problematic issues and suggestions.

Places in Undergraduate/Graduate Programs

There are a total of 188 four-year higher education institutions in Korea: 36 national (including 12 universities of education), 150 private and 2 public (Education Statistics, 2006; 2007). Among the 188 universities, 124 (66%) universities (35 national and 89 private) have education majors in the department of education or teachers college at the undergraduate level. For the graduate level, 134 (71%) universities (35 national and 99 private) have teacher education and training programs at the graduate level (see Table 1).

Among the 124 universities that have education majors at departments of education or teachers colleges at the undergraduate level, 42 (34%) universities are providing Comparative Education courses (16 national and 26 private institutions). And among the 134 universities where teachers' education and training programs are available in their graduate level, 61 (46%) universities are providing Comparative Education courses (20 national and 41 private). This quantitative data is summarized in Table 2, while Table 3 lists the names of universities with Comparative Education courses.

Table 1: Number of Universities with Teacher Education

| Undergraduates | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-----|---------------------------------------|------------------|
| National | 36: | specialty | 1 | | - |
| | | university of education | 12 | | 12 |
| | | national | 23: | department of education | 11 |
| | | | | teachers college | 12 |
| Private | 150: | | | department of education | 58 |
| | | | | teachers college | 31 |
| Public | 2 | | | | - |
| Total | 188 (100%) | | | | 124 (66%) |
| Graduates | | | | | |
| | | | | graduate school of teachers education | |
| National | 36: | specialty | 1 | | - |
| | | university of education | 12 | | 12 |
| | | national | 23 | | 23 |
| Private | 150: | | | | 99 |
| Public | 2 | | | | - |
| Total | 188 (100%) | | | | 134 (71%) |

Table 2: Number of Universities with Comparative Education Course(s)

| Undergraduates | | Total | course available |
|--|----------|--------------|-------------------|
| Universities that have department of education | national | 11 | 2 |
| | private | 58 | 10 |
| Universities that have teachers college | national | 12 | 8 |
| | private | 31 | 16 |
| Universities of education | national | 12 | 6 |
| | | total | 124 (100%) |
| | | | 42 (34%) |
| Graduates | | | |
| Graduate schools of teachers' education | national | 23 | 12 |
| | private | 99 | 41 |
| Graduate schools of teachers' education at universities of education | national | 12 | 8 |
| | | total | 134 (100%) |
| | | | 61 (46%) |

Table 3: List of Universities with Comparative Education Course(s)

Undergraduates

Departments of Education

National (2):

ChungNam National University
Mokpo National University

Private (10):

AnYang University
ChongShin Univesity
DongEui University
KangNam University
KookMin University
Kwangju University
SeJong University
SoonChunHyang University
Yonsei University
YoungDong University

Teachers Colleges

National (8):

CheJu National University
ChonNam National University
ChungBuk National University
GyeongSang National University
Kangwon National University
Konhju National University
Pusan National University
Seoul National University

Private (16):

ChungAng University
DongGuk University
Ewha Womans University
HongIk University
InHa University
JinJu International University
Keimyung University
Korea University
Kyungnam University
Sangmyung University
Seowon University
SiLa University
SungKyunKwan University
SungShin Women's University
WonKwang University
WooSuk University

Universities of Education

National (6):

| | |
|---|--|
| Busan National University of Education | ChungCheon National Univ. of Education |
| CheongJu National University of Education | DaeGu National University of Education |
| ChinJu National University of Education | Seoul National University of Education |

Graduates

Graduate Schools of Teachers' Education

National (12):

ChangWon National University
CheJu National University
ChonBuk National University
ChonNam National University
ChungBuk National University
ChungNam National University
GyeongSang National University
Konhju National University
Korean Marine University
KumOh National Inst. of Tech.
KyungPook National University
PuKyung National University

Private (41):

Ajou University
AnYang University
Catholic Univ. of Korea
ChongShin University
ChoSun University
ChungAng University
DaeGu University
DanKook University
DongEui University
DongGuk University
DongShin University
DongYang University
Duksung Women's Univ.
Ewha Womans Univ.
Far East University
Gyeongju University
HanSeo University
HanShin University
HanYang University
HongIk University

InHa University
InJe University
KeiMyung University
KwangWoon University
KyongGi University
KyungSung University
KyungWon University
PyeongTaek University
SangMyung University
SeMyung University
SeoKyeong University
SeoNam University
SiLa University
SookMyung Women's Univ.
SoonChunHyang University
SoongSil University
SungKyunKwan University
SunMoon University
SuWon University
WooSuk University.
Yonsei University

Graduate Schools at Universities of Education

National (8):

| | |
|--|---|
| CheongJu National University of Education | GongJu National University of Education |
| ChinJu National University of Education | GwangJu National University of Education |
| ChunCheon National University of Education | GyeongIn National University of Education |
| DaeGu National University of Education | Korea National University of Education |

Aims of Comparative Education Teaching

The objectives of Comparative Education courses, according to the analysis of the collected course syllabuses and interviews with the lecturers, present a wide similarity and generality in concepts and descriptions both at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Since most of the courses are given at the introductory level without specific ramification of contents, the objectives of Comparative Education teaching are mainly focused on the following three aspects, which would not be far from the basic functions of comparative education in general:

- Understand educational thoughts, school systems, educational policies, and practices along with the study of cultural and historical background in various countries, regions, and times;

- Gain comparative perspectives in any chosen subject(s);
- Speculate and formulate reflective and alternative ideas and opinions for the development of Korean education.

Curricula

Comparative Education has not been fully fertilized as a singular field of study in Korean education. Since there is no department or major independently designed for Comparative Education study, most universities offer one or two courses at most as elective courses to the undergraduate and graduate students.

The popular countries subject to comparative studies are those with a developed educational system or neighboring countries: US, UK, Germany, France, Australia, Japan, China, and North Korea. Even though there is student interest for other countries such as Hong Kong, Singapore, India, Canada, Finland, Africa, Russia and many others, there is difficulty in acquiring relevant information and materials.

Most common subjects of interest for comparative studies are:

- School systems of K-12 through college level
- History and culture related to educational development
- Educational administration and financial structure
- Educational law and public relations
- Teacher education and supervision system
- Private / public system and government's role in education
- College entrance system

Course Titles

The following is the list of course titles most often used for Comparative Education courses in Korean universities:

- Comparative Education
- Theories of Comparative Education
- Comparative Studies of Educational Systems
- Educational Systems of Other Countries
- Seminar in Comparative Education
- Seminar in Comparative Study of Educational Systems
- Comparative Study of East and Western Education
- Comparative Study of South and North Korean Education
- Understanding World Education
- Education for Globalization
- Education for International Understanding
- Studies in International Education
- Education and Culture: Comparative Ethics
- Comparative Theories of Moral Education
- Comparative Study (Seminar) in Educational Administration
- Trends of Educational Reforms in Major Countries
- Comparative Study in Educational Laws and Policies
- Comparative Studies in Elementary Education
- Comparative Studies in Elementary Educational Administration

Textbooks

Textbooks preferred by the lecturers are one of or a mixed selection of: (1) books and publications written in Korean (by Korean authors), (2) foreign textbooks (mostly written in English), and (3) reading materials individually prepared by lecturers.

More than 99% of reported cases show the use of Korean textbooks. Foreign books were seldom used due to language limitations. Reading materials from the lecturers were mostly used at the graduate level courses but still limited in their use.

The most frequently used Korean textbooks are listed below in the order of publication date:

- *Educational System Comparison* (2006). Author: Kyum J. Cho. Published by Korean Studies Information.
- *Introduction to Comparative Education* (2005). Author: Sam H. Chu. Published by Korean Studies Information.
- *Comparative Education* (2005). Author: IJong Kwon. Published by Korean Studies Information Center.
- *Comparative Study of Philosophy in Education* (2005). Author: Kyeo H. Koh. Published by HakJiSa.
- *Comparative Education – Analysis in International Context* (2004). Authors: Dong W. Kim et al.. Published by Education and Science.
- *Educational System of Eight OECD Countries* (2004). Authors: Hwa M. Park et al.. Published by YangSuhWon Publication.
- *Educational Administration and Educational Reforms in Foreign Countries* (2003). Authors: Il H. Chung et al.. Published by Education and Science.
- *Educational Administration System in Major Countries and Their Educational Reform Trend* (2000). Author: Jong U. Paik. Published by Education and Science.
- *School Education and Teachers Education in World Wide* (2000). Published by Teachers College at KyungSang University.
- *Educational Reforms in Developed Countries and Recent Actions* (1998). Published by Korean Educational Development Institute.
- *Developments in Comparative Education* (1996). Author: Jung W. Choi. Published by Education and Science.

Teaching Methods

Limited specific information was obtained regarding the teaching methods practiced in the courses. However, it can generally be described as a combination of professors' lectures, students' research work and presentation, and class discussion in exploring foreign education and developing comparative perspectives.

Media materials such as TV recorded programs and documentary series, digital multimedia programs and video clips, which deliver the visual sense of educational atmospheres and situations of various countries, are highly preferred supplements used by some, but yet insufficient in availability.

Problematic Issues and Suggestions

Among the problems and suggestions identified by respondents are the following:

- *Lack of materials*: The biggest concern of the lecturers in Comparative Education is the lack of updated materials and information. Language limitation

also reduces the range of information available. The current and ever stronger trend of emphasizing English education for incumbent and future teachers would eventually enable them to access rich materials. However, until then, more immediate and abundant supply of materials for comparative education should be prepared.

- *Lack of interest*: The importance of Comparative Education has not been able to attract strong interest among students. Many cases have been reported that Comparative Education courses had to be discontinued due to a lack of students' interest and demand. More emphasis on the significance of international knowledge and intercultural understanding should be given to teacher education programs.
- *Lack of professionals*: There is a severe shortage in the number of professional scholars who are eligible to lecture Comparative Education courses. Due to a lack of personnel who majored in the Comparative Education field, a large number of courses are assigned to persons who majored in other fields, further aggravating the other lacking situations.
- *Lack of communication*: More active, aggressive, and practical communication networks have to be established with other countries' Comparative Education scholars, centers, and societies. It is significant to exchange not only information and knowledge but also different native perspectives and philosophies in education. This effort would leverage the development of the Comparative Education field in Korea and others as well.

Ending Words

'Knowing others' enhances the maturity in 'knowing ourselves.' The value of diversity is the essence of education in the era of a globally interconnected world. Comparative Education has the unique capacity and mission to make the strange familiar. Many important educational questions can also be examined from an international-comparative perspective. With this understanding, there is no doubt that teachers who educate the future generation should be well prepared with comparative educational knowledge and perspectives.

For the current state of Comparative Education in Korea, it would be a modest evaluation to say that it has not yet been fully nourished in cultivating and delivering comparative perspectives in education. However more attention and concern has been gathered on the significance of Comparative Education and many efforts have been made by Korean scholars individually, and collectively, through the KCES. Understanding the current state of Comparative Education in various countries, presented in this publication, would further stimulate our motivation and endeavor on its way of development.

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Dr. Elisa L. Park, Professor
Soongsil University
Seoul, Republic of (South) Korea.
e-mail: elisalilypark@gmail.com

Dr. Kyung S. Hyun, Full time Professor
Hanseu University
Chungcheongnam-do, Republic of (South) Korea
e-mail: ks4531@hanseo.ac.kr

The Status of Comparative Education in Malaysia

T. Subahan Mohd Meerah & Lilia Halim

Historical Background

Comparative Education in Malaysia had its humble beginning in 1970 at the University of Malaya (Universiti Malaya), the oldest and only university at that time. The Faculty of Education offered a one year diploma in education programme for university graduates who intended to be teachers in Malaysian secondary schools. This was considered a necessary qualification for teaching in government secondary schools. Comparative Studies in Education was offered as an optional lecture course at that one year postgraduate diploma programme. The course remained at the 'information level' (Wong, 1973), which aimed at helping student teachers to know and understand better the Malaysian educational system and those of other countries, to learn to appraise educational issues from an international perspective, and to deduce lessons from the strengths and weaknesses of other educational systems. Thus, students of Comparative Studies in Education studied Malaysian education not only in the context of Malaysia but also of South East Asia.

The other postgraduate programmes offered in the Faculty of Education of the Universiti Malaya were not taught courses. In these programmes, students were allowed to use a comparative methodology. Thus, students reading for MEd or the PhD could opt for the course in Comparative Methodology in the first year of their higher degree work, and then in their second year select a particular problem or a cross-cultural study in two or more contexts for their dissertation. Wong (1973), considered such comparative studies as at the 'problem-analysis' level. The student used the techniques of classification, analysis and comparison of educational issues to make cross-cultural studies in two or more contexts.

Another type of comparative studies identified by Wong (1973) refers to those undertaken at the 'interdisciplinary level', wherein the student works jointly with specialists from other disciplines to analyze educational issues from varied disciplinary perspectives and contexts. Thus, he draws on the findings of other disciplines as well as on his own experiences as an educationist. This type of study was also undertaken by Faculty of Education staff at the University of Malaya, through joint research projects in collaboration with fellow researchers from other Faculties of the same university or from other universities overseas.

Finally Wong (1973) also described comparative studies undertaken at the level of 'commitment and decision-making'. Here the research students work, in collaboration with educational planners and administrators, to help inform and advise the government on matters pertaining to education.

When other Faculties of Education were established in Malaysia starting in 1972 and afterwards, they tended to model their programmes and courses after that of University of Malaya's Faculty of Education. This is because of the centralized nature of the Malaysian education system, wherein the universities were also under the Ministry of Education. Thus Comparative Studies in Education were offered in the

Diploma Course for initial teacher training at the Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia and Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Development of Comparative Education to the Present

The development of Comparative Education from its beginnings in 1970 at the Universiti Malaya to its present state seems to suggest that the status of this field of study has expanded during these almost four decades. This phenomenon is illustrated below. However, Comparative Education as a university discipline in Malaysia still deserves great attention. At the same time, the number of comparative studies and international collaborations are encouraging due to the forces of globalization.

As a University Discipline

A review of handbooks of undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in education of 11 Malaysian universities failed to identify 'Comparative Education' as a distinct specialist field of its own. Comparative Education, however, is generally offered as a taught course.

The place of Comparative Education at the *undergraduate level* was short-lived in two of the 11 universities, namely Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) and Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). Comparative Education at the undergraduate level was introduced in 1981 as a required taught course in USM. It was offered for about four years and terminated with the departure of the only comparative education specialist conducting it. Similar circumstances occurred in UPM in which the undergraduate course on Comparative Education was terminated due to the unavailability of comparative education experts. The course used to be offered as an optional taught course. The aim of these courses was to compare education in ASEAN countries from various perspectives: philosophy, aims and objectives of education, literacy rate, student enrolment, educational expenditure, problems, reforms and new educational trends. In short, the comparison was done at the 'information level'. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), however, is currently offering a course on Comparative Education at the undergraduate level as one of its optional courses. The aim of Comparative Education teaching as indicated in the course synopsis is to expose students to the comparative study of educational systems of other countries. The indicators of comparison between the Malaysian education system and other countries are the same as in the course offered in USM and UPM. The focus of Comparative Education teaching at UTM was more of identifying the similarities and differences of educational systems and practices.

Courses on Comparative Education are, however, more visible at the *postgraduate level*. The treatment of comparative education theory and methodology ranges from discussing them in an independent course completely devoted to Comparative Education, to discussing them as a topic within a course outside the comparative education theme. As a taught course that specifically deals with Comparative Education, methodological issues and theories in comparative education are dealt with thoroughly. Such a course is being offered in the Faculty of Education, Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Master's taught courses that specifically dealt with Comparative Education in Malaysia are often associated with the area of specialization in curriculum development. This is evident in the course in USM and another in Universiti Malaya.

At the USM, 'Comparative Studies in Curriculum Change' is one of the taught courses offered in the Curriculum and Instruction specialization for the Doctor of Education programme. The first part of the course aims to discuss theories and concepts related to curriculum change. It then focuses on the comparative study of curriculum changes taking place in Malaysia and some other selected countries in the world. Specifically, it aims to compare and discuss models and strategies used by various countries in implementing curriculum change. A comparative analysis of the problems and issues faced by each country and its implications on curriculum change is also discussed. Other than textbooks on curriculum, the course also refers to journals on Comparative Education such as *Comparative Education Review* as one of its many resources. Textbooks used in the courses that are related to the field of Comparative Education and Curriculum are mostly authored by foreign scholars such as *New Approaches to Comparative Education* (Altbach & Kelly, 1986) and *School Subjects and Curriculum Change* (Goodson, 1993). Graduate students are required to employ a comparative methodology in one of their assignments, which involves comparing at least two countries on the critical aspects of curriculum change in each country and describing the problems and issues emerging from these changes. This course has all the 'traditional' contents of comparative education as defined by Popov (2006, p.27) which includes (i) History, (ii) Theory, methodology and methods, and (iii) Description and comparisons of a given number of educational systems, which are usually determined by the professor's competencies and students' interests.

At the Universiti Malaya, the course entitled 'Comparative and Global Perspectives Curriculum' aims to introduce postgraduate students to the comparative research of education systems in various countries. As in the USM, methodological issues in comparative research and theories and research on comparative curriculum issues are discussed comprehensively.

On the other hand, some Master's taught courses integrate elements of comparison as topics within a course outside of the comparative education theme. Common examples of these are demonstrated in the following course outlines. A course on 'Science Education' aims to provide reflections on the development of science education globally since the 1960s. It focuses on the development of science education in the USA, Japan and the UK. The focus of comparison in this course is on benchmarking the standards of science education set in each country in terms of its aims and goals at each grade level. The course also looks at the school science reform in Malaysia based on world influences and the advent of ICT. The resources used in the course vary from articles in journals related to science education and comparative education, to science and technology reports of advanced countries such as Japan and the United States. Students are required to do a project that compares at least two countries on issues related to curriculum, teaching and assessment and how each country addresses pertinent issues or problems. There is, however, no explicit discussion on the comparative methodology. In other words, this course only focuses on the description and comparisons of various science educational systems in the world.

Another typical example of incorporating topics in a course is studying the similarities and differences of educational practices. In Malaysia, as in some other places, the units of comparison are not only limited to countries but also include ethnicity, socio-economic status, and schools within Malaysia itself. This is because Malaysia is a multiracial country and the gap and variation in educational achievement

in Malaysia is often influenced by these demographic factors. Such a discussion can be often seen both at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. However, integrating topics of discussion that involve comparisons of educational systems, practices or curricula in such a manner does not give a total view of the theory and methods of the field, and hence could be characteristically haphazard and diverse. Students are not given the basics of understanding comparative theory and methodology in order to make a reliable comparison.

Table 1 summarizes the distribution of courses on Comparative Education at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Table 1: Distribution of courses on Comparative Education at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels for the period between 1970 till present.

| Malaysian Universities | Undergraduate | | Postgraduate | |
|---|---------------|----------|--------------|----------|
| | Required | Optional | Required | Optional |
| Universiti Utara Malaysia | x | x | x | x |
| Universiti Sains Malaysia | / | x | // | // |
| Universiti Malaya | x | x | // | // |
| Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia | x | / | / | x |
| Universiti Putra Malaysia | x | / | x | x |
| Universiti Institut Teknologi Mara | x | x | x | x |
| International Islamic Univeristy Malaysia | x | x | x | x |
| Universiti Perguruan Sultan Idris | x | x | x | x |
| Universiti Teknologi Malaysia | x | // | x | x |
| Universiti Tun Hussein Onn | x | x | x | x |
| Universiti Sabah Malaysia | x | x | x | x |

Key: x not offered, / once offered but being terminated, // presently being offered

As a Field of Research

‘Comparative Education’ is also a field of research at both Master’s and PhD levels in certain universities. Often the thesis topics are on educational policy, elements of educational structure as well as primary and secondary school curriculum. It is however interesting to note that Comparative Methodology is not offered explicitly in most of the Research Methods courses for postgraduate studies.

Doing comparative education studies is also gaining interest among Malaysian educational researchers. There are many reasons to this movement. First, the possibilities of comparative education studies are abundant due to the availability of grants that encourage comparative studies. The Japan Foundation grant, for example, encourages studies comparing the educational system between a South East Asian country and Japan. The grant is awarded to projects in the social sciences, humanities or cultural fields, which can further promote an understanding of Japan. Among the specific objectives are to deepen understanding of Japan in other countries; to maintain good relationships between Japan and other countries and promote better mutual understanding; and to encourage intellectual contributions to solve problems related to

international issues. As in any comparative studies in education the findings, would benefit both partners of the study.

Second, as argued by Bray (2005), the forces of globalization give the opportunity to widen the academic mobility of researchers and graduate students to be involved in information exchange and collaborative research opportunities in the field of Comparative Education. Countries such as the United States and European Union member-states are keen to collaborate with Asian countries. This is because there has been an increasing emphasis in recruiting and maintaining a diverse pool of teachers who are also culturally sensitive. One way of learning more about an issue is to have collaborative projects with a multi-character society such as Malaysia which offers a propitious setting for asking questions about the implications of culture for learning. In the context of the USA, such experiences are offered by the National Science Foundation office through The International Research Experiences for Students (IRES) program which promotes educational experiences for US graduate students through active participation in collaboration with foreign researchers at an international site. Research students in Malaysia are also encouraged to participate collaboratively in such a project. Even though the immediate benefit is for the US graduate students, the results of the study would also be meaningful to the Malaysian context.

In the case of the European Union countries, they are interested in encouraging both their undergraduate and postgraduate students to have field experience such as teaching practice in Asian countries. Such experiences are regarded more as student teacher exchanges which can basically be considered as a practical field of comparative education. Even though teaching practice exercise is not research-based, it is still of value for student teachers to be engaged in such cross-cultural interactions.

Malaysia also has been involved in international comparative education projects such as the TIMMS (Third International Mathematics and Science Study) which is conducted under the auspices of the Ministry of Education. It is clear that the Ministry seriously considers the findings of such a study since they reflect where the standard of the Malaysian education system stands with regard to other countries. The findings also show the strengths and weaknesses among Malaysian students' achievements, which are reflections of teaching and learning practices. For example, Malaysian students appear to be lacking in acquiring and demonstrating the problem-solving strategies in higher level mathematical problems. Such information serves as an input for the training of mathematics teachers and development of teacher training programs.

Finally, the human resource capacity in the field of Comparative Education could also be created through sending Malaysian youths to study abroad. The government of Malaysia has been proactively sending its students for foreign study especially at the higher education level since the 1970s. According to Popov's (2006) argument, the outflow of students can be considered is a positive step for comparative education development. In this respect, Malaysia offers potentials for growth in forming a new generation of Malaysian comparativists.

Conclusion

This chapter has traced the historical evolution of Comparative Education in Malaysian universities back to the 1970s. It has since then developed modestly to the present day. A content analysis of the educational programmes offered at 11 Malaysian universities revealed that courses on Comparative Education are offered only by five

institutions at the undergraduate and/or postgraduate levels. It is more often taught as an optional course in some areas of specialization at both levels. One of the main reasons for its weak development in Malaysia is the shortage of expertise in this field. However, comparative education is integrated as a methodological approach or perspective in a number of courses in every educational programme, where the focus of discussion often relates to studying the similarities and differences of educational practices. There is, however, a need to go beyond this descriptive approach to foreign education systems and instead be more explicitly comparative at the problem-solving analysis level, so that the results obtained can offer solutions to one's own context.

It is imperative that Malaysia consider developing this field as a discipline in educational programmes due to the apparent benefits of doing comparative studies in education. Some of these benefits include improving understanding of one's own educational system, providing comparative external standards for evaluating students, and identifying the factors that promote educational achievement. Moreover, the era of globalization, which is witnessing an increased mobility of peoples, has major implications for policies on the preparation of citizens in education (Bray, 2005). Teachers need to be made aware of and be able to reflect as well as make decisions on the impact of globalization in shaping national educational policies. This context of globalization warrants Malaysia to consider developing the field of Comparative Education as an obligatory course in all university teacher education courses.

Malaysian educational researchers are also increasingly involved in comparative education studies, and their research offers valuable insights on teacher education. Findings of these comparative studies could be further enhanced if researchers are equipped with the knowledge and skills of comparative theory and methodology. In this respect, the conference of the Comparative Education Society of Asia (CESA) hosted by UKM in 2005, for example, served to open opportunities for more comparative studies among researchers in Malaysia. The conference was able to attract an international community of experts in Comparative Education from which Malaysian PhD students and researchers were able to draw opportunities for consultation and collaborative research. It also catalyzed attempts within the UKM to revive Comparative Education as a field of study. Another outcome of the 2005 CESA conference in Malaysia was the publication of the inaugural issue of CESA's journal entitled *Compare* (same name but independent from the UK-published society journal of the British Association for International and Comparative Education) by the CESA Secretariat in Indonesia, featuring selected papers presented in the conference. More workshops could be organized for researchers on the methodology of conducting comparative studies and one possible avenue is to offer them around the occasion of CESA's biennial conferences. The focus of such workshops could be on comparative studies in Science and Mathematics Education since Malaysia views science and mathematics as vital for economic development.

To conclude, the humble beginnings of Comparative Education in the Faculty of Education of the Universiti Malaya prepared the ground for Comparative Education to take root as a discipline in Malaysian universities. The plant now needs to be revitalized and reformed, aligning it with the current and future demands of the field of education for the continual growth and improvement of the Malaysian education system.

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Prof. Dr. T. Subahan Mohd Meerah
Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia
Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: subhan@ukm.my

Prof. Dr. Lilia Halim
Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia
Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: lilia@ukm.my

Comparative Education in Thailand

Sumlee Thongthew

Introduction to Teacher Education in Thailand

Teacher education in Thailand has undergone various changes since 1892, the year the first teacher training school for elementary school teachers was founded. The major aim of the school was to equip teachers not only with high quality teaching skills, but also with the traditional Thai cultural code of conduct vital for a proper socialization of the young. In the 1960s a large number of teacher training institutes, all state-owned, were established to cope with the great demand for teachers both at the elementary and secondary school levels. However, this expansionary move was criticized widely for being focused solely on quantity at the expense of quality (National Identity Board, 1995, p.173)

Consequently, the attempt to improve the quality of teachers in Thailand has been emphasized continuously to meet societal expectations. At present, efforts have been intensified to achieve this goal at all levels of the teacher training programs. Most teacher training institutes adjusted their curriculum so as to comply with the higher teachers' standards prescribed by the Educational Reform Policy (ONEC, 2001) issued alongside the National Education Act 1999. The main purpose of the reform is to maximize the potential of the Thai people enabling them to cope with the demands of a knowledge-based economy and with advances in information and communication technology. At the same time, the Educational Reform Policy aimed to inculcate and preserve the Thai people's own identity in an era of globalization (ONEC, 2005).

In October 2007, the Teachers Council of Thailand issued the *Eight Areas of Professional Teaching Standards* as a requirement for obtaining a teaching license. In response to the Council's regulation, all teacher training institutes altered their earlier adjusted curriculum so as to produce a new generation of teachers meeting these new professional standards. Courses in curriculum development, instructional design, educational psychology, classroom management, financial resource management, measurement and evaluation, and educational research skills, were created and offered as required courses to student teachers at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. In addition to numerous teaching techniques and strategies, eight required subjects are given special emphasis in the teacher training curriculum, namely: Mathematics; Thai Language; Social Studies and Religion and Culture; Science and Technology; Arts; Physical Education; Occupational and Vocational Studies; and Foreign Languages (ONEC, 2001, p.36).

The transformations catalyzed by education reforms and the issuance of teaching licenses have been criticized as the cause for the radical shift in the curriculum and activities implemented in Thai teacher education institutes, from the acquisition of theoretical, pedagogical knowledge and critical skills to mere teacher-training skills as prescribed by the eight categories of Professional Teaching Standards.

Since all courses at the undergraduate level (totaling approximately 167-170 credits) have been designed in accordance with the National School Curriculum 2001 and within the Professional Teaching Standards, there is no room for a course such as

Comparative Education, neither at the 36 state-owned teacher training institutes (called *Rajapat University*), nor at any Faculty of Education in the teacher education universities in Thailand. However, Comparative Education as a course of study is still offered as an elective course at the graduate school level in the Faculties of Education at Chulalongkorn University, Naresuan University, Sri Nakarintharawiroj University, and The University of Silpakorn.

History of Comparative Education in Thailand

During 1957-1970, both the formal school curriculum and the teacher training curriculum in Thailand had been powerfully influenced by educational models in England and the United States of America (Sukonthaman et al., 1995, p.39). The American teacher training curriculum model, which had Comparative Education as a course of study, was taken into account in the formulation of the new curriculum at the Faculties of Education at various leading universities in Thailand. The design of Comparative Education as a course of study was at that time primarily descriptive in nature, aimed at helping students understand aspects of educational systems in USA as well as in some well-developed nations. The course tended to emphasize interesting aspects of formal education, teacher institutional frameworks and teacher education, the system of grading and examinations, and effective teaching materials used.

Comparative Education at the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University had been offered since 1960 as a course of study at the graduate school level in the Departments of Elementary Education and of General Education, as well as in other Departments. The course was first offered as a 2-credit elective course. The narrative description approach was utilized by lecturers focusing heavily on information about educational systems and structures in selected countries of interest. The course also encompassed narrative descriptions of educational practices in these foreign nations. The main purpose of the course was to look into the educational system, structures, curriculum and teaching practices in the American model in order to select and apply innovative lessons to improve the quality of education in Thailand (Division of Elementary Education, 1979, p.24). In addition to the narrative description approach, techniques for large scale surveys, interviews, questionnaires, and participant observation were also introduced to students as essential data-gathering measures (Division of Elementary Education, 1986, p.19).

Present State: The Case of Chulalongkorn University

While Rajapata Teacher Training Universities and the Faculties of Education in many universities in Thailand overlook the significance of the Comparative Education in the training of quality teachers, the course has been persistently developed and offered to students at the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University (CU). Professors and lecturers at the Division of Elementary Education in particular argue strongly that together with the provision of quality teacher preparation courses, research skills are extremely essential.

At present, while Comparative Education as a course of study in other universities still demonstrates the narrative description approach, professors and lecturers at CU's Division of Elementary Education have initiated the social scientific approach. This approach emphasizes the analysis of relations between educational variables and political, economic, and cultural characteristics in each society. We argue that only

through the study of such relations can we get to understand the process of knowledge formation and the perception of knowledge in each social context that leads to the selection of school subjects and appropriate learning practices in our society as well as in others. Only if we understand the educational system and its context can we inform, compare, and contribute sound and effective educational reform initiatives.

Aims of Comparative Education Teaching

There are four major aims of Comparative Education as a course of study offered at the Division of Elementary Education, Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University. The first aim is to search for similarities and differences among the educational systems, subjects of study and teaching practices in selected societies. The second is to explain the relations between educational practices, issues and relevant social contexts. The third aim is to design and apply cross-research methodologies to the data gathered. And the last is to propose an alternative solution to improve practices in the society (societies) studied (Division of Elementary Education, 2007, p.20).

Content and Theoretical Approaches

The content of the Comparative Education courses at Chulalongkorn University (e.g. Comparative Elementary Education taught by the author) comprises three parts. The first part emphasizes on the details of educational systems, pedagogical practices, educational issues, and overall social contexts in four Asian countries: Japan, Singapore, China, and Korea.

The second part centers on the explanation of how educational systems and practices relate to their social, political, cultural, and economic contexts. The social scientific approach (Eckstein & Noah, 1969) is utilized as the essential tool to understand the links between education and social phenomena. Another approach utilized is the problem-centered approach (Thomas, 1990). According to this approach education is viewed from the standpoint of the issues of concern in a society. These issues evolve around explicit and implicit forces that contribute to shifts in a society's values, knowledge, culture, and its overall structure. Scholars in the field of Comparative Education have utilized the problem-centered theory in an attempt to explain how education in Thailand is influenced by social changes.

The final part offers research methodology, both a program and method of work which opens the way to a systematic establishment of tested research hypotheses concerning the interaction of education and society. At this point certain skills in cross-research methodologies are emphasized such as hypothesis formulation, data collection through ethnographic and field research techniques, application of statistical and/or social science's critical analysis to the data gathered, comparison of findings with comparable data gathered from other societies, formulation of inferences, and lastly prediction and/or offering of alternative solutions.

A list of required readings for the course is given in the Annex.

Comparative Education as a Field of Study

For those who wish to pursue Comparative Education as a field of study, a heavier emphasis on advanced research methodology is given. The design of Comparative Education as a field of study in Chulalongkorn University is developed for students who register for 12 credits for their thesis and are seriously involved in doing research in Comparative Education. Students in this category are encouraged to look into the

relations between educational practices and relevant social contexts, explaining all aspects of political, economic, and cultural issues underlying an educational system, applying cross-research methodologies for data collection, and using a combination of national case and the international sigma analysis. A proposal of an alternative educational system or educational practice is expected as the end product of their study. While Comparative Education at the Faculty of Education of Chulalongkorn University is offered as 12 credits for those taking it as a field of study, a 2-credit course is offered for all graduate students. This dual format has been offered annually. In addition, the six-credit courses are also offered for those at the PhD level at Naresuan University.

Conclusion

Although the requirements of the Educational Reform Act 2001 and the Professional Teaching Standards implemented in 2007 have ruled over teacher training institutes, the tendency to intellectual inquiry, the very element that allows our students to engage in the deliberate search to extend knowledge in pedagogic principles and to solve complex issues in education, remains in the minds of many. We argue that to be effective as a teacher, one must be a model of doing research in Comparative Education. Comparative Education is considered as one of the most desirable ways of approaching an understanding of education, the understanding of education in our social contexts as well as in co-existence with others. In response to such a concept, a group of professors and lecturers who are responsible for Comparative Education courses at the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University have proposed recommendations for Comparative Education to be developed into a Department of Comparative Education. This move signals that Comparative Education Program ought to be taken into account as a significant instrument for the reconstruction of professionalism in teaching. It is true that we are facing difficulties in working towards our goal. We also realize that there is a long way to go, but we believe that cooperation and collaboration among professors and educators in the field of Comparative Education in Thailand is a good means of bringing about one of the best and meaningful Comparative Education programs in the region. The formation of the Thailand Comparative and International Education Society in 2005 (Bray, 2007, p.85) under the leadership of scholars from Chulalongkorn and Naresuan Universities is another important step in this direction.

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Annex:
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Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sumlee Thongthew
Department of Curriculum Instruction and Technology
Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University
Bangkok, Thailand
e-mail: tsumlee@yahoo.com

PART V

*Comparative Education at
Universities in the Middle East*

Comparative Education at Universities in Egypt

Nagwa Megahed & Amal Otaiba

Introduction

In their analyses of the development of Comparative Education in the Arab World, Egyptian educators tend to employ the historical stages of the development of Comparative Education used by analysts in other countries.

The first stage is known as “the period of travelers’ tales” or “the period of describing life systems in foreign countries” which occurred with the expansion of Islam since the sixth century. The Arab and Muslim travelers such as Ebn Batota (1144-1218), Ebn Gobir (1304-1378), and Ebn Khaldon (1331-1405) – pioneer of sociology, shared their observations about political and economic conditions, scientific and philosophical traditions, and cultural practices, including educational activities in religious institutions (Abod, 2004; Fahmy, 1981; Moursi, 1981).

A second stage of Comparative Education in the Arab World is associated with the Ottoman Empire, especially the period of Mohamed Ali’s (1805-1848) and his sons’ rule of Egypt during the 19th century. Mohamed Ali “conceived of modernization mainly in terms of borrowing Western technology” (Erlich, 1989, p. 9) and, thus, sent missions of young Egyptians abroad to be educated (Cochran, 1986, p. 4). This stage of Comparative Education featured “educational borrowing” with the traveling of educators and students to different nations to observe or study in a foreign school system. Among the well known Egyptian scholars who contributed to Arab’s progress and enlightenment during this period is Refaa ElTahtawy (1801-1873), who returned to Egypt in 1831 after his educational mission in France, established a Translation School in 1835, and translated and wrote many books on European civilization, education for girls and boys, and other topics (see Saleh & Abod, 1974).

A third stage of Comparative Education in Egypt can be seen in relation to the founding of teacher education institutions. Initially, teacher education was organized in Egypt at the pre-university level – with separate institutions for male and female students. It was not until 1950 when teacher education programs were also offered at the universities (Megahed & Ginsburg, 2006). Abod (2004, pp.120-121) explains that Arabic literature in Comparative Education during this time continued to be descriptive, with only a limited analysis of education systems within their social and cultural contexts (as was the case in other countries, see Kubow & Fossum, 2003, p.7).

In the following sections, we examine the development of Comparative Education in the context of universities and teacher education programs in Egypt in the 20th century. We focus particularly on Ain Shams University and its Faculty of Education – known as the ‘mother faculty’ – and its Women’s College of Arts, Sciences, and Education, considering that the same curricular framework was adopted by other Faculties of Education established in other Egyptian government universities. Then we analyze the current status of Comparative Education in the context of a recent educational reform known as the Faculty of Education Enhancement Project (2002 - to present).

Egyptian Universities, Teacher Education, and Comparative Education in the 20th Century

The Undergraduate Teacher Education Program

In 1956, the curricular framework of teacher education programs at Egyptian universities did not include a course named Comparative Education (Executive Regulation of the Egyptian Universities Law, 1956). As Moursi (2007) explains, at that time Comparative Education was not taught as a separate subject but was introduced within other subjects by some faculty members. Comparative Education, thus, was part of the Foundations of Education Department in the Faculty of Education at Ain Shams University until the school year 1957-58 when the Department of Comparative Education was established (Abod, 2004; Faculty of Education, 2007; Moursi, 2007).

In 1971 the department expanded to include educational administration and was renamed to be Comparative Education and Educational Administration Department. This change was criticized for its consequences on both fields (Abod, 2004; Faculty of Education, 2007; Moursi, 2007). For example, courses in educational planning, economics of education, history of education, are taught in the Foundations of Education Department, while courses in educational and school administration, and comparative education are provided by the newly established department. As a consequence, students are unlikely to benefit from the cross-field fertilization of ideas between Foundations of Education and either Comparative Education or Educational Administration. Nonetheless, more than seven Faculties of Education in other universities have followed the same pattern of the 'mother faculty' and established similar departments, which combine both comparative education and educational administration (Abod, 2004, p.121). Other faculties, including Women's College, continued to have Comparative Education as part of their Foundations of Education departments.

Currently, all Faculties of Education continue to offer four-year programs for undergraduate students as well as one- or two-year programs for graduates of Arts and Sciences faculties or departments. The following educational and professional courses and training are provided in most of the Faculties of Education (some faculties have changed their course requirements in response to the Faculty of Education Enhancement Project, as will be presented later):

- Social Foundations of Education
 - Philosophical Foundations of Education
 - Education History and the Education System in Egypt
 - Education and Societal Problems
 - Comparative Education
 - Educational Administration
 - Teaching Methods
 - Educational Technology and Teaching Aids
 - Curriculum
 - Psychology of Development
 - Educational Psychology
 - Psychological Hygiene and Social Psychology
 - Field Experience
- (Faculty of Education, 2007; Women's College, 2003).

Textbooks and Scholarly Publications

During the late 1950s, Comparative Education was provided as a core course. Textbooks were developed depending mostly on the translation of foreign literature (Moursi, 2007). However, soon after, Egyptian pioneers of Comparative Education – mostly from Ain Shams University – published their own books and contributed to the development of Arabic literature in Comparative Education. These books were, furthermore, used in teaching Comparative Education at different universities and continued to be the main source of information for university textbooks nationwide (Abod, 2004; Moursi, 2007). Based on our review and content analysis of some of these books, Comparative Education in Egypt has witnessed changes in its focus and objectives that were associated with the country's changing political, economic, and social interests during different periods.

In the late 1950s writings focused on education systems in the advanced societies, including the Soviet Union, France, England, and the United States. For instance, in his book *Studies in Comparative Education*, Samaan (1958) examines the state and education, educational administration, pre-university education system, and teacher education programs in these four countries.

However, during the 1960s and till the early 1970s, during a period when Egypt's political leadership was promoting Egyptian nationalism, pan-Arab solidarity, and Arab socialism, comparative education scholars drew enormous attention to the Arab societies, Middle Eastern and Far Eastern societies, and communist countries. Books published during this period, furthermore, employed more critical perspectives in examining educational systems and their political, social and economic arrangements in different countries. In addition, some scholars of comparative education conducted academic visits to the Arab and communist societies in which they examined education and society (Samaan, 1972). Countries of interest during this period included: Iraq, Iran, Turkey, Afghanistan, Pakistan, China, Indonesia, the Philippines, East Germany, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia.

By the mid-1970s comparative studies broadened their focus to include 'Western' capitalist countries as well as communist and Arab countries. This shift in Comparative Education is in line with Egypt's political leadership turning away from a socialist orientation. Sadat's government pursued "a new ["open-door"] policy to encourage private capital investment and stronger links with the West" (Williamson, 1987, p.117).

During the 1970s, the purposes of comparative studies, thus, were not only to enrich the Arabic literature in the field of Comparative Education but also to identify lessons learned from different experiences, focusing on education and ideology in capitalist and communist societies (Saleh & Abod, 1974). In addition, scholars tended to provide recommendations that would guide changes in educational policy and practices in Egypt and the Arab world based on their examination of education in a variety of countries. These included for instance the United States, the Soviet Union, East and West Germany, France, England, Sweden, and Japan as well as Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco and Saudi Arabia (see Abdeldaim, 1974; Moursi, 1972; Saleh & Abod, 1974; Saleh, 1979; Samaan & Moursi, 1973).

By the 1980s and during the 1990s, scholars focused more on theorizing Comparative Education as a field, discussing its history, objectives, and research methods. They examined the 'theoretical' foundations of Comparative Education and the associated cultural forces influencing international experiences. In addition, they

continued their examination of education in a variety of countries, which were classified ideologically as capitalist, communist, and Arab societies (see Fahmy, 1981; Moursi, 1981; Moursi, 1998; Saleh & Abod, 1974; Sobihe et al., 1988).

However, in most recent university textbooks, some scholars of comparative education have tended to apply a developmental stage approach in classifying countries in which they examine education, differentiating between advanced/developed countries, less developed countries, and developing or underdeveloped countries (Women's College, 2007). This seems to reflect a move to a national, functionalist rather than either a World Systems or international dependency perspective, despite a longer term debate, problematizing 'development' and a more recent move by at least some 'Western' scholars to put more attention to the world system and globalization (see Adams, 1977; Ginsburg, 1991).

Comparative Education and the Faculty of Education Enhancement Project (2002 – to present)

There are currently twenty-seven Faculties of Education associated with 17 universities and enrolling 81,584 male and 130,298 female students in Egypt. In the mid-1990s, Egyptian academics and government officials as well as representatives of bilateral and multilateral organizations called for a reform of Faculties of Education (Ginsburg & Megahed, 2006). By 2002 and as one of the World Bank loan-based Higher Education Enhancement Projects (HEEP) in Egypt, the Faculties of Education Enhancement Project (FOEP) was initiated. Among its objectives, the FOEP aimed at developing academic standards and course descriptions for all educational subjects and programs.

In March 2006, as part of a piloting of the FOEP initiative, four Faculties of Education agreed to revise their respective curricula and courses to correspond with the FOEP conceptual framework and course descriptions. Moreover, 'College Councils' of twelve other Faculties of Education have agreed to adopt the new framework (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 2006, pp.14-15). One of the four faculties piloting the FOEP-developed curricular materials beginning in the 2006-2007 academic year is the Women's College at Ain Shams University. In the FOEP-developed curriculum for the undergraduate program, the previous Comparative Education course is renamed as 'Education System in Egypt and International Approaches'. Topics to be taught in this course may include: an analysis of education system in general and cultural forces, education system in Egypt and its problems, education systems and their contemporary approaches in some foreign countries, and lessons learned for enhancing education system in Egypt (FOEP, 2005, p.33).

The Graduate Programs

The Faculties of Education offer the following graduate programs: the General Diploma – one or two year program for graduates of Arts and Sciences Faculties (as mentioned earlier); Professional Diploma; Special Diploma; Master's Degree, and Doctoral Degree.

The Professional Diploma is organized as a one-year coursework program in a certain educational field selected by students. Each Faculty's Council determines the educational fields of its professional diploma program and the course requirements for

each field, which may include Comparative Education. For example, the following courses are offered in the professional diploma program (in the field noted):

- International Education (Comparative Education)
- Comparative Perspective on School Management in Compulsory Education (School Management)
- International Approaches and Experiences in Literacy (Adult Education) (Faculty of Education, 2007; FOEP, 2005; Women's College, 2003).

The Special Diploma is also a one-year coursework program, which includes Arts or Sciences courses based on students' teaching subject, advanced educational courses – for example, foreign literature in education, and research courses. These two diploma programs are prerequisites for the Master's and Doctoral programs (Universities' Organizational Law, 2006; Faculty of Education, 2007; Women's College, 2007).

As for the Master's and Doctoral programs, students are required to develop a creative research study in a period of not less than two years. In addition, they should pass two advanced courses; the first course is relevant to their research topic and the second is on research methodology and the use of technology. Before defending their Master's or Doctoral dissertation, students should, furthermore, pass an exam on English as Second Language (Universities' Organizational Law, 2006; Faculty of Education, 2007; Women's College, 2007).

In the school year 2006-2007, the Faculty of Education at Ain Shams University included 244 female students and 345 male students in its Master's program and 190 female students and 180 male students in its Doctoral program (Ain Shams University, 2007). A total of ninety-six Master's degrees and 89 doctoral degrees were awarded by the Comparative Education and Educational Administration Department in the Faculty of Education since its establishment until 2006 (Faculty of Education, 2007).

Finally, in his reflection on research studies in Comparative Education in Egypt, Fahmy (2004) suggests that research studies including master's and doctoral research could be classified to include three groups: (1) studies examining the status of the education system (or one of its components) in two or more countries, (2) investigations of the development of education systems during a certain historical period in two or more countries, and (3) research exploring future educational changes and development in the context of international contemporary approaches and experiences.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we examined the development of Comparative Education in Egypt in the context of universities and teacher education programs as well as in the context of a recent educational reform, known as the Faculty of Education Enhancement Project. Although limited changes have occurred in the teacher education program – focused mainly on the expansion of its institutions during the 20th century – Comparative Education has witnessed changes in its focus and objectives that were associated with the country's changing political, economic, and social interests during different periods. Egyptian pioneers and scholars have made well recognized contributions to the development of Comparative Education in Egypt and the region; “Egypt had in the 1980s been a strong centre for teaching of Comparative Education in the Arab world” (Manzon & Bray, 2007, p.326; Benhamida, 1990, p.305). Scholars and researchers of Comparative Education in Egypt continue their contribution to enrich the

Arabic literature in Comparative Education covering in their examination of education its historical development, current status, and future directions in a variety of countries.

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Dr. Nagwa M. Megahed
Ain Shams University
Women's College of Arts, Sciences, and Education
Cairo, Egypt
e-mail: nmegahed@equipegypt.org

Dr. Amal M. Otaiba
Ain Shams University
Women's College of Arts, Sciences, and Education
Cairo, Egypt
e-mail: amal_otaiba@hotmail.com

Comparative Education in Iran

Abdolmajid Eskandari & Sina Eskandari

The history of systematic study of Comparative Education as an academic discipline in its modern sense dates back to the beginning of the establishment of faculties of educational science in the modern Iranian universities some 70 years ago. This discipline has been regularly taught in many universities including University of Tehran within the format of three unit credits at undergraduate programs.

The Department of Management and Educational Planning at the venue of the Faculty of Psychology and Education, the University of Tehran offers courses on Comparative Education. The program aims at training experts and reinforcing logical and critical thinking of students. The goal is also to train individuals to make comparisons between the existing programs and those offered in other countries and thereby be able to propose efficient models to enhance the existing ones locally. It is also offered in two credit units at Master's degree programs within courses like Educational Research and Academic Planning.

Since ten years ago, Comparative Education has also been presented in the Master's degree program at the Faculty of Psychology and Education at Allameh Tabatabaee University and some other universities in big cities as well. Furthermore, in the non-joined undergraduate syllabuses of Teacher Training Universities, Comparative Education is one of the sub-fields of Primary Education.

Among the eminent scholars who have worked in this area are Dr. Yamni Sorkhabi, Dr. Almasi, Dr. Farjad, Dr. Aghazadeh, Dr. Mirzabeiki, Dr. Elham Hakimzadeh, Dr. Sarkar Arani, Dr. Ezat Khademi Ashkezari (Alzahra University), Dr. Hamid Rahimian (Allameh University) and Dr. Golnar Mehran. Dr. Golnar Mehran is a faculty member of Alzahra University and graduate of this field. She received her Ph.D. in Education from the University of California in Los Angeles (UCLA) where she has frequently been visiting professor at the Graduate School of Education. She is a member of the Editorial Board of various international journals on Comparative Education and a well known scholar in international circles.

Prof. Mohammad Reza Sarkar Arani in Allameh University is a graduate of Shahid Beheshti and Tarbiat Modaress universities in Iran. He got his Ph.D. from Nagoya University, Japan in 1999 in Comparative and International Education. He has outstanding researches on the Educational System of Japan. Recently he has published a book in Iran, together with two Japanese authors, entitled *Education as a Culture*.

As mentioned, Alameh Tabatabaee University also offers Comparative Education programs at both undergraduate and graduate levels. The aim of these programs is to train experts who are familiar with philosophical, psychological, economic, political, social, cultural and historical foundations of different educational systems in the world. This feature will enable them to plan, teach, publish and examine educational issues of our country based on scientific methods. It will also help them to use the experiences of other countries to find proper solutions in harmony with the national culture and to meet current and future needs of society. Using this knowledge, they will be able to present new ideas in educational planning.

In many universities of capital cities of provinces like Ferdowsi University of Mashhad and Alzahra University, the course of Comparative Education is offered as a sub-theme of Educational Management and Planning and Curriculum Planning at the Faculty of Educational Science and Psychology, Philosophy and History of Education.

As for the course of comparative education studies in Iran, it can be said that most of the research which have been conducted so far are within the format of theses or papers presented at international conferences or published in international journals. For example 'A Comparative Study of Education in Iran and Malaysia', by Monir Peymanfar, M.A. Student of Psychology and Social Science under the supervision of Prof. Nasreh Molana and Prof. Mehdi Davani at Islamic Azad University (Central Tehran) in 2005, 'A Comparative Study of the Education Systems of England and Iran' by Tayebeh Kashaniyan, M.A. student of Social Science and Psychology at Islamic Azad University (Central Branch) under the supervision of Prof. Nasereh Molana and Prof. Mostafa Asgarian in 2002.

At some periods both the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology (former Ministry of Culture and Higher Education) and the Ministry of Education conducted systematic comparative studies as part of the making of educational reform plans. For instance when a change in the intermediate educational system had been placed in the blueprint of the Ministry of Education, a special committee had been appointed to study various educational systems to learn about successful experiences. The same also has happened in preparing the Vision Document of Higher Education when a special committee was set up to study different higher educational systems. These committees have also visited many countries to observe various educational systems. It is worth mentioning that in the area of higher education, the inclusion of successful experiences of other countries has been easier due to the flexible nature of higher education programs.

There are also many articles posted in various websites in Persian on Comparative Education by freelance researchers, for example an article on 'What is Comparative Education' by Mohammad Ehsani, expert of the Ministry of Education. Students can also find many interesting books on Comparative Education in the market in Persian language including:

- *Comparative Studies of Education of Secondary Schools in Germany, UK, France, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Egypt and Iran* by Alireza Asareh (Author) and Shiva Ahmadi (Editor), published by Yadvareh Ketab Publication in 2007;
- *Comparative Education 1*, by Davood Ghafari, published by Azar Barzin Publishing House in 2002;
- *Methods of Education Assessment (Comparative Education...)* by Alireza Kyamanesh, published by Payam-e Noor University in 1994.

Also part of the research projects supported by the Research Institute for Education, Ministry of Education of I.R. of Iran (www.rie.ir) includes topics related to Comparative Education such as: "Comparative Study of Technical and Vocational Training in Some Countries of the World", "Comparative Study of Counseling Systems", "Comparative Study of the Structure of Education in Some Countries" and "Presenting a Proper Model for the Iranian Educational System". Some of the titles of the projects related to comparative education conducted by researchers of the Research Institute for Education in 2009 are: "Comparative Study of Non-Governmental Schools Conditions in the Education System of Iran", "Centralized and Decentralized Educational Systems (Comparing Iranian Non-Governmental Schools with some

Asian, European, African, American and Australian Schools)”, “A Comparative Study of School-oriented Approaches in Educational Systems” by Dr. Kiyomars Falahi; and “Comparative Study of Counseling Programs for Family in Iran and the World” by Dr. Farzaneh Mikaeeli. Through these comparative research projects, blind imitation of educational systems or higher education systems has been rejected and efforts are made to avoid such a pitfall and instead benefit from the successful experiences regarding curricula, contents, syllabus and structure as models in other places.

Another issue related to Comparative Education in Iran is the establishment of Comparative Education Complexes. The Supreme Council of Education monitors the activities of such Comparative Education Complexes which are established for the studies of Iranian students who have spent part of their life abroad and are not familiar with Persian or unable to adapt themselves with the current educational system. These complexes help the children of Iranian citizens living abroad who return to their homeland and prepare them to continue their studies in regular schools.

In recent years, both education and higher education policy makers of Iran have attached great significance to this area of study as a way to promote quality. As an example, the Department of Comparative Studies and Innovation in Higher Education has been established in the Institute of Research and Planning for Higher Education affiliated with the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. Some of the main duties of this body are as follows:

- Conducting necessary studies on innovations in higher education
- Reviewing innovation in higher education systems in different countries (industrial, semi- industrial and developing countries)
- Conducting a comparative study of different strategies of education and learning in higher education
- Carrying out a comparative study of the contents of curriculum of higher education systems (Iran as compared with other countries)
- Conducting a comparative study on methods of student admission, selection and other factors affecting higher education in different countries
- Conducting studies in establishing new disciplines and if necessary interpreting the contents of courses
- Making an assessment of educational programs and presenting suggestions
- Reviewing published scientific data by world organization on higher education in order to identify the latest scientific changes of universities and higher education centers
- Helping with holding scientific seminars and establishment of academic ties between the institute and other related scientific bodies
- Reviewing ethical and cultural issues of students
- Holding educational workshops on research methodologies
- Reviewing, assessment and carrying out projects.

The area of research in comparative higher education is vast of which the following can be mentioned:

- Standard models of curriculum
- Access to higher education
- Inequality in higher education
- Quality assurance in higher education
- The process of assessment of faculty members
- Academic success /failure

- Comparative study of women higher education
- Comparative study of tuition fees
- Sources of income in different higher education systems
- Comparative study of policies of higher education

Conclusion

Comparative Education is a mechanism to establish an efficient educational system. There is no universal prescriptive blueprint for every country and policy makers should consider various factors in the process of comparison such as culture, religion, social condition, regional and international position, the needs of society and geographical locations. Education is the infrastructure of sustainable development. Learning about educational systems of other countries will help national education policy makers to have a true understanding of their own and in designing educational reforms. Comparative Education is a way to find a global common language in the area of education while considering cultural, social and geographical differences. The result is the promotion of quality of educational programs at regional, international and global scenes. In recent years, many meaningful changes have taken place in the Iranian higher education system. No doubt comparative education studies have played a significant role in the success of these programs.

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Abdolmajid Eskandari
Deputy Director-General
Office of International Relations and Planning, University of Tehran
I. R. of Iran
e-mail: eskandar@ut.ac.ir

Sina Eskandari
Young Researchers Club
Islamic Azad University, North Tehran Branch, Tehran
I. R. of Iran
e-mail: sinaeskandari.ir@gmail.com

Comparative Education in Universities in the Sultanate of Oman

Hamood K. Al-Harhi

Introduction

The Sultanate of Oman as the formal name of the country of Oman is not well known for many people outside the Middle East area. Even among the Middle Easterns, Oman is less known compared to its neighboring countries of Saudi Arabia and the other Gulf States. However, Oman is among the oldest countries and civilizations in the Middle East. It is located in Southwest Asia, on the southeast coast of the Arabian Peninsula. It borders the United Arab Emirates in the northwest, Hormuz Strait and Iran in the North, Saudi Arabia in the west, and Yemen in the southwest. The coast is formed by the Arabian Sea in the south and east, and the Gulf of Oman in the northeast. It covers 309,000 square kilometer with a coastline extending 1,700 kilometers. Coastline plains represent about 3% of the total land area; mountain ranges occupy another 15%, while the rest of the country is mainly sand and gravel desert (MoI, 2007).

Historically, the Omanis were among the first people to embrace Islam voluntarily in around 630 AD during the life of the Prophet Mohammed. By the Middle Ages, Oman had established itself as a prosperous seafaring nation. In the early 16th century the Portuguese troops invaded Oman and captured some of the coastal areas, occupying them for up to 150 years before being defeated in 1650. Since then Oman entered an era of prosperity at home and abroad. However, expansion ended in 1744 when civil war erupted between rival Omani tribes over the election of a new Imam. As a result, Persian forces invaded some coastal areas for a short period until Imam Ahmed Bin Said was elected in the same year to establish the period of the current royal family.

No country since Persia has successfully invaded Oman which, by the 19th century was a sovereign power in its own right, expanding its territory across the Arabian Gulf and East Africa, where it controlled the island of Zanzibar. The country went on to establish political links with the other great powers of the time, including Britain, France, the Netherlands and the United States. However in the early part of the 20th century, Oman entered a period of decline and isolation. This isolation ended when the current Sultan, his majesty Sultan Qaboos, came to power in 1970.

Oman's population was 2,331,391 as of the 2003 Census with one quarter of this number being expatriates. The percentage of females is 49.1% of the total population. Oman has proportionately a large number of young people - around 40% of the population is under 15 years (MoI, 2007). Most people in the country are Muslims with Arabic as the national language. The country depends on oil as its main income source. However, agriculture, fishery, tourism, and mining are other sources of income.

Before 1970 there were only three formal primary schools in Oman. Two were in the capital and another one in the South. These schools had only 900 male students. There were, in addition, hundreds of informal religious schools, mostly to teach Quran in mosques and forts. Therefore, Oman experienced a very high rate of illiteracy. Since 1970 the government has focused on expanding educational institutions in the country.

This has resulted in a dramatic increase in the number of schools and educational institutions. As of 2007 statistics, the number of public schools is 1053, enrolling 563,602 students with female students representing 49%. In addition, the number of private schools is 170 schools enroll 32,134 students (MoE, 2007).

Public higher education in Oman is new and very limited. The number of institutions is low compared to the high demand for enrollment. There is only one public four year university, and further a few public colleges that offer two-, three- or four-year programs in education, applied sciences, nursing, technology, and commerce. However, since 2000 there has been a rapid increase in the number of private higher education institutions. At the end of 2007 there are more than 20 private higher education institutions including five universities and other four-year colleges (MoHE, 2007).

History of Comparative Education

Comparative Education as a field of study is new in Oman, as is the case with formal education. The official introduction of comparative education took place with the opening of Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) in 1986. This only public university has currently eight colleges including the College of Education in which comparative education is offered. The College of Education has 3560 registered undergraduate and graduate students as of 2007, and consists of seven departments: the Department of Islamic Sciences, the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, the Department of Psychology, the Department of Foundations and Educational Administration, the Department of Physical Education, the Department of Arts Education, the Department of Educational Technology, and the Department of Pre-school Education. The College provides several graduate and undergraduate programs as well as programs offered jointly with other colleges in the University.

Comparative Education is offered by the Department of Foundations and Educational Administration and is taught in four specific comparative education courses and integrated in some parts of other courses (as will be shown below). In addition to teaching, Comparative Education is also seen in the presence and the activities of faculty members who teach comparative education courses. The total number of comparative education faculty members who have taught in the College of Education since its establishment in 1986 is eight. Among the current 15 permanent faculty members in the Department of Foundations and Educational Administration there are six who are specialists in Comparative Education. Around 2-3 visiting instructors of Comparative Education come every semester to the Department to participate in teaching. Because the media of instruction for comparative education courses is Arabic except for students majoring in teaching English, all the faculty members teaching are Arabs including those who teach in English. However, most of these faculty members are graduates of British or American universities.

Comparative Education is enhanced by publications of articles, and Ph.D. and master's theses in Comparative Education by faculty members in the Department. Although most of these publications are in Arabic and in most cases in Egyptian journals, there are some articles that have been published in non-Arabic journals (e.g. Al-Harhi & Ginsburg, 2003). However, the majority of work published in English about the educational system or educational issues in Oman using a comparative approach has not been conducted by the faculty of Comparative Education in the

Department, but rather by researchers from other departments in the College of Education or other colleges at SQU and by researchers working for other educational governmental organizations including visiting experts to these organizations. Examples of these papers are: Murphy, Ambusaidi & Beggs, 2006; Al-Bandary, 2005; Al-Issa, 2005; Al-Lamki, 2002; Arden-Close, 1999.

Membership in international comparative education societies especially the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) and the Egyptian Comparative Education & Educational Administration Society (ECEEAS), is another venue for the participation of SQU faculty members in comparative education activities. This membership has started originally during the postgraduate studies of these faculty members and continued after graduation and return to Oman. Attending and presenting about Oman in conferences organized by these international comparative education societies, especially the CIES has become a tradition among some comparative education faculty at SQU.

Courses of Comparative Education

Comparative Education presents one of the five academic domains offered by the Department of Foundations and Educational Administration (DEFA, 2005). These domains are Foundations of Education, Educational Administration and Planning, Continuing and Adult Education, Educational Research, and Comparative Education. The domain of Comparative Education consists of one College elective course "EDUC 4005 Comparative Education," and three core courses "EDUC 3104 Educational System and its Administration in Oman and the Gulf States;" "EDUC 4105 Future Trends of Education;" and "EDUC 3114 Comparative Educational Administration". Each of the four courses represents three credit hours with normally 3-4 contact hours each week. Among these courses, the course of "Educational System and its Administration in Oman and the Gulf States" is the main course. It is offered as a core course for senior students in the Bachelor of Education program, for students in the Bachelor of Educational Administration program¹, and for students in the Educational Qualification Diploma program. Both the course of "Future Trends of Education" and the course of "Comparative Educational Administration" are only offered for students in the Bachelor of Educational Administration program. On the other hand, the elective Comparative Education course has not been offered recently due to the increase in the student enrollment to the College of Education that makes it difficult for the Department to offer elective courses.

Aims of Teaching Comparative Education

The main aim of comparative education teaching is to show the "best practices," provide "international" models of educational systems, administration and practices,

¹ This program is a special program that has started in 2002 and designed for school principals who graduated from the Intermediate Colleges of Teachers with a two-year diploma. In addition to the transferred credits from the Diploma, students in this program take 98 credit hours mostly in educational administration in order to graduate with a Bachelor of Educational Administration.

and compare them with counterparts in Oman and in some courses in other Gulf States. The aim of this comparison is that students can “understand” these international models and figure the strengths and weakness of the Omani educational system assuming that these students will be practitioners and policymakers in this system. This main aim is fulfilled differently through the specific aims of each of the four comparative education courses in the Department.

For example, the course of "Educational System and its Administration in Oman and the Gulf States" is based on the concept of educational system and other related concepts and their application to the educational systems in Oman and the Arab Gulf States. It aims to analyze different local and global social, cultural, political, and economic factors affecting these systems. It also works to provide comparative descriptions and perspectives between educational systems in Oman and the Gulf States and other educational systems worldwide. Other aims of the course are to make students familiar with the structure and organization, administration and finance, and innovations and reforms of educational systems in the Arab Gulf States with a special focus on Oman.

Comparative Educational Administration course is designed on the assumption that students will be able to do the following:

- To know the theoretical basis of Comparative Educational Administration.
- To be familiar with some issues in educational administration from comparative perspectives.
- To analyze the styles of administering education in the contemporary world.
- To compare models of administering education in developed and developing countries.
- To show how educational administration in Oman can benefit from international models.

The "Future Trends of Education" course aims to make the students know the theoretical basis and methodologies of futuristic studies in education; to know some of the international trends in futuristic studies in education; and to analyze the futuristic plans for education in Oman and compare them internationally.

Finally, the elective "Comparative Education" course aims that students achieve the following goals:

- To know the concepts of Comparative Education and its importance.
- To understand the factors affect designing educational policies.
- To be familiar with the contemporary educational trends in developed countries.
- To be able to compare Arab educational systems with its international counterparts.

Curricula, Teaching Methods, and Evaluation

The curricula of the above courses differ in terms of detailed contents of the sessions in each course but share a common approach of comparing education in Oman whether it is the educational system as a whole or the educational administration with its counterparts in the Gulf Area or internationally. Taking the course of "Educational System and its Administration in Oman and the Gulf States" as an example we find the following themes:

1. Educational System: A theoretical background

2. Historical, philosophical, and social foundations of educational systems in Oman and the Gulf States
3. Structure and organization of educational systems in Oman and the Gulf States
4. Educational administration and classroom management
5. Omani teachers:
 - a. Teachers' preparation and training
 - b. Teachers' rights and responsibilities
6. Educational systems in Oman and the Gulf States and the State
 - a. Governance
 - b. Finance
 - c. Privatization and private education
 - d. National and human development
7. Curriculum and evaluation
8. Higher education in Oman and the Gulf
9. Educational reforms/innovations in Oman and the Gulf States
10. Current national/international educational issues

These sessions are organized into three complementary parts. These parts are a theoretical background about the topic of each session, followed by examples from educational systems in Oman and the Gulf States and ended with a comparison with other educational systems worldwide. The comparison with international models is generally conducted through students' presentations about each session's theme in other countries.

There are four main units in the curriculum of "Comparative Educational Administration":

1. Theoretical background
 - a. Definition of Comparative Educational Administration
 - b. Aims of Comparative Educational Administration
 - c. Issues for research in Comparative Educational Administration
 - d. Difficulties facing research in Comparative Educational Administration
2. Educational administration in developed countries
 - a. USA
 - b. UK
 - c. France
 - d. Germany
 - e. Japan
 - f. Australia
 - g. Other countries
3. Educational administration in developing countries
 - a. Models from Latin America
 - b. Models from Africa
 - c. Models from Asia
4. Educational administration in the Arab Gulf States

Textbooks and learning materials for comparative education courses are in Arabic except a textbook entitled *Education in the Arab Gulf States and the Sultanate of Oman* authored in 2006 by Salha Issan, one of the comparative education instructors at the Department and designed for students majoring in teaching English and taking the course of "Educational System and its Administration in Oman and the Gulf States."

However, because information about educational systems worldwide are changing frequently most of the textbooks are used as additional sources and in most cases for the theoretical aspects of the course while information and innovations are taken from Internet sites, and publication of the Ministry of Education and other concerned agencies.

While textbooks and the Internet sites to some extent are similar among different sections and instructors in each course, teaching methods vary among these instructors. For example, while some instructors depend mainly on lecture and discussions others use WebCT and other technological devices. Yet, student presentations mainly about educational systems in other countries are very common in most sections. Similarly, there is some variation in evaluation methods among different sections. Final and midterm exams are core in each section but student discussions, student presentations, article reviews, reflection papers, action research are also used in some sections.

The Future of Comparative Education

The future of Comparative Education in Oman and in SQU in particular is promising due to globalization of which reforming basic and higher educational systems become a target. This can be seen in the Basic Education reform that has started in 1998 and in which "reaching the international standards in education" has been the main target. This target requires "studying" and bringing international models and experiences, so that Oman "benefit" from these experiences and "develop" its education, economy, and the country as a whole. As a result two main strategies for education and research have been put in place in the country. The first is "The Strategy of Education 2006-2020" and the second is "The Strategy of Scientific Research in the Sultanate of Oman". Both strategies call for more international orientation of educational system in the country. In addition, one of the recommendations of "The Strategy of Scientific Research in the Sultanate of Oman" is to make Oman as "a center for comparative education studies".

In addition, Oman presents great possibilities for comparative studies, especially in education due to many factors. The first is the nature of Oman culture and society, which attempts to strike a balance between traditions of Islam and Arabic culture and modernity. The second is the rapid human development of the country which has managed to move in the UNDP human development indicators from a low human development country in the 1970s and early the 1980s to be a high human development country in 2006. The third is the unique educational development mentioned above. The fourth is the international interaction among faculty in higher education, particularly at SQU where the faculty members and technicians are from 55 different nationalities.

As a result for all the above developments, the Department of Foundations and Educational Administration at the College of Education, SQU is undertaking a plan to establish a postgraduate program at the Master's level for International and Comparative Education before 2010 that can accommodate researchers and postgraduate students who are interested in the field not only from Oman but also from other neighboring Gulf States.

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Dr. Hamood K. Al-Harhi
Assistant Professor of International and Comparative Education
College of Education
Sultan Qaboos University
Oman
email: hamood99@hotmail.com; hharthi@squ.edu.om

PART VI

*Comparative Education at
Universities in Africa*

Comparative Education in Burundi

Herménégilde Rwantabagu

Introduction

Traditional education in Burundi was holistic in nature as it sought to achieve the triple aim of socializing the young, moulding their personality and preparing them for the productive tasks of adulthood. Although static and conservative, it had implicit interactions with the training models of neighbouring societies from which it drew inspiration and enrichment. Thus, it had an undeniable comparative dimension (Rwantabagu, 1992, p. 7).

The introduction by the missionaries of Western patterns of schooling has widened the scope of education. The colonially inherited school system, designed along the continental, Belgian model has remained elitist and liberal with an encyclopaedist curricular orientation. The latter has stood in sharp contrast to the neighbouring countries in Eastern Africa, where essentialist and utilitarian curricula have prevailed, along the Lockean epistemological style.

Today, teachers in Burundi have to grapple with a complexity of issues and situations within an expanding school system, where the inherited conceptions and pedagogical structures are being overhauled for innovative and more rational models.

In this context, the necessity for prospective teachers to learn Comparative Education is paramount as they need to have a comprehensive grasp of their changing school system within the context of regional integration and global interactions, against the background of traditional norms of education.

History of Comparative Education in Burundi

The history of Comparative Education as a Discipline dates back to the creation of senior primary teacher training schools (*écoles normales*) in the early 1960s. Within their professional curricula was included a broad subject: History of Education and Education in Other Countries. The latter component of the course was narrow in scope covering only aspects of education in neighbouring countries.

The formal teaching of Comparative Education started in earnest after 1965 with the creation of the Higher Teachers College (*Ecole Normale Supérieure*) where the discipline was to be systematically taught to tens of prospective high school teachers at a time. Today, in the same institution, the Comparative Education course is a key part of the training programme and is attended by hundreds of candidates.

The University of Burundi opened a Faculty of Education in 1977 to train education experts and managers. Comparative Education has been high on the agenda among the disciplines taught in the Faculty, attended by tens of candidates each year. In the same way the discipline has been taught at the Institute of Physical Education and Sport since about the same year.

Present State

At present, there is a substantial Comparative Education course that is taught at undergraduate level both within the University of Burundi and the Higher Teachers College (Ecole Normale Supérieure). At the University level, there is a difference in emphasis as between the general course taught in the Faculty of Education and a certain orientation towards Comparative Physical Education and Sport at the Institute for Physical Education (Bennett, Howell & Simri, 1983). At the Higher Teachers College whose mission is to train high school teachers, emphasis is laid on comparing pedagogical processes – curricula and methods – as they are practiced in different cultural contexts.

However, despite those slight differences in orientation the course content is basically the same as it is taught in all the locations by the same teacher. On the whole, Comparative Education is a major and compulsory component within the professional cluster of disciplines.

Aims of Comparative Education Teaching

Three major aims are pursued in the teaching of Comparative Education.

The General or Theoretical Aim

The foremost goal of Comparative Education is to widen the intellectual horizons of students as prospective teachers. Indeed, the systematic study of education in various cultural contexts will enable the learner to appraise educational issues from a global rather than an ethnocentric perspective, by being aware of other nations' points of view. Hence, students need to acquire a broad view of education as a global enterprise that materializes differently in specific cultural contexts.

A comparative study of education can do much to foster the talent for constructive leadership (Thut & Adams, 1964, p. 45). Indeed, such a study serves to enhance the students' intellectual abilities and a sense of critical thinking by accessing information about the aspirations, priorities and experiences of others. Thus, the study of Comparative Education will equip the student with skills to act more intelligently within various spheres of responsibility. Indeed, within the African context, a prospective teacher needs to acquire a broad knowledge of the complex worldwide economic, cultural and other forces that are shaping his country's education system.

At the academic level, the study of Comparative Education will enable the student to perceive the recurrent nature of pedagogical phenomena, as well as the universal principles that underlie the functioning of education systems. Indeed, as Paul Masson-Oursel has emphasized, no science has moved forward without being comparative (Masson-Oursel, 1931, p. 12). The student will come to realize that a "science of education giving directive power can be developed through comparative studies" (Trethewey, 1976, p. 30) and that, indeed, education is a consistent social science discipline (Lê Thành Khoá, 1981, p. 34).

The Practical Aim

The second aim is practical and professional, that is equipping the candidate with concepts and methodological tools that will enable him as a teacher-to-be, to adopt a critical conception of education in his own country, so as to participate in an informed manner in the ongoing debates on education reform. In this perspective, the world is

presented as what Bereday calls a “vast educational laboratory” (Bereday, 1964, p. 6) within which all kinds of reforms and innovations are adopted and implemented more or less successfully with the lessons and inspiration that experience can provide for action to be taken at home, both at the systemic level and in the classroom.

The Pacifist Perspective

Lastly, the aim of teaching Comparative Education is to bring the future teacher to have a relativistic view of Education and Culture and to appreciate other societies and nations with their religious, ideological and other differences. Indeed, as education is a mirror of society, a student of Comparative Education is bound to learn to transcend all kinds of acquired prejudices and mental barriers which are the source of mistrust, tension and inter-communal conflict (Kaime, 2006, p. 291).

Within the African context, Comparative Education will help to bridge the gap between the relatively insulated entities that are Anglophone, Arabophone, Francophone and Lusophone blocks of countries, which are a result of the colonial legacy, thus strengthening a Pan-African perspective. Hence, the study of Comparative Education will provide the prospective teacher with the tools to become an artisan of peace and international understanding in his classroom and beyond, as stipulated in article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The pacifist perspective is of particular significance for students who are bound to operate in the Great Lakes region of Africa that has been deeply affected by inter-communal conflicts and divisions.

Curricula

The content of the Comparative Education courses in Burundi comprises three dimensions: the theoretical foundation, the analysis of selected school systems worldwide, and the study of major international issues in education, society and culture.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical component contains the definition and conceptions of Comparative Education as formulated by various scholars as well as the characteristics, and the pitfalls and challenges of the discipline. The same part covers the aims and objectives of the discipline from the viewpoint of a prospective education, Comparative Education being thus conceptualized as a strategic field in the training of teachers.

The methodological approaches proposed by various authors are explored and analyzed, from the 19th century descriptive methods through the historical-functional methods of the early 20th century, to Holmes’ problem-solving approach and other contemporary quantitative methods such as those followed by Noah and Eckstein, and others. The applicability of those methods to the local context is assessed.

Finally, the historical evolution of Comparative Education is outlined and analyzed. Here, a broad distinction is drawn between the pre-historical stage of the discipline starting from Egyptian, Greek and Roman antiquity through the Middle Ages and the Renaissance period to the age of the enlightenment by the close of the 18th century.

The history phase commencing with M. A. Jullien de Paris and other 19th century pioneers such as Victor Cousin and Horace Mann is explored. Particular attention is drawn to the theoretical foundations of the discipline with reference to Michael Sadler, Isaac Kandel, and Nicholas Hans during the interbellum period. The historical

perspective concludes with a broad analysis of the worldwide changes in societies and school systems after the Second World War, with their impact on the evolution of Comparative Education as a forward looking discipline. The role of international organizations such as UNESCO, ALECSO (Arab League Educational Cultural and Scientific Organization), the World Bank and other agencies is highlighted (Vexliard, 1967, p. 34).

Analysis of School Systems

The second part covers the comparative study of selected school systems in Africa, the Arab World, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, the European Union, North America and Oceania (Australia and Pacific Island nations). Within each region, countries with a common background and divergent orientations are paired and compared such as France and England, China and Japan, Cuba and Peru, a Francophone and an Anglophone country in Africa (Sifuna, Chege & Oanda, 2006, pp. 318-350). The comparison covers the socio-economic and cultural background, the aims and philosophy of education, administrative organization and funding, the schooling structure, the curricula and methods, and the modes of evaluation.

Study of Major International Educational Issues

The contemporary international issues in education component covers such themes as education and economic development, education, language and cultural diversity, as well as dependency and interdependency in education within the world system.

The Comparative Education course is basically uniform throughout the University and in the Higher Teachers College, except for a Comparative Physical Education and Sport supplement at the Institute for Physical Education.

Methods

With regard to teaching methodology, a variety of approaches are utilized, that is through lectures for the presentation of issues which are then discussed interactively in the classroom. A list of the commonly used textbooks is provided in the Annex. Besides, students undertake group work using the library resources or visit foreign schools in the city (like the French, Congolese and Belgian schools) and make presentations which are debated upon. Finally, the lecturer invites a guest speaker from a foreign diplomatic mission or an international organization to speak to and exchange with students on a particular country or a broad educational issue. For the future, if the right security situation prevails, a visit to schools in Eastern Congo is envisaged for observation, exchange with teachers and education authorities and comparative considerations on various aspects of Congolese culture and school system.

Conclusion

Comparative Education is a dynamic discipline in Burundi which attracts the interest of students as prospective teachers, school managers and policy makers. The discipline is bound to spread to all private colleges and universities as they introduce a teacher training component in their programmes. This will make it possible to have a consistent number of scholars to create a national Comparative Education Society that will constitute an ideal forum for interacting and exchanging ideas on critical issues of our time.

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Prof. Dr. Herménégilde Rwantabagu
University of Burundi
Faculty of Education
Bujumbura, Burundi
e-mail: hermerwanta@hotmail.com

L'éducation comparée en Afrique Centrale: situation et perspectives

Pierre Marie Njiale

Abstract

The goal of this chapter is to present an inventory of fixtures of the development of Comparative Education as a research and discipline of teaching in Central Africa during the last fifty years. The analyses concern the French-speaking countries of the Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa. Three principal aspects are approached: the contribution of international organizations during the first time of development of Comparative Education; the role of the experts and researchers in the African inking of the tradition specialist in comparative literature in education; and, the actual position of the places of Comparative Education. The data used come from a documentary compilation of work on education in Africa and particularly in Central Africa (UNESCO, 2009). It becomes clear that Comparative Education is in the middle of research but is not the subject of lively interest such as the disciplines taught. It seems necessary to encourage the institutionalization of teaching and research in Comparative Education.

Les systèmes éducatifs africains sont nés des modèles français, anglais, espagnol ou portugais de colonisation. Il s'agit bien d'un héritage, dont le pilotage, dès les débuts, tendait à accomplir les aspirations et volontés avouées et inavouées des premiers dirigeants africains à faire de l'école le levier d'un développement sociétal authentique et moderne. Du fait même que les problèmes que rencontraient les nations nouvellement indépendantes étaient en partie imputables à un manque de cadres locaux adéquatement formés, il était admis que l'expansion de la scolarisation contribuerait à l'amélioration de la situation économique et sociale. Ainsi, depuis la charte de l'éducation adoptée à la conférence d'Addis Abeba (1961), en passant par l'esprit de la déclaration de Jomtien en Thaïlande (1990) sur l'éducation pour tous, suivi du cadre d'action arrêté à Dakar (2000), les pays africains au sud du Sahara ont alloué, au développement de l'éducation dans son ensemble, des ressources financières importantes. A la lumière des expériences menées, de nombreux rapports actuels (Unesco, 2009) confortent l'idée que l'éducation en Afrique demeure après tout un défi à relever par des initiatives politiques et scientifiques fort originales.

Cet article, dans son orientation, se réfère aux pays francophones appartenant à la zone CEMAC¹. Il y a près de 50 ans que ces pays ont acquis leur indépendance politique et aujourd'hui, il est possible de dire qu'en dépit de nombreux efforts, la

¹ Cemac : Communauté Economique et Monétaire de l'Afrique Centrale. Elle se compose du Cameroun, Congo, Gabon, République Centre Africaine, Tchad. La Guinée Equatoriale, membre de la Cemac, ne fait pas partie de cette recherche.

situation en matière d'éducation y demeure problématique². Dans l'ensemble, on dénote en parlant de l'éducation qu'il s'agit d'un aspect du développement humain qui en dehors des politiques a suscité de l'intérêt chez des chercheurs africains et internationaux. Aussi on dispose, de nos jours, au sujet des systèmes éducatifs des six pays concernés, une quantité importante de données issues de la recherche en sciences sociales et humaines. Partant de ce constat, il nous a semblé tout à fait légitime d'interroger et de clarifier les contributions, la place et le rôle de l'éducation comparée en tant que base scientifique susceptible de contribuer à l'analyse, à la compréhension et à la résolution des problèmes éducatifs.

Ce faisant, et avant toute analyse, il se justifie de situer conceptuellement l'éducation comparée. En effet, pour peu que l'on s'intéresse au concept éducation comparée, on constate qu'il répond à de nombreuses acceptions. Hangli Shu et Nanzhao Zhou (1990:70) l'emploient pour désigner simplement « la discipline qui s'attache aux comparaisons entre systèmes d'éducation et entre éléments à l'intérieur de chacun de ces systèmes ». Pour ces auteurs, l'éducation comparée est à la fois un domaine de la pédagogie appliquée et un secteur de l'action éducative qui se prête à la coopération transnationale. De l'avis de la Chamber's Encyclopedia (1970), l'éducation comparée « ne se ramène pas à l'étude systématique de nombreux systèmes éducatifs qui existent dans le monde. Elle s'emploie plutôt à examiner les éléments déterminants des politiques éducatives c'est-à-dire à mettre en évidence les forces qui façonnent l'éducation dans différents contextes nationaux et culturels. Elle relève les différences, les ressemblances et les interprète en termes historiques et sociologiques. Elle met en lumière l'influence de facteurs tels que la race, la classe sociale, la religion, la langue, le nationalisme, l'industrialisation et l'idéologie sur la structure des systèmes et sur le programme, ainsi que sur les méthodes d'enseignement ».

Yoloye (1990) constate pour sa part que les spécialistes de l'éducation ne parviennent pas toujours à s'entendre sur la conception et les méthodes de l'éducation comparée. Malgré des nuances dans sa clarification, on croit savoir que l'éducation comparée a pour objet d'étude soit les systèmes éducatifs, soit des questions spécifiques, soit la totalité de l'éducation. Elle a le souci de souligner, à travers les systèmes d'enseignement, les concordances, les analogies, les différences, les disparités ou les contraintes. L'éducation comparée dans son déploiement peut se situer à différents niveaux : national, vertical (du point de vue de l'histoire) et transnationale ou horizontal.

Pour les besoins de la présente analyse, par éducation comparée, on comprendra les activités d'enseignement, d'études et de recherches axées sur la comparaison au sein d'un Etat-nation ou de plusieurs Etats du point de vue éducatif.

A la lumière de cette définition, le présent essai s'inscrit dans une perspective visant à décrire les formes de développement et de contribution de l'éducation comparée en tant que enseignement et / ou recherche. Il s'agit, en la matière, de faire un état des lieux en cernant ce qui est fait et reste à faire. Dans ce sens, la question qui nous a

² La situation éducative dans ce pays se caractérise par : un taux brut de scolarisation primaire moyen ; des inégalités d'accès et de participation à l'éducation de base entre garçons et filles ; un taux de redoublement élevé et un faible taux de rétention ; une insuffisance des infrastructures scolaires.

préoccupés a été la suivante : comment s'est développée la tradition comparatiste en éducation dans les pays concernés ? Autrement dit, quelle place occupe l'éducation comparée dans l'enseignement et la recherche dans ces pays ? Pour répondre à cette question, les propos qui suivent s'articulent autour de trois principaux points : en premier lieu, nous examinerons les aspects qui touchent les débuts de la tradition comparatiste en éducation en évoquant le rôle des organisations internationales. Ensuite, nous traiterons de l'apport des experts non originaires d'Afrique Centrale dans le domaine. Enfin, le point sera fait sur le développement actuel de l'éducation comparée dans les pays Cemac.

Les débuts de la tradition comparatiste en éducation en Afrique centrale

Tout au long de la décennie qui suit les indépendances en 1960, les systèmes éducatifs des pays africains vont bénéficier, de la part des anciennes puissances coloniales et des organisations internationales telles que l'Unesco, le Bie (Bureau internationale de l'éducation), la Banque Mondiale, un appui tout indiqué. En ces moments, portée par une vague d'espérance, l'éducation a pour objectifs immédiats de : former les cadres et professionnels dont a besoin l'administration, les services techniques et l'économie ; faire reculer l'ignorance pour assurer le développement endogène, le but fondamental étant de faire de l'éducation le vecteur de l'unité ou de l'intégration nationale. Il fallait alors accroître les effectifs en promouvant la scolarisation primaire et élémentaire. Dans le but de soutenir les politiques éducatives mises sur pied, les législateurs se fondent donc sur la coopération internationale. Dans leur lien avec les organisations de développement et d'aide, les pays africains vont rechercher les solutions à leurs problèmes internes d'éducation en se référant à ce qui est fait au-delà de leurs frontières. Celles-ci en leur apportant assistance vont contribuer à faire que l'on ait une idée concrète des problèmes éducatifs nationaux. En toute vraisemblance, en se référant aux travaux des anthropologues, ethnologues et sociologues tels Balandier Georges, Erny Pierre, les débuts de la tradition comparatiste dans l'éducation en Afrique subsaharienne remonteraient à l'époque coloniale.

Dans la continuité de la tradition héritée, la période post coloniale est décisive. Appelé à soutenir les pays africains nouvellement indépendants, d'entrée l'Unesco va, à la suite de la conférence d'Addis Abeba sur l'éducation (1961), s'impliquer en matière de recherche de solutions aux problèmes éducatifs africains. Par l'entremise de nombreux projets, cette institution va exercer un rôle pionnier et catalyseur en commanditant des études nationales et transnationales faisant ressortir les caractéristiques particulières aux différents systèmes éducatifs (Unesco, 1964, 1985).

Au Cameroun, par exemple c'est l'UNESCO qui incite les institutions pédagogiques naissantes, notamment l'Ecole Normale Supérieure (Ens) à entreprendre des travaux de recherche appliquée en éducation et à s'approprier les résultats obtenus. Ce soutien, entre autres, s'est matérialisé par la création d'une revue de pédagogie et la mise en place d'un organisme de recherche : le Centre National de l'Education (CNE).

Nombre de travaux initiés par l'Unesco, l'Usaid (Agency for International Development) des Etats-Unis, le Programme des nations unies pour le développement ou la Banque Mondiale durant les années 70, 80 et 90, ont permis de disposer des données objectives et comparées sur les systèmes de formation en Afrique Centrale. Les thèmes de recherche qui reviennent au cœur des travaux engagés concernent : les politiques éducatives, l'éducation des filles et de la femme, les disparités et les

inégalités régionales en matière d'éducation, le coût et le financement de la scolarisation.

Le rôle précurseur dans la comparaison en éducation d'autres organisations telles : le Confemen (Conférence des ministres de l'éducation nationale ayant le français en partage), le Breda (Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Afrique) mérite aussi d'être souligné. Dans cette veine, des enquêtes du Pasec³ et MLA⁴, portant sur plusieurs pays africains, dont le Cameroun, le Tchad, ont montré le faible niveau de performance chez les élèves en ce qui concerne la lecture et le calcul. Particulièrement, les programmes Pasec d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs ont abouti, à partir d'une perspective comparatiste, à l'étude de la question enseignante dans le processus de la scolarisation primaire universelle en 2015 dans les pays Cemac (Awelewonou et al, 2004). Le Breda, pour sa part, a coutume depuis les années 80 de procéder à une évaluation comparative des situations et rendements des pays africains et des dynamiques observées dans les différents niveaux d'éducation en Afrique Centrale.

Une étude de l'IEDES⁵ portant sur « l'enseignement en Afrique Tropicale » a contribué de façon remarquable à révéler les disparités, les progressions et les limites du développement de l'éducation en Afrique et ce selon les pays et régions. Cet ouvrage, fruit d'une recherche menée par un groupe de chercheurs sous la direction de Lê Thanh Khôi (1971) a, en son temps, permis de dresser un cadre de référence à l'analyse comparative des relations éducation et société en Afrique.

En leur qualité de membres de l'Unesco, les pays CEMAC participent depuis toujours à l'éducation internationale de l'Annuaire statistique de l'Unesco qui rassemble des informations comparatives sur les systèmes éducatifs des pays africains.

De nombreux rapports publiés par l'Unesco (2001), la Banque mondiale (2002) et qui évaluent le rendement scolaire dans différents pays africains, ceux de l'Afrique centrale compris, offrent des indicateurs de comparaison qui néanmoins mériteraient d'être approfondis.

Sans nul doute que les travaux initiés par les institutions internationales (Debeauvais, 1980) ont eu pour effet de contribuer à mieux identifier les problèmes éducatifs communs et réciproques à partir desquels les pays concernés ont défini des politiques et réformes adaptées à l'amélioration des enseignement-apprentissages.

Un bilan approfondi de la tradition comparatiste en éducation en Afrique Centrale ne saurait ignorer les contributions des experts internationaux que nous allons à présent considérer.

L'apport des experts et chercheurs internationaux

A ce sujet, les contributions des chercheurs étrangers n'est pas des moindres. Ainsi, des chercheurs tels : Lê Thanh Khôi (1967, 1971), Déblé (1964), Debeauvais (1980) comme co-fondateur de l'IEDES et du Gretaf (Groupe d'étude sur l'éducation en Afrique), Martin (1971), Santerre et Mercier Tremblay (1982) ont à de degré divers participé, pour leur compte ou celui des organismes de recherches, à des études diagnostiques et comparatives en Afrique centrale. Toujours dans cette même rubrique,

³ PASEC : Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Educatifs de la Confemen.

⁴ MLA : Monitoring Learning Achievement.

⁵ IEDES : Institut d'Etude du Développement Economique et Social.

il faut signaler les travaux des chercheurs de Rocare⁶ qui avec l'appui de l'Usaid, ont contribué, entre autres, à une analyse approfondie de l'enseignement dans les pays d'Afrique Centrale en abordant les questions liés à l'accès, à la qualité et à la participation communautaire (Rocare, 2002). C'est aussi le lieu de mentionner Caillods et Poslethwaite (1989) qui également ont effectué des études comparées sur « Les conditions d'enseignement et d'apprentissage dans les pays en développement » dont ceux de l'Afrique Centrale. A la liste qui précède, s'ajoutent les chercheurs tels que : Suchaut (2004); Mingat et Suchaut (2000) ; Jarousse et Mingat (1993). Le cinquième congrès mondial d'éducation comparée tenu à Paris du 2 au 6 juillet 1984 de par son thème « Dépendance et interdépendance dans l'éducation : rôle de l'éducation comparée » a été assez révélateur quant à la place centrale occupée par les systèmes éducatifs africains dans l'analyse comparative internationale. Globalement, les chercheurs non africains préoccupés par la question de l'éducation comparée en Afrique ont permis de rassembler quantité d'informations comparées sur les facteurs qui influencent la qualité de l'éducation. Le Gretaf par exemple a ainsi élaboré environ 197 indicateurs spécifiques pour la comparaison des aspects de l'éducation de base.

Développement et état actuel de l'éducation comparée en Afrique Centrale

L'une des caractéristiques communes aux pays concernés par la présente analyse est l'usage du français comme moyen de communication et d'enseignement. Malgré bien d'autres traits communs liés à un même passé colonial d'obédience française, ces pays présentent de grandes diversités sur le plan des développements socio économique et éducatif. Sur le plan démographique, les pays de la zone Cemac diffèrent par la taille de leurs populations. A l'exception du Cameroun, les autres pays comptent de un à moins de dix millions d'habitants. Du point de vue économique, les pays Cemac possèdent un potentiel important (minier, pétrole, bois, café, cacao) qui néanmoins ne permet pas d'élever le niveau du revenu par habitant. Ce faisant, 40 à 60% des populations de ces pays vivent au dessous du seuil de pauvreté.

En Cemac, l'éducation par ses effectifs et sa qualité a connu un essor significatif depuis 1960. Généralement calqués sur les modèles français ou anglais comme c'est le cas pour le Cameroun, il n'en demeure pas moins que les systèmes éducatifs de ces pays se sont développés en fonction des spécificités nationales dans lesquelles ils s'inscrivaient. Cette situation a ainsi constitué pour la recherche comparative une source indiquée d'analyses du point de vue de l'histoire, des époques, des contraintes, des ruptures et des inégalités liées à la diversité ethnique, culturelle, linguistique ainsi que l'attestent les travaux menés respectivement : au Cameroun par Mbuagbaw Tany (1968), Martin (1971, 1982), Marguerat (1969), Santerre et al. (1982) ; au Gabon par Diallo (2000) ; au Tchad par MBaïssou (1990) et Noumaye (1998, 2001).

Certaines recherches récentes (Njiale, 2007) dépassent le niveau national pour s'intéresser à la comparaison des modèles éducatifs dans les pays Cemac. Il est permis de constater que de 1960 à 1990, l'éducation comparée comme discipline d'enseignement n'a été guère assurée dans les établissements universitaires. Sans doute

⁶ ROCARE : Réseau Ouest et Centre Afrique de recherche en Education.

qu'une telle situation s'expliquerait par le fait que à la même époque il n'existait pas en France de chaire réservée à ce champ du savoir.

Au Cameroun, l'éducation comparée ne bénéficie pas jusqu'à nos jours d'une reconnaissance institutionnelle à part entière. Toutefois, elle fait l'objet des enseignements à l'école normale supérieure (Ens), dans les ENIEG (écoles normales d'instituteurs d'enseignement général) et à l'Université Catholique d'Afrique Centrale. Cette discipline dans les ENIEG consiste en un cours introductif hebdomadaire de deux heures dispensé dans les perspectives nationale, africaine et internationale. Du point de vue national, cet enseignement consiste à décrire le fonctionnement du système éducatif camerounais à différentes époques (coloniale et post coloniale) en dégagant les déséquilibres scolaires entre les régions, les villes et les campagnes. L'accent est mis sur les comparaisons relatives à la scolarisation filles-garçons ou celles qui mettent en exergue les origines ethniques. Toujours dans les ENIEG, le programme d'éducation comparée insiste sur l'analyse comparée des méthodes pédagogiques telles que : la nouvelle approche pédagogique (NAP) ; l'approche par compétences (APC) et la pédagogie par objectif (PPO).

Au plan international, le contenu de l'enseignement d'éducation comparée à l'Ens porte sur une analyse critique des systèmes éducatifs étrangers pour en dégager les changements qui s'y sont produits et faire le lien avec le cas camerounais.

En matière de recherche, deux à trois enseignants universitaires camerounais sont membres de l'association francophone d'éducation comparée (Afec). C'est dans le cadre d'une contribution à l'Afec qu'il faut situer certaines études de Njiale (2006, 2007). Une autre recherche camerounaise contributrice à l'éducation comparée est celle de Affa'a et Des Lierres (2002) procédant à une comparaison des caractéristiques des universités au Sénégal et au Cameroun. Une recherche de Nga Ndjoko (2009) montre à quel point l'éducation au Cameroun et dans les autres pays Cemac n'a pas été épargnée par la crise économique. Des données du Resen (Rapport de l'état du système éducatif national, 2005, 2006) font ressortir que le système éducatif camerounais se caractérise par d'importantes disparités régionales et des inégalités d'accès et de participation à l'école au détriment de filles.

Enfin, une étude récente de Gacougnolle et Mingat (2004) a permis d'établir que le sous système scolaire anglophone est plus performant comparativement au sous système scolaire francophone.

Comme organisme national de recherche, le Cne (Centre national d'Education) se donne tout autant à l'étude comparée des principaux changements ou bouleversements observés des le champ éducatif camerounais. Au Ministère de l'enseignement supérieur camerounais, il existe une sous-direction en charge des systèmes éducatifs comparés et des équivalences des diplômes.

Au Tchad, si la comparaison en matière d'éducation ne fait pas l'objet d'un enseignement régulier elle n'est néanmoins pas absente en matière de recherche universitaire comme c'est le cas pour des chercheurs comme Noumaye (1998, 2001) et Mbaïso (1990). En matière de comparaison nationale des faits éducatifs au Tchad, l'apport de l'Unesco (2003) et de la Banque Mondiale (2002) mérite d'être relevé.

Au Gabon, l'éducation comparée constitue en milieu scolaire une activité de recherche et d'enseignement peu répandue.

En RCA (République Centre Africaine), l'éducation comparée en tant que enseignement et recherche n'a pas particulièrement retenu l'attention des universitaires.

Il existe peu ou pas d'écrits sur ce pays en la matière à l'exception des recueils des données mondiales chiffrées sur l'éducation que élabore l'Unesco ou le Confemen.

Au Congo, on peut relever un timide intérêt pour la recherche comparative en éducation venant de la part de quelques chercheurs membres de l'Afec.

Ainsi que l'on peut le constater, l'éducation comparée n'a pas une tradition établie en Afrique Centrale. Les quelques efforts menés ici et là dans ce champs du savoir sont à mettre à l'actif de quelques universitaires. De toute évidence, la discipline est négligée. On peut donc comprendre pourquoi aucun Doctorat dans ce domaine n'a été décerné jusqu'à lors dans l'ensemble des universités des pays Cemac. A l'Université de Bourgogne (Dijon, France), Ngonga (2010) vient de soutenir une thèse de Doctorat portant sur « L'efficacité comparée de l'enseignement public et privé au Cameroun ».

Au niveau du Master ou du DEA (Diplôme d'études approfondies), très peu d'études en éducation sont entreprises dans une approche comparative. Cet état des choses est dû en partie au peu d'intérêt que portent les enseignants pour ce domaine et à leurs connaissances insuffisantes des paradigmes méthodologiques comparatistes.

Dans l'ensemble, il reste bien des questions à envisager pour assoir l'éducation comparée dans la recherche et l'enseignement en Afrique Centrale. L'un des grands défis dans ce domaine est de parvenir à l'imposer comme une discipline à part entière. A cette fin, le développement de la culture comparatiste est essentiel.

Dans cette contribution, nous nous sommes employé à démêler le difficile déploiement de l'éducation comparée en Afrique Centrale. Deux conclusions se dégagent de nos analyses .

La première est que, l'éducation comme champs de recherche et d'étude ne bénéficie pas d'une pratique formalisée et établie. Elle reste le fait de quelques chercheurs enseignants membres de l'Afec ou d'autres organisations d'études et de recherches. Il s'agit bien d'une discipline négligée en dépit de son importance.

La seconde conclusion est relative à l'absence de structures universitaires de recherche en éducation comparée ainsi que le manque de volonté des Etats de la région à mettre en commun efforts et données d'expériences éducatives aux fins d'une intégration régionale.

A une époque marquée par l'interdépendance croissante et la mondialisation, l'éducation comparée a une contribution certaine à apporter dans la compréhension des problèmes éducatifs nationaux et spécifiques à la Cemac.

Au regard de ce qui précède, relativement à l'éducation comparée en Afrique Centrale, ayons à l'esprit l'urgence de:

- Développer la coopération régionale pour des échanges des données d'expériences entre les pays Cemac;
- Considérer l'éducation comparée comme une spécialité à part entière en l'institutionnalisant pour ne pas en faire un domaine réservé à quelques chercheurs universitaires;
- Former les étudiants à la comparaison en tant que spécialité en éducation;
- Mettre l'éducation comparée au cœur de l'innovation en matière de politique éducative;
- Créer au niveau régional des réseaux de recherche et de publication en éducation comparée.

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Dr. Pierre Marie Njiale
Université de Yaoundé I
Faculté des Arts, Lettres et Sciences Humaines
e-mail: pmnjiale@yahoo.fr

L'éducation comparée au Rwanda: Situation, problèmes et perspectives

Comparative Education in Rwanda: Status, Problems and Prospects

Wenceslas Nzabairwa

Abstract

After the genocide in 1994, one of the challenges of Rwanda was the reconstruction of its education system. To rebuild the system, the country had to look at various experiences and select what was suitable for its system. The country embarked on far-ranging reforms such as education for all, teacher training and development, gender equality, ICT in education, distance learning and adult literacy. When adopting educational policies and programs, Rwanda had to borrow and adapt elements which had been proven in other countries and contexts. The country was hence adopting a comparative approach. The interest in Comparative Education began at the National Institute of Education, created in 1966, which was offering a course of Comparative Education in the Department of Psychopedagogy. The course is still being offered in the teacher training institutions. In Rwandan institutions of higher learning, Comparative Education does not exist as a specific discipline. It has always been offered as a course in institutions mandated for teacher training. This situation does not mean that Comparative Education is not known in Rwanda. National researchers have been using comparative methods as one of their main instruments of investigation. Generally, there is no unit to centralize statistical data and there are not enough financial and human resources to carry out research activities. During this time when Rwanda is joining Regional Communities, such as the East African Community, there is a need to establish a mechanism to bring together all persons interested in Comparative Education, exchange experiences and promote debates about challenges of education in Rwanda, in the region and in the world.

Introduction

Aucun pays ne saurait rester à l'écart des enjeux du monde moderne. Pour se développer, chaque pays doit savoir ce qui se passe ailleurs, fréquenter d'autres cultures, d'autres civilisations et tirer avec discernement ce que celles-ci ont de plus précieux. Point n'est donc plus besoin de « *passéisme culturel* » (Nzabairwa, 1993, p. 24) ni de « *mimétisme occidental* » (ibidem) ayant caractérisé les sociétés africaines traditionalistes, non ouvertes au changement.

Nul n'ignore le rôle joué par l'éducation dans le développement d'une nation. Les exemples sont légion, à travers le monde, d'un certain nombre de pays sans ressources naturelles mais qui sont parvenus à transformer leur économie grâce à un investissement soutenu dans le secteur de l'éducation. Dans la vision 2020 du Rwanda, il est clairement stipulé que le pays doit développer une économie « *basée sur la connaissance* » (MINECOFIN, 2000). Si l'on veut améliorer la qualité de l'homme, l'éducation est un facteur crucial. A cet effet, le Rwanda doit s'inspirer des expériences réussies par d'autres pays en cette matière. En adoptant pareille démarche, on fait déjà de l'éducation comparée.

De toute façon, ce ne sont pas les thèmes de comparaison ou les domaines concernant l'éducation internationale (p. ex. l'éducation pour tous, l'égalité et la qualité de l'enseignement, l'éducation des filles, l'éducation pour la santé, l'éducation et le développement économique) qui manquent au regard des défis que le pays doit relever après le génocide de 1994.

Cet article vise à faire un état des lieux en matière d'éducation comparée au Rwanda. Il contribue à dégager le rôle majeur que devrait jouer l'éducation comparée dans un pays comme le Rwanda, surtout dans le contexte d'après le génocide où le pays devait se reconstruire et retrouver sa véritable identité dans tous les domaines de la vie nationale, y compris celui de l'éducation. Il relève ensuite les principales difficultés qui entravent l'éclosion de l'éducation comparée au Rwanda avant de proposer quelques pistes de réflexion quant à l'institutionnalisation de l'éducation comparée au Rwanda.

Bref aperçu sur l'éducation comparée au Rwanda

On peut dire sans risque de se tromper que l'éducation comparée n'a jamais existé en tant que discipline scientifique reconnue dans les institutions d'enseignement supérieur et universitaire du Rwanda au même titre que la Pédagogie, la Psychologie, la Philosophie ou la Sociologie.

Le cours d'éducation comparée figurait déjà dans les programmes du Département de Psychopédagogie de l'Institut Supérieur Pédagogique (IPN) qui fut créé en 1966 par le Gouvernement Rwandais avec l'aide de l'UNESCO. Cet établissement d'enseignement supérieur, né après la création de l'Université Nationale du Rwanda (UNR) en 1963 (juste 3 ans après), avait pour mission de former les enseignants du secondaire, d'assurer leur perfectionnement et de mener la recherche pédagogique.

Quinze ans plus tard, avec la fusion de l'IPN et de l'UNR en 1981, la Faculté des Sciences de l'Éducation intégra le Département de Psychopédagogie et continua à offrir le cours d'éducation comparée aux candidats enseignants du secondaire. Ce cours avait alors été alloué 60 heures théoriques, soit 4 crédits.

Les institutions d'enseignement supérieur, aussi bien publiques que privées, qui furent créées par la suite inscrivirent toutes à leurs programmes le cours d'éducation comparée. Telles sont notamment l'École Normale Supérieure (ENS) de l'UNR, l'Institut Supérieur Pédagogique de Kigali (KIE), l'Université Adventiste d'Afrique Centrale (UAAC), l'Université d'Agriculture, de Technologie et d'Éducation de Kibungo (UNATEK). Ces cours ont un volume horaire quasi-similaire comme le montre le tableau suivant.

Tableau 1: Importance relative du cours d'éducation comparée dans les institutions d'enseignement supérieur au Rwanda

| Institution | Date de création | Volume horaire | Nombre de crédits |
|-------------|------------------|----------------|-------------------|
| UAAC | 1984 | 45 h | 3 |
| ENS | 1995 | 45 h | 2.5 |
| KIE | 1998 | 30 h | 2 |
| UNATEK | 2002 | 45 h | 3 |

Source: Archives des institutions

Les institutions susmentionnées ont toutes un point en commun : former les enseignants des écoles normales. A leur tour, celles-ci ont pour mission de préparer les enseignants du primaire. Il apparaît que l'intérêt vis-à-vis de l'éducation comparée

remonte depuis longtemps. Celle-ci continue de retenir l'attention des concepteurs des programmes de formation des enseignants car l'éducation comparée reste toujours l'un des cours retenus par les Départements de Psychopédagogie de ces institutions.

Par contre, même si l'éducation comparée en tant que cours existe au Rwanda depuis une quarantaine d'années, force est de constater que cette discipline n'est guère parvenue à se hisser au niveau d'un département. Elle est juste restée au niveau des cours isolés offerts aux étudiants de l'enseignement supérieur et universitaire destinés à l'enseignement secondaire.

Toutefois, cela ne présage en rien l'absence d'une approche comparative dans les études menées ici et là au Rwanda dans le domaine de l'éducation par les chercheurs nationaux et les experts internationaux. Il existe d'ailleurs beaucoup de travaux de licence (mémoires) qui ont porté sur le thème de l'éducation comparée et la plupart des travaux réalisés dans le pays ont souvent recours à l'approche comparative. L'exemple du mémoire de Musoni (1987) ayant pour titre « *L'enseignement comparé dans les universités des pays de la Communauté Economique des Pays des Grands Lacs (CEPGL)* » en est un exemple éloquent. La CEPGL regroupait alors le Burundi, le Zaïre (Actuelle République Démocratique du Congo) et le Rwanda.

Le mémoire de Musoni fut l'inspiration directe d'un projet de recherche mené collectivement depuis 1986 par un groupe de professeurs du Département de Psychopédagogie de la Faculté des Sciences de l'Éducation de l'UNR dont le thème était : « *L'éducation comparée dans les pays de la CEPGL* ». Malheureusement, ce projet de recherche financé par l'UNR n'a pu aboutir faute de moyens financiers. Qui plus est, aucun membre du groupe de cette recherche n'était réellement spécialiste de l'éducation comparée. Ce groupe de professeurs avait comme seul pré-requis pour ce sujet le fait d'avoir suivi le cours d'éducation comparée dans leur cursus de formation universitaire.

On peut donc dire qu'au Rwanda, la seule manifestation véritable de l'éducation comparée s'est limitée à quelques cours isolés reconnus comme obligatoires pour la formation des enseignants ainsi qu'à quelques travaux de recherche des professeurs et des étudiants finalistes. Le cours d'éducation comparée a toujours été donné aux étudiants se préparant à la licence dans les institutions d'enseignement supérieur et universitaire du Rwanda ayant surtout les Facultés d'Éducation dans leurs structures.

De façon générale, le cours d'éducation comparée offert dans ces institutions a pour objectif d'analyser et comparer les philosophies qui sous-tendent les régimes éducatifs des pays industrialisés et du tiers-monde. Au niveau des contenus, le cours comporte un double volet : théorique et pratique. La théorie porte sur les problématiques d'ordre conceptuel et méthodologique et les caractéristiques d'un système éducatif à travers l'approche de l'analyse systémique. La pratique consiste à choisir certains systèmes éducatifs des pays industrialisés et du tiers-monde et à les comparer au système du Rwanda.

Problèmes pour mettre en place l'éducation comparée

L'éducation comparée s'est imposée comme une discipline nécessaire dans de nombreux pays et aide à faire face à de nouveaux défis de l'éducation dans le monde. Cependant, sa mise en place doit d'abord passer par une conceptualisation suffisante de la discipline. En effet, « *L'éducation comparée ne prend son sens que s'il y a confrontation dans un contexte différent. La comparaison peut se faire au sein d'un*

même pays, entre deux ou plusieurs pays d'une même région ou de régions différentes. De telles comparaisons intranationales, intrarégionales ou internationales se basent sur des indicateurs statistiques qui diffèrent d'un pays à l'autre et d'un système éducatif à l'autre. Elles sont de plus en plus demandées par davantage de pays et ont pour avantage de fournir des données importantes sur l'état du système éducatif et de donner à ce système une image fidèle et fiable » (Moussa, 2007, p. 3).

Force est de constater que les initiatives du Rwanda en cette matière de comparaison internationale paraissent plutôt isolées, car il n'y a aucun organe officiellement reconnu de coordination des différentes recherches entreprises dans ce domaine.

De plus, si l'on enregistre un assez bon nombre de professeurs ayant un doctorat p. ex. en planification et administration de l'éducation, en formation des enseignants, en développement du curriculum, en psychologie scolaire ou en psychologie de développement, il n'existe quasiment pas de spécialistes formés dans le domaine de l'éducation comparée au niveau du troisième cycle. Seuls les étudiants en Psychopédagogie tentent tant bien que mal de faire leurs mémoires en éducation comparée, encadrés par des professeurs non formés dans ce domaine. Et puis, faute de moyens matériels et financiers, ces travaux sont très limités dans le temps et dans l'espace.

Pour l'instant, il n'existe pas de cadre reconnu pouvant coordonner et orienter le développement de l'éducation comparée. Très récemment, le Ministère de l'éducation a créé un Conseil National de l'Enseignement Supérieur dont l'une des tâches est de mettre en place un système de collecte et d'analyse des données statistiques sur l'éducation. Ce qui est déjà un pas dans la bonne direction : les chercheurs rwandais disposent maintenant d'un cadre centralisateur des données nécessaires aux comparaisons entre les diverses institutions publiques et privées. Mais ce conseil représente avant tout une structure administrative qui n'est pas suffisamment et techniquement outillée pour se consacrer efficacement aux activités de recherche scientifique de nature à contribuer au développement de l'éducation comparée au Rwanda.

Un autre problème, non des moindres, concerne la place accordée à la recherche dans les institutions d'enseignement supérieur. Il convient de souligner que la recherche est surtout menée dans des institutions académiques où la charge horaire souvent lourde permet aux professeurs de vaquer surtout aux activités d'enseignement, celles de recherche et des services à la collectivité étant reléguées au second plan. En outre, le manque de fonds suffisants limite considérablement le développement de la recherche dans les institutions académiques.

Contexte du Rwanda après le génocide de 1994

Après le génocide, le Rwanda fut confronté à une crise inouïe en matière de ressources nécessaires au développement du pays dans tous ses secteurs. A côté des dégâts matériels, le génocide a emporté d'innombrables compétences humaines qui servaient dans divers domaines de la vie nationale : économie, éducation, santé, etc.

De plus, le Rwanda d'après génocide représente un contexte où des populations ayant des cultures et parlant des langues différentes ont regagné leurs pays. Ces populations sont rentrées en provenance surtout de l'Ouganda, de la République Démocratique du Congo, du Burundi et de la Tanzanie.

Pareil contexte incitait à des choix politiques majeurs et réclamait un dialogue entre décideurs politiques, agents et acteurs de l'éducation à tous les niveaux ainsi que représentants de la société civile.

La situation éducative du Rwanda après le génocide était très difficile mais elle était aussi favorable aux comparaisons internationales. L'éducation comparée pouvait remplir à cette occasion une fonction de « *vigilance critique : décrypter les enjeux, alerter sur les risques* » (AFEC, 2007, p. 1) et faire la part entre les valeurs dites universelles et les valeurs nationales.

Pour promouvoir les valeurs d'intégration et de développement social justes, l'éducation fut assignée une double finalité (MINEDUC, 1998, p. 25):

- « - *Former un citoyen complètement libéré de toute sorte de discrimination, d'exclusion et de favoritisme et contribuer ainsi à la promotion de la paix, des valeurs rwandaises et universelles de justice, de solidarité, de tolérance et de respect des droits et des devoirs de la personne humaine;*
- *Former des ressources humaines suffisantes et maîtresses de leur destin et de l'avenir de la nation rwandaise* ».

L'éducation comparée, une nécessité

Au Rwanda, l'éducation comparée, à défaut d'être reconnue comme une discipline scientifique autonome, revêt une importance capitale dans le sens où son approche méthodologique est très utilisée dans les travaux menés dans tous les domaines en général et particulièrement dans le domaine de l'éducation.

En effet, après le génocide de 1994, le pays était comme un nouveau chantier à reconstruire en matière d'éducation. Les populations rentrées au bercail avaient différentes visions culturelles, religieuses voire idéologiques. Ce qui constituait une heureuse opportunité pour prendre à profit l'éducation comparée. Les divers travaux réalisés pour relancer le système éducatif ont dû faire appel à l'approche comparative, pour s'inspirer des expériences venant d'horizons divers. Ce qui a permis d'élaborer une politique éducative adaptée au contexte socio-économique, politique et culturel du nouveau Rwanda. La conception des programmes par le Centre National de développement des programmes a dû emprunter la même approche. L'élaboration des programmes appliqués dans les jeunes institutions universitaires a dû passer par une concertation tous azimuts entre les enseignants nationaux et les experts venus des institutions régionales. Dans toutes ces initiatives, il faut déplorer l'absence d'un instrument national de régulation pouvant apporter une aide permanente pour alimenter la comparaison et le débat sur différents travaux.

L'éducation comparée sera amenée à jouer un rôle de tout premier plan dans le cadre de la nouvelle Communauté d'Afrique de l'Est que le Rwanda a récemment intégrée. En effet, les pays de la Communauté seront amenés à harmoniser les structures de formation, les programmes académiques, les diplômes et grades académiques. En cette matière, la tendance actuelle est celle du compromis ou du consensus visant à associer les données quantitatives avec la prise en compte du contexte politique, historique, culturel (et donc des données qualitatives) de chaque pays. Dans ce processus d'harmonisation, le Conseil National de l'Enseignement Supérieur devra jouer un rôle majeur.

Si les établissements éducatifs doivent contribuer à la construction du Rwanda, une certaine convergence de leur développement est nécessaire. Pour parvenir à celle-ci, il

convient d'analyser les caractères propres à chaque établissement et de les comparer le plus scientifiquement possible, avant d'en synthétiser quelques éléments-clés pour l'action. Cette approche comparative serait de nature à favoriser les échanges interinstitutionnels et à harmoniser les conceptions et pratiques entre diverses institutions. Le rôle et la nécessité de l'éducation comparée peuvent se résumer dans les trois points suivants:

- Rendre service au développement et à la réforme de l'éducation nationale en faisant connaître à l'administration et à d'autres agents et acteurs de l'éducation les expériences étrangères d'où ils puissent tirer des leçons, en se préoccupant non seulement des recherches sur l'éducation des pays étrangers mais aussi des investigations sur l'éducation au Rwanda. Car on ne saurait en tirer des résultats utiles que lorsqu'on a une connaissance précise des deux parties;
- Faire des observations et des recherches en profondeur sur les sociétés des différents pays pour mieux connaître leur culture et l'origine de leur éducation et en découvrir l'essentiel. Point n'est besoin ici de copier aveuglément les théories étrangères, il s'agit plutôt d'en tirer l'« essence » et d'introduire celle-ci dans la culture;
- Analyser les problèmes éducatifs d'aujourd'hui en se servant des théories scientifiques modernes afin que l'éducation comparée prenne une part pratique dans la réforme et l'innovation en éducation, étudier à fond les théories existantes et créer de nouveaux cadres théoriques.

Quel avenir pour l'éducation comparée au Rwanda?

L'éducation comparée s'impose réellement aux chercheurs rwandais en éducation comme un nouveau terrain à défricher. Un travail exploratoire doit être sérieusement entrepris pour réunir toutes les personnes intéressées par la démarche comparative en éducation. Ce travail pourrait être réalisé au sein d'un centre d'éducation comparée qui serait créé et intégré à l'Institut Supérieur Pédagogique (ISP) de Kigali. Pareil centre aurait notamment pour objectifs de:

- Réunir les personnes intéressées par la démarche comparative en éducation
- Former des comparatistes capables de se hisser au niveau contemporain de l'éducation comparée
- Favoriser un espace de débats et de réflexions sur les difficultés et les défis de l'éducation au Rwanda et dans le monde
- Recenser les expériences des études comparatives en éducation et contribuer à la création et diffusion de la connaissance dans le champ des sciences de l'éducation
- Favoriser la mise en commun des différentes recherches et expertises entreprises dans le domaine de l'éducation
- Contribuer à la diffusion la plus large possible des résultats de ces recherches et expertises
- Fournir aux décideurs politiques et administratifs, aux chercheurs et aux acteurs de l'éducation des éléments d'information et de réflexion susceptibles de favoriser la rénovation pédagogique dans leurs pays respectifs.

Au Rwanda, pour que l'éducation comparée contribue à la réforme et au développement de l'éducation ainsi qu'à sa propre construction comme discipline scientifique, à défaut de créer un département, il faudrait créer un centre d'éducation

comparée capable de se pencher sur les orientations majeures prises par le Gouvernement Rwandais en matière d'éducation telles que l'éducation pour tous, l'égalité des sexes, l'ICT en éducation ou l'éducation à distance.

Plus tard, on songerait à créer une revue sur l'éducation comparée et à mettre en place une « Association Rwandaise d'Education Comparée » comme il en existe dans beaucoup de pays africains et occidentaux.

Conclusion

Au Rwanda, il apparaît que le cours d'éducation comparée a toujours figuré aux programmes des institutions ayant pour mission la formation des enseignants du secondaire sans jamais parvenir à se hisser au rang d'un département. Il ressort également que l'approche comparative a toujours retenu l'attention des chercheurs (professeurs, experts, étudiants finalistes) pour aborder certains travaux. Ce qui montre que, à défaut d'être une discipline scientifique reconnue, l'éducation comparée s'est imposée comme une dimension essentielle de l'enseignement et de la recherche dans certaines institutions académiques.

Après le génocide de 1994, le Rwanda a considéré l'éducation comme la base fondamentale de son développement socio-économique. La plupart des orientations prises par le Gouvernement Rwandais après le génocide en matière d'éducation s'inscrivent dans un contexte mondial. Elles alimentent plutôt le débat aussi bien national qu'international et ne sauraient donc échapper à la démarche comparative. Telles sont notamment l'éducation obligatoire de neuf ans, l'éducation des filles, la participation des parents au financement des études dans l'enseignement supérieur, l'enseignement des langues, la formation des enseignants, l'alphabétisation des adultes ou l'éducation à distance.

Pour élaborer les différentes politiques en matière éducationnelle, le Rwanda a dû faire appel à des experts internationaux qui, de concert avec les chercheurs nationaux, ont mis en place des programmes destinés à relancer le secteur éducatif à tous les niveaux. L'élaboration et l'adoption de ces programmes sont passées par une analyse minutieuse des systèmes éducatifs mis en place dans d'autres pays et le recours à la démarche comparative fut un atout majeur.

Si cet article pouvait stimuler les Rwandais à s'intéresser davantage à l'éducation comparée, il aurait atteint son objectif. Il visait à montrer l'utilité et les avantages qu'on peut attendre de la démarche comparative dans le domaine éducatif et la nécessité absolue de mettre en place un cadre approprié pour faciliter les échanges au niveau des institutions d'enseignement supérieur et universitaire aussi bien publiques que privées, tant bien nationales qu'internationales.

Il convient de louer l'immense travail réalisé par le Rwanda en matière d'éducation et de garder l'espoir que l'éducation comparée trouvera sa place dans l'ensemble des efforts consentis dans la reconstruction du pays après le génocide de 1994.

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Prof. Wenceslas Nzabirwa
Dean, Faculty of Education
Kigali Institute of Education (KIE)
Rwanda
e-mail: wenceslasn@yahoo.fr

L'éducation comparée en Afrique de l'Ouest. Le cas du Sénégal et du Bénin

Souleymane Gomis & Abdel Rahamane Baba-Moussa

Résumé

Le présent article traite de la situation de l'éducation comparée en milieu universitaire en Afrique francophone, à travers les cas du Sénégal et du Bénin. Il montre que dans les universités de ces deux pays, l'éducation comparée est actuellement en quête profonde d'identité et d'autonomie, au carrefour de différentes disciplines des sciences sociales. Cependant, le développement de réseaux de chercheurs et d'équipes de recherches africains en éducation comparée, constituent des facteurs révélateurs d'un processus en cours pour le développement de l'éducation comparée à travers des productions scientifiques de qualité. Ces-dernières peuvent constituer des supports intéressants pour l'enseignement. Reste que se pose encore la nécessité d'une institutionnalisation de l'Education comparée à travers la création de départements et/ou d'enseignement spécifiques au sein des deux Universités.

Abstract

This article analyses the situation of Comparative Education in the academic world of French-speaking Africa, through the cases of Senegal and Benin. It shows that in the universities of these two countries, Comparative Education is currently in search of identity and autonomy at the crossroads of various disciplines of social sciences. However, the development of networks of researchers and African research teams in Comparative Education constitutes revealing factors of a process in progress for the development of Comparative Education through scientific quality productions. These productions can constitute an interesting support for teaching. However, it still remains the need for an institutionalization of Comparative Education through the creation of specific departments and/or teaching units within the two universities.

Introduction

Les universitaires des pays francophones d'Afrique manifestent pour l'éducation comparée un intérêt qui s'est traduit ces dernières années par leur forte implication dans les activités internationales d'éducation comparée organisées notamment par l'Association Francophone d'Education Comparée (AFEC : Ouagadougou 2004, Sèvres 2005, Lille 2006, Alexandrie 2007, Dijon 2009, parmi les plus récents), la Comparative Education Society of Europe (CESE : Athènes 2007) et le World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES : Cuba 2004, Sarajevo 2007, Istanbul 2010). Cela peut s'expliquer par la nécessité, dans ces pays anciennement colonisés, que toute réflexion sur l'éducation conduise à questionner la pertinence des enjeux, finalités, systèmes, curriculums, démarches pédagogiques et didactiques, etc. au regard de valeurs sociales et culturelles rendues complexes suite aux multiples métissages et chocs culturels hérités de la colonisation, de la décolonisation et de l'adaptation au processus actuel de mondialisation. L'éducation comparée est nécessaire pour cerner

cette complexité mais trouve aussi son intérêt dès que l'on s'intéresse à la définition même de l'éducation. En effet, selon Ndiaye Diagne, en milieu wolof, « *l'éducation se définit comme un mouvement dialectique entre le symbole et l'objet, c'est-à-dire la mise en forme d'un idéal par la force du fouet* ». (Ndiaye Diagne, 1981, p. 42). Dans le dictionnaire de langue Française, le Littré, il s'agit de « *l'ensemble des habiletés intellectuelles ou manuelles qui s'acquièrent et l'ensemble des qualités morales qui se développent* », tandis que le Larousse la considère comme « *l'ensemble des moyens qui développent chez les groupes d'individus l'instruction, les opinions* ». Selon la première définition, on peut convenir que dans les sociétés traditionnelles africaines, l'éducation relève d'un mouvement de balancier permanent entre l'objet réel et son symbole, souvent ancré dans le sacré. Cela explique le recours aux rites pour permettre aux aînés de transmettre de façon quasiment identique un idéal de société fondé sur les traditions (d'où la référence à « la force du fouet »). Du fait de ce caractère normatif, la comparaison constitue le fondement de l'action éducative. Ainsi par exemple, les rites de passage comme la circoncision ou les rites de flagellation dans certains groupes ethniques (mandingues, diolas, peulhs...) constituent des pratiques éducatives reposant sur des comparaisons systématiques avec certaines normes sociales afin d'attester de la maîtrise par les jeunes, des savoirs nécessaires pour accéder à la classe des adultes. A l'opposé, les définitions des dictionnaires de la langue française renvoient à deux réalités. La première pose l'éducation comme un état marqué par la possession de qualités et d'opinions personnelles, alors que la seconde se réfère au processus et aux moyens qui conduisent à cet état d'individuation. Cela est confirmé par la définition que donne Meirieu (1997, p. 25) : « *l'éducation est une relation dissymétrique, nécessaire et provisoire visant à l'émergence d'un sujet* » (entendu sujet autonome). Dans ce cadre, l'institution scolaire constitue alors le lieu par excellence de cette éducation. Il y a donc une dualité entre les conceptions traditionnelles de l'éducation en Afrique et celles du monde occidental dont l'Afrique hérita par la colonisation. Dally traduit bien cette dualité en relevant que dans l'Afrique traditionnelle, « *l'éducation et la tradition avaient défini le rôle de chaque élément social et veillaient à ce que l'ordre établi fut respecté et le rituel de passage en constituait un moment d'évaluation* » alors que dans les sociétés modernes « *l'éducation devient une réalité nécessitant la création d'institutions spéciales et d'agents formés pour la prodiguer : l'école et les enseignants* » (Dally, 1987, pp. 21, 23). Force est de constater que l'éducation en Afrique s'alimente actuellement de ces deux dimensions et est à appréhender en tenant compte de leurs influences réciproques : d'où l'intérêt de l'éducation comparée.

Définition et historique de la discipline

Selon Lê Than Khoi « *L'éducation comparée peut être définie comme la science qui a pour objet de dégager, d'analyser et d'expliquer les ressemblances et les différences entre des faits éducatifs, et/ou leurs rapports avec l'environnement (politique, économique, social, culturel), et de rechercher les lois éventuelles qui les commandent dans différentes sociétés et à différents moments de l'histoire humaine* » (Le Thanh Khoi, 1981, p. 42). Pour Rossello, l'éducation comparée peut être définie à partir de quatre dimensions essentielles : la nature de l'objet, le contexte, la comparaison et l'angle d'approche. La nature de l'objet réside dans l'intention explicite de comparer (notamment des systèmes, structures, programmes, méthodes et théories de l'éducation...); le contexte renvoie à la confrontation de lieux, d'époques ou de

situation différents ; la méthode est principalement comparative et vise l'explication des faits éducatifs par la recherche de leurs causes ; et l'angle d'approche est nécessairement pluridisciplinaire (comme c'est le cas pour toutes les sciences de l'éducation) afin de saisir la complexité des faits éducatifs. En définitive, « *L'éducation comparée est définie, non par ses méthodes, qu'elle emprunte à toutes les disciplines, mais par son objet : la comparaison de faits d'éducation, et des relations qui les unissent à leur milieu* ». (Le Thanh Khoi, 1981, p. 43).

En réalité, la comparaison en éducation en tant que fait social, ne constitue pas une nouveauté au Sénégal et au Bénin puisqu'elle est, comme on l'a vu ci-dessus, au cœur des pratiques éducatives traditionnelles en Afrique : l'éducation des jeunes se faisait en référence à l'expérience vécue des adultes, grâce à la méthode comparative qu'utilisaient les éducateurs. Cependant, en tant que discipline universitaire, l'éducation comparée est récente, bien que l'on puisse considérer qu'elle trouve ses prémisses dans la littérature africaine de langue française. Les ouvrages inscrits aux programmes scolaires tels que *Sous l'orage* de Seydou Badian, *L'aventure ambiguë* de Cheikh Hamidou Kane, *Le monde s'effondre* de Chinua Achebe, *l'Arbre Fétiche* de Jean Plya etc., comparent bien les réalités éducatives de traditionnelles africaines avec celles empreintes de cultures occidentale ou islamique héritées de la colonisation et de l'influence du monde arabe, pour mettre en évidence le choc des valeurs qui découlait de leur confrontation. Traoré Boubacar souligne par exemple à ce propos : « *une distinction nette et complémentaire est alors faite entre l'école publique laïque et l'école coranique : l'une formant les hommes à s'assumer matériellement parce que pouvant assurer le pain de façon régulière quelles que soient les vicissitudes du temps et l'autre n'apportant que le Salut et le bien-être dans l'au-delà* » (Traoré, 1993, p. 90). Traoré compare ici deux types d'éducation (formelle et non formelle) ayant chacune des objectifs et finalités spécifiques mais contribuant tous deux à socialiser les individus au sein de leur groupe.

L'apparition de l'éducation comparée en tant que discipline scientifique remonte aux travaux de Marc-Antoine Jullien de Paris (1775-1848) qui a utilisé l'expression éducation comparée dans le titre d'une de ses œuvres en 1817. Cependant, c'est au milieu du XIX^{ème} siècle puis au début du XX^{ème} que l'éducation comparée s'est développée, d'abord à travers les nombreuses études comparatives en éducation réalisées par des organismes internationaux comme l'UNESCO, le Bureau International de l'Education, l'Organisation de Coopération et de Développement Economiques, la Banque Mondiale, le Conseil de l'Europe, le Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement, etc. Ces travaux constituent les premières références en éducation comparée en Afrique et, par conséquent, au Sénégal et au Bénin. La création en 1973 d'une Association Francophone d'Education Comparée (AFEC), sous l'impulsion de pionniers comme Michel Debauvais, et l'intérêt porté par cette association aux recherches et aux chercheurs d'Afrique francophone ont contribué au développement de la discipline dans l'espace francophone. Des chercheurs participant aux manifestations de l'AFEC ont été ensuite les pionniers de cette discipline dans leurs pays respectifs. Si des départements universitaires d'éducation comparée n'ont pas encore été créés, ces chercheurs ont promu l'enseignement et la recherche en éducation comparée au sein de leurs départements universitaires d'appartenance.

Place de l'éducation comparée dans les universités au Sénégal et au Bénin

L'éducation comparée n'est pas encore enseignée de façon systématique dans les universités béninoises et sénégalaises. Cependant, des enseignements ou contenus de formation incluant la comparaison en éducation ont toujours occupé une place importante dans les curricula et approches pédagogiques en littérature, lettres modernes, droit, histoire et sociologie. Cette présence de la comparaison en éducation dans l'enseignement est née de la frustration des premières élites africaines qui, au sortir de la colonisation, ont défendu et instauré la thèse de l'africanisation (Amadou Hampaté Ba, Joseph Ki Zerbo, etc.). Cela s'est traduit par la publication de livres et d'articles, la mise en place de politiques d'orientation scolaire et universitaire et l'introduction de la comparaison en éducation dans les programmes de formation des jeunes en vue d'assurer l'africanisation de l'enseignement. Cette dernière exigeait la comparaison des réalités éducatives africaines et occidentales afin de montrer que les valeurs qui les sous-tendent ne relèvent pas d'un rapport de supériorité des unes aux autres mais participent plutôt de la différence et de l'enrichissement mutuel. Actuellement, des universitaires sénégalais et béninois continuent de promouvoir la comparaison en éducation dans différentes filières de formation universitaires. Au Sénégal, la transformation de l'ancienne Ecole Normale Supérieure en Faculté de Sciences de l'Éducation a facilité l'organisation régulière de séminaires, colloques et autres rencontres scientifiques en éducation comparée. A l'Université d'Abomey Calavi au Bénin, des chercheurs intéressés par l'éducation comparée (dont certains sont des docteurs en éducation comparée) ont initié l'enseignement de l'éducation comparée dans leurs établissements. C'est le cas du cours d'*Éducation comparée* proposé en licence 3 au Département de Psychologie et Sciences de l'Éducation par le Docteur Emmanuel David-Gnanhoui ou des enseignements intitulés *Introduction aux sciences de l'éducation, Sociologie de la jeunesse et Intervention socioéducatives* proposés par le Docteur Abdel Rahamane Baba-Moussa, respectivement en Licence 1 (pour les deux premiers) et Licence 3 (pour le troisième) de la Filière Sciences et Techniques des Activités Socioéducatives (STASE) de l'Institut National de la Jeunesse, de l'Éducation Physique et du Sport (INJEPS).

Plus généralement, l'enseignement et la recherche en « éducation comparée » sont aujourd'hui davantage développés au sein de différents départements des universités sénégalaise (Départements de Lettres Modernes, de Sociologie, d'Histoire et de Géographie au Sénégal) et béninoise (Département de Psychologie et sciences de l'Éducation et Institut Nationale de la Jeunesse de l'Éducation Physique et du Sport) sans pour autant faire l'objet d'une institutionnalisation. Si l'on se réfère aux enseignements proposés ainsi qu'aux problématiques de recherche explorées dans le cadre de mémoires de maîtrise, de Diplôme d'Étude Approfondie (DEA : actuellement Master 2) et de thèses de doctorat, on peut considérer que des progrès considérables ont été réalisés. L'enseignement de l'éducation comparée dans les universités sénégalaise et béninoise est en progression, au carrefour de différentes disciplines des sciences sociales et humaines, mais sa visibilité est limitée par un manque d'institutionnalisation dans le champ des Sciences de l'Éducation.

Les axes de recherche développés

Du point de vue de la recherche scientifique, l'éducation comparée trouve également son champ d'expression dans les recherches menées par des chercheurs en

sociologie, en psychologie, en sciences de l'éducation et dans d'autres disciplines des sciences sociales qui accordent un intérêt à la comparaison des faits d'éducation et à leurs relations avec leur environnement. Au Sénégal, on peut citer par exemple la thèse de doctorat de 3^e cycle en sciences de l'éducation de Konaté Bintily qui a comparé les facteurs familiaux de la réussite scolaire chez les élèves de 9^e année fondamentale du District de Bamako au Mali de même que les mémoires de maîtrise de Nguer Dame au département d'arabe (qui a étudié le Hijab dans l'Islam à travers le cas des étudiantes voilées de l'Université Cheikh Anta Diop de Dakar) et de Faye Honorine Annie Marie Thérèse du département de sociologie qui a travaillé sur la problématique de la déscolarisation des enfants en milieu périurbain : cas de la commune d'arrondissement de Médina Gounass. Dans son analyse du port du voile chez les étudiantes de l'Université Cheikh Anta Diop de Dakar, Nguer rapporte que « *grâce au hijab, les étudiantes se démarquent d'un certain nombre de choses qu'elles jugent incompatibles avec les valeurs intrinsèques de l'Islam dont les soirées dansantes, les plages, etc. Ce faisant, la plupart des voilées ont rompu leurs relations amoureuses et refusent de serrer la main aux hommes* » (Nguer, 2006). Au Bénin, dans un article récent, Baba-Moussa (2009) compare les apports de l'éducation non formelle au Bénin et en France pour montrer que dans les deux cas se pose un véritable problème d'inadéquation culturelle entre l'école (lieux d'éducation formelle) et les populations qu'elle accueille. Alors qu'au Bénin (et en Afrique francophone de manière générale) on parle d'inadéquation culturelle de l'école héritée de la colonisation, en France on relève l'existence d'élèves qui s'adaptent difficilement à la culture scolaire assimilée par Ballion (1981) à une « culture conquise ». L'auteur propose dans les deux contextes, le recours à l'éducation non formelle (apprentissage, mouvements associatifs, etc.) comme palliatif. Ces quelques exemples parmi d'autres pour témoigner de la présence réelle d'une activité de recherche universitaire en Education comparée au Sénégal et au Bénin ; activité renforcée par la participation régulière de chercheurs comparatistes de ces pays à différentes manifestations scientifiques internationales en éducation comparée. Les articles publiés par ces chercheurs dans les actes desdits colloques et différents numéros de la revue Education comparée publiée par l'AFEC en témoignent (on pourra consulter à ce sujet, les numéros 60, 61 et 62 de la revue éducation comparée sur le site *ibdoc.com*) ; il en est de même de la production d'un certain nombre de mémoires et de thèses sur des problématiques intéressantes en éducation comparée.

Le thème abordé dans ces travaux concerne notamment la comparaison : des systèmes éducatifs (Kane, 2001 ; Baba-Moussa, 2002, 2003), entre l'éducation traditionnelle et de l'éducation moderne (Dally, 1987 ; Quenum, 1993), du rapport entre religions et laïcité dans l'enseignement (Nguer, 2006 ; Baba-Moussa, 2007 ; Tamba, 2007 ; Gomis, 2007 ; Camara et Wolfs, 2007), de la formation des enseignants (Baba-Moussa et Nache, 2010) ; des rôles respectifs de l'éducation formelle et de l'éducation non formelle (Paré-Kaboré, 2007 ; Baba-Moussa, 2009 ; Flénon et Baba-Moussa, 2010) ; l'enseignement des langues et les langues d'enseignement (Daff, 2006), etc.

A titre d'exemple, Kane développe, dans son mémoire de maîtrise, une comparaison intéressante entre l'éducation de type traditionnel et celle de type moderne à travers l'analyse de deux romans où elle souligne que « *les dysfonctionnements sociaux et les carences du système éducatif sénégalais sont surtout symbolisés par les enfants "talibés", mendiants des rues de Dakar. L'éducation traditionnelle a perdu sa*

vocation et, par conséquent, elle a davantage de difficultés à jouer son rôle d'intégration sociale. Le système éducatif traditionnel disparaît de plus en plus car elle n'a plus de ressources morales nécessaires pour assumer sa fonction première. Cette situation de dévalorisation de l'individu engendre une conscience de révolte des enfants et un problème de communication avec les parents d'où le bouleversement du champ relationnel. Ceci est la conséquence de l'éducation moderne qui, avec ses difficultés, favorise le chômage » (Kane, 2001). Dans le même sens Jean-Claude Quenum (1993) montre au Bénin, comment le choc culturel lié à l'interaction entre les valeurs éducatives traditionnelles propres aux groupes ethniques d'appartenance respectifs des élèves et les valeurs occidentales imposées par l'école héritée de la colonisation (les seules qu'ils ont tous en commun), provoquait chez certains élèves des réactions d'extraversion en faveur des valeurs culturelles importées qu'ils ont en commun, au détriment des valeurs culturelles de leurs ethnies d'appartenance. Sur un autre registre, Baba-Moussa et Nache (2010) ont comparé la formation des professeurs d'éducation physique et sportive (EPS) en France (IUFM de Caen) et au Bénin (INJEPS de Porto-Novo) au regard du processus de professionnalisation. Ils montrent qu'alors même que la formation instaurée au Bénin dans les années 1970 est inspirée de celle existant en France à l'époque, les étudiants béninois de quatrième année sont plus inscrits dans le processus de professionnalisation que leurs homologues français. De tels résultats posent selon les auteurs la question de la pertinence du mimétisme des réformes mises en œuvre dans les pays occidentaux (notamment la réforme Licence-Master-Doctorat : LMD), sans une véritable adaptation aux besoins des pays africains. Ils en déduisent que les meilleures réformes seraient pas plutôt celles qui sont ouvertes à de nouveaux souffles, qui s'imprègnent de nouvelles réalités et refusent de se borner aux enseignements du passé.

Equipes et problématiques de recherche : quelles perspectives ?

Il n'existe pas à proprement parler d'équipe de recherche instituée et structurée en éducation comparée ni au Bénin ni au Sénégal. En revanche, certains membres de l'Association Francophone d'Education Comparée (AFEC) coordonnent et créent une dynamique en faveur de l'éducation comparée au sein de groupes de chercheurs dans leurs universités. Ainsi en est-il des Professeurs Abdel Rahamane Baba-Moussa de l'Université d'Abomey Calavi (Président de l'AFEC) et de Moussa Daff de l'Université Cheick Antar Diop de Dakar (Vice Président de l'AFEC). En collaboration avec des collègues d'autres pays africains ils ont impulsé la création, en janvier 2011 d'un Réseau Africain Francophone d'Education Comparée (RAFEC), avec le soutien de l'Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie (OIF). Il s'agit d'un réseau pluridisciplinaire présidé par le Professeur Afsata Paré-Kaboré du Burkina Faso. Ce réseau adhère à l'Association francophone d'éducation comparée et est reconnu par le Congrès Mondial des Association d'Education Comparée (CMAEC).

Compte tenu de tout ce qui précède, on pourrait considérer que l'éducation comparée connaît actuellement une évolution qui permettrait son émergence en tant que discipline d'enseignement et de recherche dans les universités africaines à travers la création de départements spécifiques. Si l'on sait que les sciences de l'éducation sont elles-mêmes en quête d'identité et que l'éducation comparée est citée par certains parmi les « disciplines autonomes » qui tendent à se démarquer du poids de « disciplines mères » pour se constituer en disciplines originales (Marmoz, 1998), on

peut considérer que l'émergence de départements d'éducation comparée permettrait, sans vouloir revenir à un quelconque éclatement des Sciences de l'éducation, de construire un véritable cadre de réflexion et de promotion de cette discipline originale qu'est l'éducation comparée. La diversité et la richesse des thèmes développés dans les universités béninoise et sénégalaise seraient ainsi renforcées et des problématiques de recherche transversales et multidimensionnelles pourraient être développées afin de susciter la création d'équipes de recherche pluridisciplinaires d'envergure nationale et internationale. On peut déjà relever quelques expériences dans ce sens notamment : la recherche internationale regroupant médecins et sociologues sur le thème de la gérontologie et qui se déroule sur les sites de Dakar (Sénégal), Marrakech (Maroc) et Marseille (France) ou la recherche comparative sur les pratiques et l'intervention en activités physiques et sportive dans l'espace francophone qui regroupe des chercheurs des Universités d'Abomey Calavi (Bénin), Koudougou (Burkina Faso), Caen (France) et Dakar (Sénégal).

Ce type de recherche permettrait d'enrichir les enseignements qui seraient dispensés tout en contribuant à l'exploration de questions sensibles liés au développement des pays. Les premiers travaux des intellectuels africains ont beaucoup porté sur la valorisation du patrimoine culturel africain par la confrontation régulière des référents culturels africains à ceux de l'Occident. Cela a contribué à la construction des identités sociales ainsi qu'à la pérennisation de modes de vie communautaire et de logiques de solidarité entre individus et entre groupes sociaux. Actuellement, la mondialisation qui s'étend à tous les domaines de la vie (sociale, économique, politique et culturelle) exige des universitaires, des chercheurs et des décideurs politiques africains qu'ils contribuent à l'invention de nouvelles formes et de nouveaux objets de comparaison. La création du Réseau Africain Francophone d'Education Comparée (RAFEC) participe de cette dynamique.

Conclusion

L'éducation comparée, dans son état actuel au Sénégal et au Bénin, est domaine de recherche et non encore objet d'enseignement parce que l'utilisation des résultats des recherches dans l'enseignement n'est pas encore systématique. La perspective serait, d'ériger l'éducation comparée en un enseignement systématique de type transversal dans des structures universitaires. Au Sénégal, ce pourrait être le cas par exemple au sein du département de sociologie de l'UCAD de Dakar où des thèmes d'actualité comme l'immigration clandestine, les conflits interethniques, les crises des systèmes éducatifs, etc. peuvent constituer les principaux domaines d'expansion de l'éducation comparée. Au Bénin, cela pourrait être envisagé au sein du département de Psychologie et Sciences de l'Education et des instituts de formation des enseignants (Ecoles Normales d'Instituteurs, Ecole Normale supérieure et département de la formation des enseignants d'EPS de l'INJEPS) et des intervenants en éducation non formelle (Département des Sciences et Techniques des Activités Socioéducatives de l'INJEPS). La riche et abondante littérature émanant, dans les deux pays, des nombreux articles scientifique, rapports d'études et de recherches, thèses de doctorat, mémoires de maîtrise et de DEA qui sont produits serviraient ainsi à alimenter l'enseignement.

Pour conclure, on peut considérer que la situation décrite ci-dessus et le dynamisme de certains chercheurs organisés en réseau converge vers l'objectif de l'érection de l'éducation comparée en discipline d'enseignement, ou tout au moins, en enseignement

systématique dans des unités de formation et de recherche. La diversité des faits d'éducation mais aussi des contextes, périodes, individus et logiques d'action, montre bien l'intérêt des problématiques traitées en éducation comparée pour la communauté universitaire. Cependant, l'introduction de l'enseignement de l'éducation comparé suppose obligatoirement une réflexion préalable des hommes de sciences en vue d'aboutir à la constitution d'un champ autonome régi par ses propres règles.

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Souleymane Gomis, Maître-assistant
Université Cheikh Anta Diop
Faculté des Lettres et Sciences Humaines, Département de Sociologie
Dakar, Sénégal
e-mail: mandiacou@hotmail.com

Abdel Rahamane Baba-Moussa, Maître Assistant
Université d'Abomey Calavi, INJEPS
Président de l'Association Francophone d'Education Comparée (AFEC)
Porto-Novo, République du Bénin
e-mail: babderamane@yahoo.fr

Comparative Education at Universities in the Southern African Region: From Decolonization Context to the Challenges of the 21st Century

C. C. Wolhuter, D. Alaoui, P. Bulawa, J. J. Katzao, G. N. Likando, T. C. Lijambo, R. Lucas, R. F. A. Maarman, E. Z. Mazibuko, M. Ntabeni, M. Seotsanyana, A. Si. Moussa, G. Tsayang, F. Tupin

Introduction

This chapter is based on the publication *Aurora Australis: Comparative Education and History of Education at Universities in Southern Africa/Education Comparée et Histoire de l'éducation dans les universités d'Afrique Australe*, edited by Wolhuter (2006), which in turn grew from a SACHES (Southern African Comparative and History of Education Society) survey on the position of Comparative Education and History of Education in Southern Africa. Southern Africa, at least as defined by the Southern African Development Community (SADC), comprises fifteen countries: South Africa, Namibia, Lesotho, Swaziland, Mozambique, Angola, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Congo, Zambia, Tanzania, Malawi, Madagascar, Reunion and Mauritius. Together these fifteen countries cover a large tract of land. Communications are not the best in the world. The editor of the cited publication could only succeed with respect to eight of these countries to track down comparativists prepared to write a chapter on the position of the two disciplines in their countries¹.

Botswana

The University of Botswana's Faculty of Education (the University of Botswana is the only university in Botswana) is comprised of nine departments, of which two have given recognition to the importance of Comparative Education, by each introducing a course titled Comparative Education (Bulawa & Tsayang, 2006, p.6). However, it should be noted that even though the titles of other courses may not explicitly refer to Comparative Education, their approach and content at this level of education are expected to be comparative in nature.

At the level of higher education, it is expected that no course or subject would be presented without making reference to what happens in that particular area internationally. As in any other higher education institution, the curriculum at the University of Botswana is inclined towards inculcating in students an inquiring disposition and a critical mode of thinking and learning. This is because the University of Botswana is the end point for most students before entering the world of work, which requires important judgments of policies and the implementation of such

¹ In the first edition of this chapter published in Wolhuter & Popov, 2007, a section on Tanzania was included within the Southern African chapter. However, in the second edition of the book (Wolhuter et al., 2008) Tanzania became a separate chapter.

policies. Such understanding of policy issues will depend upon graduates' perception of local issues in relation to global ones. By implication, curriculum globalization should inform the University of Botswana curriculum content.

Another course, Issues in International Adult Education, is currently offered at the third year level of the Adult Education programme. This course recognizes that adult education issues in Africa have a relationship with and contribute to international agendas and policies. One of its aims is to give students international exposure to major issues "of concern for adult education in an international perspective" (Bulawa & Tsayang, 2006, p.7).

The course Comparative Education, offered in the Department of Educational Foundations, examines a wide spectrum of issues on Comparative Education. These include its meaning, scope and purpose, as well as theories and methods in Comparative Education. A comparison is drawn between a number of selected education systems in Asia, Europe, North America and Africa. Particular attention is given to the evolution of Botswana's system of education and those of neighboring countries. In the same department a course known as Contemporary Approaches to Guidance in Africa exposes students to issues of critical guidance and counseling in Botswana, as well as in the African and global context. The latter courses are also at both the conceptual and application level of Comparative Education.

Lesotho

The National University of Lesotho is the only university in Lesotho. This university developed out of the Pius XII College, which was founded in 1945. Until 1964, when the institution changed into a university, the only part of the teacher education curriculum which touched upon something in the line of Comparative Education was the teaching of the education system of one of the four provinces of South Africa. In the 1960s, in the advent of independence of most African countries (Lesotho included), the curriculum included the relation between education and development, education in Africa, the emergence of national education systems, the structure of school systems, and the relation between education and society.

Since the mid-1970s, the curriculum changed. Topics now covered include:

- formal and non-formal education
- the British, American, Russian and French education systems
- pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial education in Africa
- social change and education.

These topics were taught under the module "Foundations of Education".

On a postgraduate level, a Master's of Education is taught with a module Education and National Development.

Namibia

The University of Namibia is the sole university in Namibia. Comparative Education is taught in both the B.Ed degree, which provides initial teacher education, and in the Master of Education degree courses. In the B.Ed degree, a module named "Comparative Education" occurs. The aim of this module is to introduce students to the educational systems and the forces which are shaping these systems internationally and nationally.

At the completion of the course students should be able to:

- understand the origin and development of education systems
- apply the methods of comparing education systems
- understand the Namibian education system and the forces shaping that system, and
- understand the link between education systems and the development of societies.

Main topics included in the module are:

- historical development of Comparative Education
- Comparative Education as a science
- structure and function of education systems
- shaping forces of education systems
- the education systems of selected developed and developing countries
- relationship between education and development
- educational innovation and policy formulation
- governance and politics in education
- multicultural education and policy formulation, and
- critical issues in education.

At the graduate level, students reading for the Master's Degree in Education (M.Ed.) are required to study a Comparative Education module. The main topics are:

- Comparative Education as a discipline of study: historical evolution of Comparative Education, purposes of Comparative Education, nature of Comparative Education and shaping forces of education systems.
- Case studies: education systems of Botswana, Sudan, Nigeria, Tanzania, USA, Cuba, Japan, China, India and Namibia.

Reunion

Comparative Education is taught at the University of Reunion, the only university in the country. Twenty-five hours of lectures in Comparative Education is part of the teacher education programme. Attention is paid to the macro-sociology of educational systems and to the role of education in national development. A regional dimension is visible as students are introduced to education in Mauritius, the Comores and Madagascar as well as national dimension (education in Reunion). Finally students are also introduced to the historical evolution of Comparative Education and to philosophical and methodological issues in the field.

South Africa

Comparative Education gained a foothold at South African universities during the 1960s (see: Bergh & Soudien, 2006). It had its strongest presence at the historically White Afrikaans and historically Black universities. At the historically White English medium universities it was never very salient. At the Afrikaans and historically Black universities it enjoyed not only prominence in both pre-graduate and especially postgraduate Education courses, but also had an institutional infrastructure (in terms of Departments of Comparative Education and staff exclusively occupied with Comparative Education) paralleled in very few, if any, other places in the world (see: Wolhuter, 1994). By the end of the century, especially as part of the education reforms in the wake of the 1994 political turnabout, Comparative Education as separate teaching discipline with its strong infrastructure fell victim of the same processes that

characterized teacher reform internationally, namely that teacher education came increasingly to be conceptualized and structured as equipping students with a set of skills or techniques (similar to apprenticeship training in the trades) rather than an academic grounding in the fundamental disciplines of Education and the nurturing of a critical comprehension and consciousness.

At the twenty-five universities in South Africa, only 9 present the subject field of Comparative Education explicitly under that name. There are, however, campuses where the name Comparative Education is not explicitly used to describe courses, but where it is subsumed under themes/modules in teacher education programmes.

Turning to the content of Comparative Education courses, there is a widespread claim that Comparative Education as practiced at the historically Afrikaans and historically Black universities in the pre-1994 era, served to justify the segregated education policies of the government of the day. Very much in the mold of the “factors and forces” traditions of the inter-war and immediate post-World War II Comparative Education (i.e. the 1930s-1950s, as practiced by Kandel, Hans, Schneider and others) courses suggested that, in view of the racial, cultural and linguistic diversity in South Africa and the homeland policy of the government, each of the racial groupings (and within the Black racial grouping, each of the ethnic groupings), should have its own education system, segregated from the others. This, together with the isolation from the international academic community, resulting from the academic boycott waged against South Africa (see: Harricombe & Lancaster, 1995), meant that Comparative Education courses did not take note of anything that happened in the international scene of Comparative Education after Kandel, Hans, Schneider and their contemporaries, and Comparative Education courses became increasingly anachronistic. After South African comparativists re-entered the international academic community after 1994, the South African academic profession internationalized rapidly and forcefully, and Comparative Education courses reflected the same trends and characteristics as Comparative Education courses abroad.

Pre-service teacher education courses in South Africa takes place by means of the four year B.Ed. degree, but Comparative Education is present only in the third and fourth years of study towards this degree. Those taught are

- structure of education systems
- South African education system
- education system and school management
- Comparative Education.

In the B.Ed Honors programme (in the South African degree structure, an honors degree is a postgraduate degree between the bachelor’s and master’s level) the following are present. At some universities they are compulsory modules, while at others they are optional modules:

- Educational Change Policy Issues in South African Education
- Democracy and Civil Education
- Human Rights Education
- The Context of Schooling: Identities and Social Justice
- Justice, Democracy and Education
- Democracy Education
- Comparative Education
- Education Systems (study of selected foreign education systems)
- Comparative Nature of Education Systems

- Lifelong Education
- Home Schooling.

Nine universities present Comparative Education at the level of Master's (of Education) study. Themes/modules are:

- Comparative and International Education
- Education Systems: Historical and Contemporary Perspectives
- Education System Planning and Policy Studies
- Higher Education Systems: Transformation and Policy
- Education, Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights.

At the same nine universities, doctoral study in Comparative Education is possible.

Swaziland

The University of Swaziland is the only university in Swaziland. The Faculty of Education at the University of Swaziland has four departments: The Department of Curriculum and Teaching which focuses on the teaching methodology for all subjects offered at secondary and high school level; The Department of Educational Foundations and Management responsible for teaching the foundation courses such as Educational Psychology, Philosophy of Education and Comparative Education; The Department of Primary Education responsible for training primary school teachers and The Department of In-service Education responsible for the in-service training of secondary school science and mathematics teachers. Comparative Education is a compulsory part of the Teacher Training Programme. The aim of the Comparative Education course is to provide students with an introduction to the development of modern education in world-wide context. An account of the historical sequence of this development and the philosophies behind it is followed by a comparative study of selected education systems. The contemporary issues and problems of education in Africa are dealt with in the last section of the course (Mazibuko, 2006, p.23).

Zimbabwe

Comparative Education has been taught at the University of Zimbabwe (the oldest, and for a long time the only university in Zimbabwe) since the inception of that university in 1955. As an independent course, it is more salient at the postgraduate (Master's) level, while at undergraduate level it has always tended to be embedded in other courses in the Faculty of Education. At the M.Ed. degree level, the Comparative Education curriculum gives students a background in the policies and practices in education in Zimbabwe, Africa and other parts of the world. It further offers students an in-depth study of case studies in teacher education, educational administration, curricula, multicultural education, and primary, secondary and tertiary education.

The six other public universities in Zimbabwe are the National University of Science and Technology, Bindura University of Science Education, Chinhoyi University of Technology, Midlands State University, Masvingo State University and Zimbabwe Open University. Masvingo State University is planning an M.Ed. programme with an optional Comparative Education module, introducing students to Comparative Education. At the other universities there is at present little evidence of Comparative Education in programmes.

Of the four private universities (Selous University, Africa University, Women's University in Africa and the Catholic University), only Africa university has a strong

component of Comparative Education (Machingura & Mutemeri, 2006, p.94). Comparative Education is taught under African Studies I and II, an elective course open to students from any faculty. The aim of Comparative Education in these modules is to explicate education in the context of the African continent. At Africa University, comparative studies are meant to enable students to acquire knowledge of the educational systems of Zimbabwe as a starting point, then of the immediate surrounding Southern African Developing Community states and other selected states on the continent, and finally of other parts of the world. Emphasis is placed on the most important aspects of each country's education system, its problems and successes in education and how these problems are addressed in each country. The key areas studied are Economics of Education, Educational Planning and Policy, Primary and Secondary Education, Preschool Education, Human Development, Curriculum Issues, Educational Statistics, Higher Education, Non-Formal Education and Adult Education.

Africa University is attempting to reflect international trends in its approach and to allow its students to discover where Africa is coming from, where it is now and where it is going to.

Conclusion

In most of the Southern African countries discussed above, Comparative Education is still strong, compared to universities in other parts of the world, with regard to infrastructure, academic staff and place in programs. Marianne Larsen *et al.* in their chapter in this book present the following trajectory of Comparative Education at universities in Canada. They distinguish between three phases: the establishment of Comparative Education (1950s-1970s), the fragmentation of Comparative Education (1980s-1990s) and the broadening of Comparative Education (2000s). The first phase entailed the creation of posts for comparativists at Schools/Faculties of Education and the commencement of Comparative Education modules in pre-graduate and postgraduate Education courses. The fragmentation of Comparative Education phase saw the dwindling of the number of Comparative Education chairs at universities and the downscaling and phasing out of Comparative Education modules in Education programmes as teacher education programmes were increasingly conceptualized as equipping students with a set of skills or techniques (similar to the training of tradespeople) rather than the nurturing of a critical comprehension or schooling in an academic/theoretical grounding (see: Altbach, 1991, p.492; Schweisfurth, 1999, p.94). During the third phase, comparativists found a niche for their expertise in teacher education programmes, in themes such as Intercultural Education or Globalization of Education. Comparative Education was then no longer taught as autonomous modules under the name of Comparative Education, but was subsumed under such themes.

This conjecture has been found to fit the fortunes of Comparative Education at universities in most parts of the world, though with some time differentials: a decade before Canada in the USA, Western Europe simultaneous with Canada, and the extra-Western world some time after (Popov & Wolhuter, 2007). It is a concern that the relatively strong position of Comparative Education at universities in Southern Africa does not so much represent an entrenched discipline, a beacon for the rest of the world considering Southern Africa's place in the world knowledge and world education system, than being a remnant of a time when Comparative Education was still very prominent in university settings (comparable to the 1950s-1970s in Western Europe

and North America) in teacher education programs in particular. If so, it leaves comparativists with the option of on the one hand, attempting to retain their position regarding staff and organizational infrastructure and regarding place of Comparative Education in teacher education programmes, while on the other hand, embracing the new possibilities being opened for Comparative Education in the 21st century in an era of globalization in such issues as education for global citizenship. If successful, they will then end up with having the best of two possible worlds, securing that Southern Africa be a shining beacon of light in the international world of Comparative Education.

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- C. C. Wolhuter (North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa)
- D. Alaoui (Université de la Réunion)
- P. Bulawa (University of Botswana)
- J. J. Katzao (University of Namibia)
- G. N. Likando (University of Namibia)
- T. C. Lijambo (University of Namibia)
- R. Lucas (Université de la Réunion)
- R. F. A. Maarman (North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa)
- E. Z. Mazibuko (University of Swaziland)
- M. Ntabeni (National University of Lesotho)
- M. Seotsanyana (National University of Lesotho)
- A. Si. Moussa (Université de la Réunion)
- G. Tsayang (University of Botswana)
- F. Tupin (Université de la Réunion)

Prof. Dr. Charl Wolhuter
North-West University
Potchefstroom Campus
South Africa
e-mail: Charl.Wolhuter@nwu.ac.za

Reflecting on Comparative Education Teaching in Tanzania: The Case of the University of Dar es Salaam

William A.L. Anangisye

[...] The university function of extending the frontiers of knowledge is very important for humanity... universities in developing countries must also make their contribution to the world of knowledge... We must not establish in our new young countries institutions of higher learning which simply receive. They must give as well.

(Nyerere, 1968, p.180)

Introduction

This paper draws on the thesis that universities in Tanzania have the duty to define their place in the intellectual community globally. This obligation is necessitated largely by the character inherent in what Gutek (2006) calls the 'interdependent global society'. In this light, it is evident that changes or developments that take place in one society tend to affect another society elsewhere through the process of globalization. Consequently, to learn from other education systems or orientations in either nearby or distant countries becomes an indispensable norm:

These changes on the world stage call for new ways of viewing education-society relations. Comparative education, which traditionally has taken as its subject matter the macro- and microlevel forces shaping education systems around the world, is a field ideally situated to study the dynamic interaction between global trends and local responses (Arnove, 2003, p.3).

From the foregoing excerpt, one might as well claim that comparative education teaching is a possible channel to a better understanding of the global education trends and 'local' reactions. So is comparative education teaching and learning in Tanzania. In this paper, retrospectively and prospectively, an attempt is made to analyze comparative education teaching in the setting of Tanzania. Drawing on the experience of the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), the analysis takes on board various pertinent dimensions including Comparative Education in historical perspective; an appraisal of the current status of Comparative Education; and challenges, reflections, and conclusions.

Comparative Education in Historical Perspective

The Notions of International and Comparison

While Comparative Education is a recent development, the concepts of 'international' and 'comparison' are not alien to the setting of Tanzania. To begin with, contacts of 'Tanzanians' with the external or international world has a long standing history. On different occasions and missions, people especially along coastal areas of the Indian Ocean, came into contact with others, mainly traders from the Middle and Far East. Depending on the nature and character of contacts, the transactions involved, amongst others, comparing things. Worthy of note is the fact that the process to

compare things or systems of ideas did not begin with the foregoing contacts. Prior to such interactions, people were already in some sort of socio-economic pursuits that called for comparisons. Since then, the concept has been in practice though in various contexts and discourses. Today, comparative pursuits are even more crucial as the process of globalization has created a state of interdependence.

Evolution and Development of Comparative Education

Where does Comparative Education as a field of study trace its background in Tanzania? Two periods underlying the development of higher education can help to situate the history and development of comparative education teaching:

The University College Dar es Salaam, 1961-1970

As a field of study, Comparative Education in higher education dates back to the 1960s. Its beginning has close links with the establishment of the Department of Education at the University College Dar es Salaam in 1964. As a subfield of education studies, several aspects of the underlying character of Comparative Education were taken on board such as consideration of the East African region - Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda, and Zanzibar. In particular, the comparative character in education took the form of 'Contemporary Problems of Education in East Africa' (University of East Africa [UEA], 1966). This was the first education course ever to depict the elements of Comparative Education. It was concerned with the problems facing the education industry in East Africa. The problems were addressed in the light of the geographical, historical, economic and sociological settings of each country. More specifically, the focus was on problems of the classroom, curriculum, school organization and educational administration. It was taught and learned until the time when the establishment of a full fledged national university – UDSM, occurred on July 1st 1970.

The University of Dar es Salaam, 1970

Following the dissolution of the UEA on 30th June 1970, each country established a national university. The University of Dar es Salaam was born by Act No. 12 of 1970 enacted by the Parliament, marking the beginning of comparative education teaching at university level. As a matter of evidence, a remarkable excerpt pertaining to Comparative Education is succinctly captured in the description of a course on 'History, Theory and Practice of Education':

This course is designed to introduce students to the problems of education as they affect Tanzania today in the wider context of world education. It includes a study of the principles, practice and development of traditional, colonial and post-independence education in Tanzania, enlarged by an historical and comparative examination of educational policies and practices elsewhere in the world (UDSM, 1970, p.87).

That was a turning-point in the field. Since then, there have been different courses which I call 'brands', looking at the nature and character of Comparative Education. Presented chronologically, the *brands* include, first, 'Contemporary Education in East Africa'. The analysis of the educational development in the three East African countries was its main concern. As the countries were former 'colonies', particular issues addressed related the impact of the West upon education. Secondly, in the same period there was 'Comparative Education' alongside 'Contemporary Education in East Africa'. Thirdly, as time went by there came 'Philosophy of Education – Comparative Practice'. This brand addressed philosophy and education in light of case studies drawn

from several selected countries – USA, USSR, China, and Cuba. Fourthly, ‘Development and Trends in Teacher Education’ featured as a necessary course for future teacher trainers. As its name suggests, the course took a comparative education character:

Using a Historical and Comparative Approach, the course seeks to familiarize students with concepts, and structures of professional training of teachers in different countries with special emphasis on Eastern African countries (UDSM, 1982, p.134).

Fifthly, with the establishment of the Faculty of Education (FoEd) in 1988/1989 academic session, one more brand – ‘Education in Developing Countries’ – was coined and made part of the curriculum in the Department of Educational Foundations. This course was about issues related to education in different selected countries mainly China and Cuba. It was core and therefore compulsory to all education students in the Faculties of Arts and Social Sciences and Education. In light of these brands, the following observation is made. Comparative Education was for university students at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. While the other brands were undergraduate courses, Comparative Education was a compulsory course for the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) and Master of Arts in Education (M.A. Ed.) until recently.

Factorizing the History and Development

Having reviewed various brands of Comparative Education, an equally important question is related to the inevitability of the field in the forms I have defined elsewhere. To begin with, there was the influence of the comparative educational thought that spread from different countries in the North. Given the character of the interdependence of countries, the influence was indeed irresistible:

In today’s interdependent global society, it is dramatically evident that no person can be an island, and no nation can exist in isolation. Events that take place in one part of the earth ripple throughout the entire world to become global realities that impact different peoples and nations (Gutek, 2006, p.3).

In this sense, adoption of comparative educational thoughts from other countries into higher education was not only indispensable but also timely. It informed the curriculum amid the process of globalization. Secondly, the evolution and development of Comparative Education was ideologically motivated. In 1967, Tanzania chose to build a socialist society. Informed by the ‘ideology of socialism and self-reliance’, the curricula were destined to promote socialist thinking and values. In this light, comparative education teaching drew on remarkable insights from the selected cases of countries in the Socialist bloc. The ideal models were commonly selected from countries as China, Cuba, USSR, and several others in the bloc. Thirdly, closely related is the influence brought by Tanzanian scholars who were returning from studies in the West and East. On their return, the scholars brought with them different educational insights which found a place in several different curricula of education studies. This was possible because some of them got placement as members of the academic staff (lecturers and researchers) in the then Department of Education. In sum, the evolution and development of Comparative Education in universities in Tanzania is a reflection of the current joint efforts geared to address educational challenges from the international framework.

Present State of Comparative Education

The status of comparative education teaching and learning in the contemporary times can be understood from several different dimensions:

Institutional Infrastructure

The state of infrastructure at UDSM is an area of great concern. The problem is quantitative and qualitative in character. It is a result of expansionism both at undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. While the number of students is on the increase, the supply of facilities is gradual and disproportional. There are several implications in this respect. First, library services are not sufficient and favorable for users – students, members of academic staff, and the public. Secondly, in lecture and seminar rooms furniture is problematic. Thirdly, Information Communication and Technology (ICT) is a challenge. Despite the university efforts, computers are still not adequate for students to undertake studies comfortably. For example, FoEd which has more than three hundred students relies on less than twenty computers. Fourthly, students' illiteracy in computer skills is an issue. Usually, students come into education studies 'illiterate' in ICT. This state of affairs has implications for teaching, research, and consultancy services. All fields of study suffer the consequences. It inhibits efficient access to relevant data. Consequently, students and teachers are denied an opportunity to internationalize educational issues from local settings.

Comparative Education in Undergraduate Programmes

The teaching and learning of Comparative Education has been maintained at UDSM. Today, there are changes in different courses, resulting from recent curriculum reviews. The reviews aim at providing university students with the right competence and performance skills relevant to, among other things, the demand of both local and international markets for university graduates (Mkude & Ishumi, 2004). In the realm of Comparative Education, the reviews have led to the birth of a new brand: 'International and Comparative Education'. It developed from the amalgamation of 'Education in Developing Countries' and 'Contemporary Education in East Africa'. It is an elective undergraduate course for student teachers based in three faculties – Arts and Social Sciences, Science, and Education. The course alongside Principles of Education, Philosophy of Education, Sociology of Education, History of Education, and Professionalism and Ethics in Education is hosted in the Department of Educational Foundations. The focus of comparative education teaching is captured in the following excerpt:

The course looks at the relationship between education and national development in comparative perspective. The relationship between education and development will be examined using various theories of development – modernization, human capital, modes of production, Marxist and Neo-Marxist (UDSM, 2005a, p.212).

Comparative Education in Postgraduate Programmes

For decades, Comparative Education was a compulsory course to all students pursuing postgraduate programmes in FoEd at UDSM. PGDE students pursued the course alongside Master's students. However, in 2001 the course was dropped from the PGDE curriculum. At graduate level, Comparative Education falls under courses designed for a Master of Arts in Education. The course is compulsory to all students

matriculated for the programme. At this level, the course raises and addresses the following education-related agendas:

This course is devoted to a comparative analysis of education systems and educational processes in various countries, with a sharper focus on the systems and practices in developing countries. The global overview and the narrowed-down focus on developing countries are intended to illuminate a wider context in which to analyze problems and prospects of education in economic, social, political as well as cultural development of Tanzania and East African Region (UDSM, 2005a, p.563).

Like other graduate programmes in education, Comparative Education is offered to students who are prepared to serve as lecturers in education, educational researchers, and policy makers, and consultants. The course takes ninety hours, six hours per week, and each contact takes three hours.

Aims of Comparative Education Teaching

The aims of comparative education teaching are at two levels. At undergraduate programme, the teaching of International and Comparative Education is set to attain five aims, including to:

- a. familiarize education students with theories of education and development;
- b. understand the role education has played in the development of various civilizations;
- c. familiarize students with the role of education in modern Western capitalist countries;
- d. give students the ability to analyze the role colonialism played in the development of education in most of the third world countries; and
- e. help students appreciate the extent to which policy and practice have to be exerted in developing countries in order for education to contribute to higher levels of social development.

Also, at postgraduate level Comparative Education is offered to attain five aims. According to the available course outline for the M.A. Ed programme for the 2006/2008 academic years, at the end of the programme, students are expected to:

- a. define Comparative Education and give reasons for study, and analyze and assess the history and methodologies of Comparative Education as a discipline;
- b. analyze global comparisons/phenomena of educational trends e.g. modernization and expansion of education;
- c. analyze educational innovation in selected countries (developed and developing);
- d. discern general developments of education in Tanzania from independence to date; and
- e. analyze educational reforms in Tanzania and how it is impacted by the world education trends.

On the whole, these aims serve as a framework that informs the teaching and learning experiences inherent in Comparative Education.

The Curricula

What are the implications of the foregoing aims for the curricula? On the whole, the aims inform the content. At undergraduate programme, for example, the content is organized into the following modules:

- a. Theories of national development and education;
- b. Education in ancient civilizations;
- c. Colonialism and education;
- d. Education in western capitalist countries (USA, UK, and Scandinavian countries);
- e. Education in Socialist countries (China and Cuba);
- f. The politics of the language of instruction in countries with colonial history (Tanzania, South Africa, India, etc.);
- g. Post-colonial education crises: nature of the crises;
- h. Decolonization: myth or reality?

Each of these modules is further informed by discrete topics. From the modules, it is evident that the focus of Comparative Education draws largely on one of the UDSM values, that is, 'the internationalization value' (UDSM, 2005b). At graduate programme, the comparative education curriculum is set in consonance with five modules:

- a. Comparative Education: understanding the concept;
- b. Expansion of Comparative Education;
- c. Analysis of selected cases;
- d. Education development in Tanzania; and
- e. Education reforms and trends in Tanzania.

In sum, this course's subject matter aims at broadening education students' thinking in light of the framework of the interdependent global society. However, the place of the local settings especially at undergraduate level would appear insignificant.

Textbooks

Like other courses at UDSM, the effectiveness of comparative education teaching depends on, among others, the availability of relevant and up to date materials especially textbooks. For a long time, textbooks have remained the reliable means to comparative education teaching. So often, textbooks are supplemented by references including journal articles and relevant books. However, there are several problems regarding textbooks and references. First, the availability of quality textbooks or references relevant to Comparative Education is an issue of concern. What is available is outdated and not relevant to the current global issues. The problem is attributable to the university's financial inability to buy quality and up to date materials:

As such, for more than a decade now, the University Library has experienced serious budgetary allocation of funds the government [sic]. The low budget reduced the ability of the library to purchase books and subscribe to journals (UDSM, 2005b, p.76).

Secondly, for decades, the text and reference books used in the course are those which were written from socio-economic perspectives inherent in the North. There is lack of textbooks written about the Tanzanian context and perspective. Thirdly, while there are different journals relevant to Comparative Education world wide, their availability is problematic. Financial constraints hinder the university from subscribing to journals for all fields.

Methods

Methods of comparative education teaching and learning are varied in character. As in other disciplines, the choice of appropriate methods depends on several factors, *inter*

alia, the level of programme, the target group, the subject matter, and environment. In this respect, at undergraduate level, the focus is mainly on lecturing, supplemented by private study and students' seminar presentations and discussions. The topics guide lectures and private study. Seminar guide questions, on the other hand, inform presentations and discussions. Usually, seminar questions are set and organized to embody all modules.

At postgraduate level, comparative education teaching and learning draw on a wider range of methods. Given the level of academic maturity, different methods including major research paper presentations, interactive discussions, book or article critiques, case studies, library visit, and where possible, internet search are employed. Rarely is the lecture method used. So often, instructors encourage students to use these activities to familiarize themselves with the literature relevant to their intended research problem areas. In both programmes, efforts are made to use methods that encourage students' creativity and independence.

Underlying Challenges, Reflections, and Conclusions

The Challenges

Although Comparative Education has been in the curriculum of higher education for decades now, it is still unpopular. Until recently, the field has been limited to UDSM only. Of the newly established universities, there is evidence of Comparative Education at the Open University of Tanzania and Makumira University College in Arusha. The challenge ahead is therefore to popularize the field to other universities. Also, unlike other education areas, Comparative Education has had little attention from researchers. This challenge is likely to be because of resource constraints and unpopularity.

Reflections

Six different questions inform the reflections regarding comparative education teaching in the Tanzanian context:

- a. In light of Nyerere's words, how do universities in Tanzania contribute to the international world of knowledge and skills?
- b. To what extent does the local educational setting respond to the educational innovations that take place elsewhere as a result of Comparative Education?
- c. Is Comparative Education equipped enough to create educational thinkers who can define their place in the community of global intellectuals?
- d. Is the curriculum outlined in this paper ideal and within the framework of Comparative Education? Is it dynamic enough to capture issues that it raises in light of the interdependent global perspective?
- e. What is the status of Comparative Education in research?
- f. Who determines the content of Comparative Education?

Conclusions

In light of the foregoing analysis, two observations are made. First, since its conception, comparative education teaching has been regional and ideological in character. Regionally, Comparative Education was concerned with educational issues in East African countries. Ideologically, on the other hand, comparative education teaching had something to do with the orientation and inculcation of socialist thought.

Today, however, comparative education teaching is destined to address current educational challenges, resulting from the ongoing international debates about education. Secondly, given the interdependent nature and character of the *global village* and the significant role that comparative education teaching plays, it is high time the units of education studies in universities consider introducing or strengthening the place of Comparative Education in the curriculum.

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Dr. William A.L. Anangisye
Lecturer
University of Dar es Salaam, Faculty of Education
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania
e-mail: wanangisye@yahoo.com or wanangisye@edu.udsm.ac.tz

Comparative Education in Universities in Uganda

Mary Ocheng Kagoire

Comparative Education as a Field of Study

Comparative Education is one of the foundation courses taught to teacher trainees in Uganda. The others are Psychology, Philosophy, History of Education, Economics of Education, Educational Administration and Curriculum Studies.

There are three levels of teacher training programmes in Uganda. The first is a two year training programme for the award of a certificate, attained by students who have completed their Ordinary level, (four years post-primary of seven years) destined to teach primary level. The second level is also a two year training course for the award of a diploma attended by students who have completed Advanced level, (six years post-primary) but normally did not attain grades sufficient for joining university. Upon completion of the course they are meant to teach upper section of primary and lower secondary schools. The third level is for those who after their Advanced level have attained grades admissible to universities for the award of degree and are destined to teach in secondary schools.

Comparative Education gives an overview of education. It provides knowledge of an education system within which teaching and learning events are formally planned, organized administered and supported. Comparative Education is taught to teacher trainees to introduce them to all components of Uganda's education system, their various purposes and tasks, the way in which they function and cooperate, and the principles of such cooperation. It focuses on various components of education and their inter-relatedness. Collective operation is its concern. In teaching Comparative Education, the concern is to introduce students to the forces, influences and motives that determine the form and character of Uganda's education system, and is directed by the system's objectives.

Through Comparative Education professional educators in Uganda get an understanding of the inter-relatedness of various aspects of our culture. They are made to understand the way education is influenced by patterns of behaviour such as beliefs, interests, attitudes, knowledge, skills, and also by activities of organizations and institutions such as religion and the economy.

Historical Background

Comparative Education as a discipline grew as a result of reports made by scholars who moved from country to country, observing education systems in those countries and later compiled what formed their early literature. Comparative Education also grew out of the interest which the 19th century administrators had in the establishment in their countries, of a national system of education. Such a task demanded and meant that they had to reform what already existed. In an attempt to reform, studies of other countries' education systems were conducted in the hope that they would learn from their experience (Odaet & Bbuye, 1997).

In Uganda the teaching of Comparative Education at the university level started in 1925 at Makerere College, now Makerere University. It was started as a section in the

foundation of education courses taught to teachers to upgrade a number of qualified teachers to become head teachers of prominent primary schools (Ssekamwa, 1997). Teacher trainees studied education systems in other countries, particularly Britain, the colonial master, Canada and Australia. Sometimes student teachers were taken to those countries to learn through apprenticeship and were awarded certificates. In 1970, when the then Makerere College became a university, teacher trainees were awarded degrees and were meant to teach in secondary schools.

Initially, in all teacher training programmes, Comparative Education was taught as one of the sections of foundation of education; it was not a course on its own. Students were taught pertinent issues affecting the country's education system and education in a few other countries for comparison. This meant that the course was appended and its major aim of providing an overall view of education was lost because the content coverage was too shallow. This is very evident in the lower levels of teacher education programmes mentioned earlier. However, over time, most universities noted that gap and have made it a stand-alone course.

In 1996 Makerere, the oldest university in Uganda, introduced several changes as part of the university-wide quality reforms and making Comparative Education a stand-alone course was one of the changes. The course content coverage was increased, the existing topics were made more detailed and new topics were introduced. Other universities in Uganda effected the change thereafter. The universities and government policy makers have utilized the principles of Comparative Education of learning from other countries whenever there is need for change or reform.

Present State: Institutional Infrastructure

The Place of Comparative Education

Undergraduate level

Comparative Education is a foundation course for teacher trainees at the university for the undergraduate students. It is a core course which every undergraduate teacher trainee has to undertake. Students take it in second year, second semester just before going for School Practice. Such an arrangement is meant to prepare students theoretically so that as they go out to the field, they are able to have an understanding of the interrelatedness of the cultures they meet in the schools and communities where they carry out their internships. The skills of realizing value differences characterizing every community acquired from studying Comparative Education is used to enrich other foundation courses that are studied in their third year of study.

Comparative Education is scored out of 100% and accounts for a total of two credit units like any other foundation course. The coursework is scored at 30% while the examination is 70%. The pass rate of the course in most universities is above 80% as most undergraduate students find the subject very interesting and relevant to the real life situation.

Postgraduate level

Comparative Education at this level is one of the programmes offered for Master's students. Uganda has 27 universities, both public and private, but it is only in Makerere University where it is offered. Some complain of the lack of teaching staff specialized in Comparative Education and that the programme is not attractive to students because the job market is limited to teaching in Teacher Training Institutions.

In Makerere University School of Education, the entry requirement is at least a B in Comparative Education at undergraduate level. Regarding popularity of the programme in Uganda, Makerere is the only university among the 27 in the country that offers Master's in Comparative Education. Even at Makerere the number of students applying for it has been decreasing every year. For instance, in the last five years only three students have been enrolled for that programme. There are some years when the university does not register a single student for the programme and yet it advertised every year. This could be attributed to the reasons earlier mentioned. Other programmes in the same department of Foundations such as Education Administration admit not less than 15 students every year.

Aims of Comparative Education Teaching

Comparative Education is concerned with contemporary issues and alternative policy solutions to those issues. It is concerned with the reality of the world. The course is designed to deepen students' understanding of their country's education system through cross-cultural comparison of education issues and policies.

According to Odaet and Bbuye (1997) the major aim of teaching Comparative Education is to enable students to exhibit:

- i. Cultural sensitivity and concern with the operation of education in different cultures and societies.
- ii. Ability to blend theory and practice in the study of educational issues.
- iii. Ability to increase and strengthen the understanding of education in the country and offer advice on education problems and challenges.
- iv. Ability to think beyond their country and to study problems and achievement of other people through education.

Specifically the aims of teaching Comparative Education to teacher trainees are to:

- i. Give the teacher trainee a deep insight into the nature of the communities all over the world, appreciate international standards and have a desire to understand patterns of mind and meaning for issues affecting education in foreign countries.
- ii. Classify their ideas about educational theories and practices by comparing their own with those held by others and analyzing the significance of the difference for their benefit.
- iii. Engage in the study of social, economic, political systems other than their own so as to come to a better appreciation of their own system of education.
- iv. Provide a much richer academic and professional context for all their activities in the classroom and the school. Whatever aspects of the curriculum the teacher selects will be enriched by experience from other countries studied.
- v. Predict the consequences of certain actions and issues in their environment using lessons from other countries.
- vi. Enable the teachers to use practical orientation of the Comparative Education subject to ably participate in educational reform with experience and lessons from other countries.

A study of Comparative Education enables teachers to gain knowledge of education of other countries. This helps in the act of comparing such education systems with theirs and this deepens their insights into the educational way of thinking. All this makes the teacher focus on the educational realities in the country. In addition, strengths, weaknesses and challenges of the education systems being compared will

stand out clearly for or against the background of foreign education systems. This is a mechanism to improve Uganda's education system. Through Comparative Education any existing general interest in education questions can be aroused and strengthened. Again, individual educational problems can be dealt with more thoroughly by making use of the different national aspects and various international pros and cons, rather than by restricting oneself to the educational ideas of Uganda alone.

Curriculum

The objective of the Comparative Education Course for the undergraduates is to clarify the concept of 'Comparative Education', and to define the aims and relevance of Comparative Education. In addition it is to highlight the operation of education in different cultures and societies using an international perspective and enhance students' understanding of the principles of solving problems in education. It is also to equip students with knowledge and skills relevant in facilitating education innovations and reform in the country.

The course content is as follows:

- i. Definition of Comparative Education.
- ii. Aims of Comparative Education.
- iii. Functional role of Comparative Education or justification of teaching Comparative Education to policy makers, teacher educators, teachers, and other stakeholders.
- iv. Factors that influence an education system in Uganda such as: geographical (rural/urban), economic, religious and natural factors.
- v. Approaches to the study of Comparative Education.
- vi. An overview of the problems of education in Uganda.
- vii. Impact of colonial education in Uganda.
- viii. Recent educational reforms such as: Universal Primary and Secondary Education, language policy, vocational education, among others.
- ix. Comparative study in education such as education in the USA and Uganda. Comparing the aims and objectives of both education systems and looking at the administration, structure and curricula.

At postgraduate level, the same topics are covered but in much more detail and many more education systems in different countries are studied.

Contemporary Issues in Uganda that Dominate Comparative Education Teaching

The relevance and quality of education are the major issues exposed to the students as they undertake this course. Over the years the curricula in Uganda at all levels have been irrelevant and the quality very poor. At university there has been a change from elite to a mass education system without reforming the curricula and improving the infrastructure. As a result, the level of unemployment is very high because the market is unable to create new jobs to absorb an oversupply of graduates.

Some of the persistent issues that have dominated the education system include: quality teachers, teacher-learner ratio, instructional materials, management, infrastructure, community involvement, politics, religion, rural-urban, gender and health (Uganda Government, 1989, 1991).

- i. Teacher/Lecturers: In Uganda teachers of all levels are poorly remunerated for the work they do and work under poor conditions. As a result, it is difficult to attract the best to the teaching profession. Such poor quality teachers are

- unable to cope with teaching requirements so the attrition rate is very high. As a result the teacher-learner ratio is very high at all levels, sometimes reaching 1:100.
- ii. Instructional materials: there is a massive shortage of teaching and learning materials, which poses a challenge to student teachers new to the field.
 - iii. The transfer of curriculum from the western world has been the legacy of colonialism. Efforts to change have not yielded fruit because the country still depends on foreign support to run all the social services.
 - iv. Management of schools and universities is weak because leaders do not get quality formal training. Institutions depend on administration courses taken during the pre-service period.
 - v. Infrastructure: Most institutions lack essential infrastructure like lecture rooms, laboratories, offices, and libraries, among others.
 - vi. Community participation in education is very limited at all levels. Parents were used to the state taking charge; besides very few can afford university education.
 - vii. Politics: There has been persistent instability since independence and this affects the smooth running of institutions. Politicians are also often interfering in the running of the universities since the state is the appointing authority of the top leadership.
 - viii. Religious differences create problems which impact on education, for example, rivalry and unhealthy competition between religious groups. Government has to compromise quality among personnel in order to maintain a religious balance in educational staff.
 - ix. Access to social services is limited in rural areas and the number of students from such areas is low.
 - x. There has been persistent gender imbalance at all levels, particularly at the university level due to the socio-cultural and economic challenges faced by the female children in Uganda.
 - xi. Language of instruction: Uganda does not have a national language. English is still a medium of instruction and this disadvantages those students who use local languages in their communities.

Textbooks on Comparative Education

Textbooks being used in the teaching of Comparative Education are those written by Bereday (1964), Hans (1974), Holmes (1963), Kazamias & Massialas (1967), Postlewaithe (1986), and Halls (1990). These appear to be rather out of date. There has not been any local author except for the manuscript written by Odeat and Bbuye a decade earlier (1997). However, in the last five years the use of the World Wide Web has increased and this at least has enabled students and staff to access the most recent literature.

Methods Used to Teach Comparative Education

Uganda lacks personnel specializing in Comparative Education. Most lecturers teaching this course have had their training in an education foundation course. As result, the most dominant method used is the lecture. The high lecturer-students ratio in most universities has also contributed to the adoption of these traditional methods.

Traditional-based modes of assessment, which are still predominant in Uganda's higher education, tend to favour assessment of pre-determined knowledge and competences at the expense of application and resourcefulness. This encourages lecturers to 'distribute' all the knowledge that they will require the students to reproduce. The students on their part assume a passive role and resort to rote learning. Uganda's education system being an examination driven system, students consider the final score more important than the process. This 'mark syndrome' hinders students and overshadows the demand for participatory approaches, as students take up the time to cram the handed out materials.

One can conclude echoing Hans (1974) that because the lecture method is adopted, what is supposed to be comparative is not, because the lecturer gives a description and information of other countries.

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Dr. Mary Ocheng Kagoire
School of Education
Makerere University
Uganda
e-mail: mocheng@educ.mak.ac.ug

CONCLUSION

The Chequered Global Picture of Comparative Education at Universities

Charl Wolhuter, Nikolay Popov, Klara Skubic Ermenc, Maria Manzon, Bruno Leutwyler*

As we indicated in the editorial preface, the essence of Comparative Education can thoroughly be understood if we focus on its history and current existence at universities world wide. This volume builds on the exemplary work edited by Halls (1990), which was the first to examine the trends and issues – conceptual, historical, methodological, and institutional – in the field from a worldwide comparative perspective. The present book also takes political geography as the unit of analysis, but mainly focuses on the teaching of Comparative Education at academic institutions.

This concluding chapter teases out the salient aspects of academic Comparative Education and makes a mosaic-like comparison of comparisons. It draws insights from the preceding forty-two national and regional chapters grouped according to six world regions: Europe, North America, Latin America, Asia, Middle East, and Africa. In these reports, chapter authors addressed the history and present state of the field of Comparative Education, particularly its institutional infrastructures, place in undergraduate and graduate curricula, aims, teaching methods and textbooks. Using insights from earlier chapters, this final chapter begins with some conceptual clarifications on the nature of Comparative Education. It then presents a broad global picture of the historical periods of Comparative Education's institutionalization at universities, followed by a detailed analysis of its current state of development in academia. The chapter concludes with some critical reflections that open up for further discussion some issues that arise from these analyses and from the book.

Comparative Education: Conceptual Clarification, Objectives and Significance

What is Comparative Education?

Defining the term Comparative Education is no easy assignment. Comparative Education is frequently described as an amorphous field (see Bereday, 1957, p.13; Halls, 1990, p.2; Wilson, 1994, p.480), an “eclectic/diverse field with adjustable borders and contours which are difficult to demarcate” (Epstein and Carroll, 2005, p.62). The question is asked “Is Comparative Education a Discipline?” (Heath, 1958), even whether Comparative Education is a field (a ‘field’ is then regarded as a more loose entity than a ‘discipline’) (Manzon, 2007; Mason, 2007). Robert Cowen (2000,

* Note: The sections of this concluding chapter were written as follows: *Comparative Education: Conceptual Clarification, Objectives and Significance* by Charl Wolhuter; *Historical Background of Comparative Education at Universities World Wide* by Nikolay Popov & Klara Skubic Ermenc; *Current State of Comparative Education at Universities World Wide* by Maria Manzon; and *Some Critical Reflections* by Bruno Leutwyler. The authors express their common responsibility for this chapter.

p.333) suggests that there is no single or unified 'Comparative Education', but that there are multiple Comparative Educations.

Manzon (2011: 207) has constructed a typology of the various definitions of Comparative Education extant in the field. These include definitions attempting to define Comparative Education by object of study, by method and by purpose. Helpful as a working definition might be Stone's (1981, pp.59-62) description of Comparative Education's "three in one perspective". Comparative Education is then regarded as a scientific study of education from a threefold perspective:

- an education systems perspective: Comparative Education focuses on *education systems*, rather than on individual educator-educand dynamics
- a societal perspective: Comparative Education focuses on the interrelationships between societal (i.e. social, political, economic, geographic, demographic, religious-philosophical) context and education
- a comparative perspective: different education systems within their societal contexts are compared.

The lack of a clear, distinct identity with sharply demarcated borders might well be a factor in the widespread dissipation of Comparative Education as an independent subject, and it being subsumed in courses focusing on actual, contemporary educational issues. This trend of recent years and decades is graphically illustrated in Marianne Larsen et al.'s chapter on the fortunes of Comparative Education in Canada, but also took place in many other countries. Leonie Schüssler and Bruno Leutwyler link the failure of Comparative Education to gain a strong, distinct presence at universities in Switzerland, to its identity crisis. This characteristic of Comparative Education also results in, as Patricia Kubow and Paul Fossum comment on Comparative Education at universities in the United States of America, that Comparative Education courses seldom have an anchoring textbook. The absence of a clear identity might also be a contributing factor to Comparative Education being dispersed to a number of disciplines even outside Education, as Denis Poizat shows happened in France. It can also account for Comparative Education figuring more as a method, rather than as a subject, in teacher education programmes, for example in the Czech Republic. Because of its elusive identity, methodological, theoretical and philosophical foundations frequently constitute a substantial part of Comparative Education courses, for example in Oman, Greece, Brazil, Egypt and in the Southern African countries. As none of the (other) Education disciplines focus on the education system, Comparative Education is frequently employed to give teacher students an overview of their own (national) education system and how it functions, for example in Egypt, Uganda and in South Africa. Also, on the credit side, the lack of a sharply delineated identity gives Comparative Education a resilience and adaptability, to be ever capable of teaching students how changing societal imperatives are impacting on education (see Konstantinos Karras' chapter on Greece).

Objectives and Significance of Comparative Education

The significance of Comparative Education lies on at least five planes: description, understanding, evaluation, application, and with respect to furthering the philanthropic ideal (Wolhuter, 2011: 35-48). The most basic utility of Comparative Education is to describe education systems/learning communities within their societal contexts in order to satisfy the yearning for knowledge which is *sui generis* part of human nature. On the

next plane Comparative Education also satisfies the need to understand: education systems of learning communities are explained or understood from surrounding contextual forces which shape them. Thirdly, Comparative Education serves to evaluate education systems: the own education system as well as a universal evaluation of education. Ildikó Holik describes how the introduction of Comparative Education at universities in post-1990 Hungary is related to the evaluation of the Hungarian education system in the international line of education systems; in an age of globalization and PISA studies. The field of Comparative Education also has applied functions: application with respect to education system planning and reform, application with respect to the improvement of teaching practice and application with respect to serving other fields of Educational studies. An example of the first is the introduction of Comparative Education course at universities in Lithuania in the post-1990 era, which was, as Rimantas Zelvys explains, related to the search for models when a new national education system was designed, and the old Soviet model could no longer do. The original inspiration source of the scholarly field of Comparative Education, the philanthropic ideal of the time of Jullien remains the most noble cause of Comparative Education (Wolhuter, 2011: 39). Serving and improving the state of humanity is more urgent than ever in the current age of globalization, i.e. by nurturing a global citizen. Equipped with a creative, critical, caring mindset (Schneller & Wolhuter, eds, 2011).

The wide array of purposes or objectives of Comparative Education scholarship is also evident in students' motivations for studying Comparative Education, as a recently published study (Wolhuter *et al.*, 2011) shows. In the case of the United States of America, the dominant motive for enrolling in Comparative Education courses are related to international understanding within the context of education as part of international aid. The hierarchy of expectations of the American students might be understood against the background of these students' experience and career plans in international aid. American student expectations may also result from the amount of foreign aid (and education as part thereof) that the United States of America has been engaged in the past half century, ever since the advent of independence of large parts of the Third World, The Cold War, and the Truman Doctrine. In the case of Ireland the most important motivation was to help students to find a job to teach abroad. The Irish student teachers were mainly in their early twenties and intended to teach abroad at some stage of their career. They also indicated that they hoped it would develop their capacities to teach in the newly developing multi-cultural classrooms in Ireland and to also develop their general teaching strategies. The Greek and South African students looked to Comparative Education to illuminate and to guide the domestic education reform project. Both Greece and South Africa have recently become the scene of fundamental societal reconstruction, of which education is not only an integral part, but in which education had been assigned a pivotal instrumental role to bring it about. Bulgarian students' expectations, on the other hand, seem to revolve around gaining of fuller knowledge and insight of their own education system. While undergoing societal and educational transformation as South Africa, Bulgaria as a fully fledged member of the erstwhile Eastern Block, never suffered from academic isolation as South Africa did during the years of the international academic boycott. But the existence of a government lacking transparency and a political-bureaucratic machinery up to 1990 might have created a yearning to know and to understand their education system better. In contrast to South Africa, Tanzania has long since passed through the post-

independence educational and societal reconstruction of the 1960s – a project that bore limited success, and whatever educational reform is currently taking place, takes place within the prescribed fixed parameters of the World Bank Structural Adjustment Programme (which Tanzania had little option but to sign) and the neo-liberal global economic revolution. Tanzanian students therefore have a somewhat more detached (from everyday practice), purely intellectual expectation from Comparative Education courses. Oman has recently commenced to develop a mass education system, therefore Omani students, as their South African and Greek counterparts are interested in the value of Comparative Education to illuminate and to guide domestic educational reform. A unique expectation which transpired among the responses of the Omani students, is that, in a country with one public university, and 5097 students studying abroad (total tertiary enrolment 68154), Comparative Education will be seen a means to obtain knowledge of foreign education systems, which will facilitate students to proceed to further (post-graduate) studies abroad. Similarly, among the Thai post-graduate cohort, an interesting expectation was what would assist them in finding an appropriate research design for their theses. Cuban students viewed Comparative Education as a way to gain a fuller understanding of various countries' societies and cultures. Cuban students' expectations could have been shaped by their country's history of using education to create a new society and culture since 1961. They view Comparative Education as revealing how their own as well as other societies and cultures were shaped by education, and how education contributes to the accomplishment of societal goals, such as societal justice.

While this study of students' motivations, as the chapters of in this book portrays Comparative Education as a dynamic, pliable and ever rejuvenating field, it is the last of the above mentioned objectives of the field, namely the philanthropic ideal — which is absent from Comparative Education as it figures at universities. In not a single chapter in this book, nor in the motivations of students in the study cited in the previous paragraph, could any trace of this philanthropic ideal be found. The loss of this original source of inspiration and most noble ideal of Comparative Education as the field got its place at universities is an issue which instructors of Comparative Education at universities should seriously reflect on and attempt to restore.

Historical Background of Comparative Education at Universities World Wide

Despite the fact that the histories of Comparative Education vary in different countries, the following five phases could be outlined in the historical background of Comparative Education at universities world wide:

1. Early years phase (1900s – 1910s)
2. Classic years phase (1920s – 1930s)
3. Expansion phase (1950s – mid-1970s)
4. Varied trends phase (mid-1970s – 1990s)
5. New development phase (2000s)

It should of course be pointed out that this is a ‘rough’ periodization. Some phases, especially phases 3 and 4 differ with a decade or so in different countries.¹

Early Years Phase of Comparative Education at Universities (1900s – 1910s)

William W. Brickman writes that the 19th century “ended with a large body of literature, *university courses* [italic added], and the foundations of a scientific approach to research in comparative education” (Brickman, 1988, p.6). Many comparativists of the second half of the 19th century were university professors and it was quite natural for them to implement results of comparative education studies to their lecture courses. However, it could be assumed that those courses did not examine the theoretical, conceptual and methodological aspects of Comparative Education.

The university initiation of Comparative Education at the dawn of the 20th century was considerably helped out by the fact that many other comparative sciences had already been established at the academia: Comparative Anatomy, Comparative Linguistics, Comparative Literature, and above all – Comparative Anthropology, Comparative Psychology, and Comparative Sociological Studies.

At the threshold of the 20th century two very important books – Charles H. Thurber’s *Principles of School Organization. A Comparative Study Chiefly Based on the Systems of the United States, England, Germany and France* (1899) and Michael Ernest Sadler’s *How far can we learn anything of practical value from the study of foreign systems of education?* (1900) – much contributed to laying down the foundations of university Comparative Education, which beginning was undoubtedly traced by the lecture courses of James E. Russell at Columbia University in 1900 (Bereday, 1963, p.189); Isaac L. Kandel at Manchester University in 1905 (Hans, 1959, p.44); and Fred Clarke at Southampton University in 1905 (Lauwers, 1966, p.15).

Classic Years Phase of Comparative Education at Universities (1920s – 1930s)

Some graduates of Teachers College, Columbia University put the grounds of Comparative Education at other universities in the late 1910s and 1920s, for instance: Peter Sandiford at Toronto, Thomas Woody at Pennsylvania, William Clark Trow at Michigan, Paul Hanna at Stanford (Wilson, 1994, p.462).

In the 1920s courses on Comparative Education were started by G. W. Young and Nicholas Hans in London, and by Sergius Hessen in Prague and Warsaw. Important steps to preparing and offering courses on Comparative Education were also done in Bulgaria, Croatia, Czechoslovakia, and Norway.

A very important moment in the university development of Comparative Education was the Eastbourne Conference held in 1931 and chaired by Paul Monroe, then Director of the International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University. The conference was mainly focused on examinations, but one of the decisions taken was towards introducing comparative education courses at teachers colleges and institutes.

During the 1920s and 1930s, courses on Comparative Education were taught in Bulgaria by Christo Negentzov at Sofia University; in USA by Robert Ulich at Harvard University, and Isaac Kandel, James Russell, William Russell, John Dewey, Paul

¹ Data on different countries were taken from authors’ chapters in this book. In addition, sources different from authors’ chapters were consulted.

Monroe, Thomas Alexander, and George Counts at Columbia University; in China at Beijing Normal University and Zhongshan University. Important contributions to setting the grounds of Comparative Education were also done in Germany by Friedrich Schneider, in former Yugoslavia by Albert Bazala, Franjo Mandić-Higy, Stjepan Pataki, Dragutin Franković and Darinka Mitrović, in Lithuania by Pranas Dielininkaitis and Jonas Lauzikas, in Norway at the University of Oslo, and in Mexico by Ezequiel A. Chávez as early as 1931. Jean Piaget contributed to setting the grounds of Comparative Education in Switzerland since the early 1930s by establishing a strong link between the University of Geneva and the International Bureau of Education.

In the 1920s and 1930s Comparative Education was acknowledged as an academic field in Japan due to the studies and efforts of Shigetaka Abe, Choichi Higuchi, Kenichi Hida, Masunori Hiratsuka, and many others. In Uganda, the teaching of Comparative Education started in 1925 at Makerere College. In 1940, Comparative Education was introduced as a discipline in Brazil at the University of Brazil by Antonio Carneiro Leão, and in Cuba at Havana University by Emma Pérez Téllez.

Expansion Phase of Comparative Education at Universities (1950s – mid-1970s)

The third quarter of the 20th century saw massive developments of university comparative education courses world wide. It was a phase of optimism on the future of the field. The 1960s were perhaps the most promising years.

In the USA, the 1950s–1970s growth of Comparative Education was due to David Scanlon, William Johnson, William W. Brickman, George Z. F. Bereday, George Kneller, Andreas Kazamias, Joseph Farrell, Arnold Anderson, Philip Foster, Erwin Epstein, Philip Altbach, Val Rust, and many others (Wilson, 1994, pp.463-472). The influential university centers of Comparative Education were Columbia, Chicago, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Stanford, UCLA, NYU, and Wisconsin.

In Canada, Comparative Education spread across the country in the 1950s and 60s due to Andreas Paplauskas-Ramunas at the University of Ottawa, Joseph Katz at the University of British Columbia, Reginald Edwards at McGill University in Montreal, Robert Lawson at the University of Calgary, and Kazim Bacchus at the University of Alberta. The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education program was founded by Joseph Farrell and David Wilson in 1969. Comparative education programs were also established in the 1960s-70s at St. Mary's University by Donald Weeren, the Université de Montréal by Marcel de Grandpré, and the University of Western Ontario by Douglas Ray. Joseph Lauwerys became the founding director of the Atlantic Institute of Education in Halifax (Wilson, 1994, pp.471-473).

In Great Britain, a similar albeit less dynamic expansion took place, where Brian Holmes, Joseph Lauwerys, George Bereday, Harold Noah, Max Eckstein, Edmund King, Vernon Mallinson, and W. D. Halls founded comparative education programs. The universities of London, Cambridge, Reading, Oxford, Manchester, Leeds, and Edinburgh constituted the most active centers in the field.

In Germany, in the 1950s-1960s, the development of Comparative Education at universities was done by Friedrich Schneider (after his post-war return to Munich), Franz Hilker in Wiesbaden, Friedrich Edding in Berlin, Walter Merck and Gottfried Hausmann in Hamburg, where the first chair of Comparative Education in Germany was founded in 1950. From the 1960s through the 1980s Comparative Education reached a high degree of independence in university schools of education. Other

distinguished comparativists were Herman Röhrs in Heidelberg, Erich Hylla in Frankfurt, Oskar Anweiler in Bochum, and Leonhard Froese in Marburg.

This phase saw various forms and levels of establishment of university courses on Comparative Education in Bulgaria by Nayden Chakarov; in France by Michel Debeauvais, Maurice Debesse, Lé Thành Khôi; in former Yugoslavia by Dragutin Franković; in Hong Kong by Cheng Tung Choy; in Norway by J. Sandven, C. Sjöstedt, W. Sjöstrand, P. Rand; in Denmark by K. Grue-Sørensen and C. Glenstrup; in Finland by S. Haahtela, O. K. Kyostio, A. Takala and K. Kajava. Very serious developments in Comparative Education took place in Spain due to Juan Tusquets in Barcelona and Julio Ruiz Berrio in Madrid; in Italy, due to Lamberto Borghi, Aldo Visalberghi, and Mauro Laeng; and in Egypt, mostly at Ain Shams University. Comparative Education gained a foothold at South African universities during the 1960s. Courses on Comparative Education appeared at universities in Korea and in Iran in the 1950s and 1960s. The same happened in Thailand in the 1960s. Efforts were also done in Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania (1960s), Malaysia (1970), Taiwan (early 1970s), Mexico (1960s-1970s), and Chile (1967-1973). The time between the 1950s and 1980s saw the birth of Hungarian Comparative Education.

In the Netherlands, lectures in Comparative Education were initiated by Idenburg in 1956 in Amsterdam, van Gelder in 1964 in Groningen, and Velema in 1967 in Nijmegen. In Flanders, Plancke started similar lectures in 1951 in Ghent, and De Keyser in 1970 in Louvain.

China's Comparative Education university history was different in that period. There was a hiatus of almost four decades due to the political wars and ideological shifts that took place in the country since the late 1930s. The fast development began after the death of Mao Zedong in 1976, when his successor Deng Xiaoping adopted an Open Door Policy. A renaissance of the field started in the late 1970s. Parallel political upheavals from the 1950s to the 1980s in the then Czechoslovakia led to a discontinuance and stagnation of Comparative Education in the country.

In Japan, the first chair of Comparative Education was established at Kyushu University in 1952. The lecturer in-charge of the Comparative Education course was Masuko Otake who might have been the first female teacher of Comparative Education in Japan. In the 1950s and 1960s chairs of Comparative Education were founded at Hiroshima University, Kyoto University and Tokyo University.

However, some countries did not face the process of Comparative Education expansion in the third quarter of the 20th century. In Brazil, after the progress in the 1930s-1950s, in the 1960s Comparative Education was strongly limited in education programs' curricula. In the Soviet Union, during the 1950s-1970s, the development of Comparative Education as a teacher training discipline was obstructed. In Lithuania, Comparative Education was for ideological reasons not taught between 1940-1990. In Uruguay, Comparative Education did not yet exist as a field of study at universities until 2005.

Varied Trends Phase of Comparative Education at Universities (mid-1970s – 1990s)

During the past quarter of the 20th century a deep process of neglecting Comparative Education was faced. Reasons for that process were: a) retirement of university programs' founders leading to a gap after them; b) university curriculum and structural reforms; c) teacher education reforms equipping students with a set of skills or techniques rather than an academic schooling in the fundamental disciplines of

Education; d) pessimism about the worthiness of academic comparative education knowledge; e) budget cuts usually resulting in the closure of education programs; f) last but not the least, the lack of commonly agreed theory, methodology and academic priorities among comparativists. Fragmentation or even destruction processes in that period could be seen in the USA, Canada, Great Britain, Germany, and South Africa. In Chile, the development of Comparative Education was interrupted during the military dictatorship (1973-1990). In the Netherlands and Flanders, Comparative Education became less visible as a distinct scientific discipline.

At the same time it should be said that processes of disregarding Comparative Education in the 1980s–1990s is not quite the case in Egypt, Spain, Cuba, Mexico, Thailand, and especially Japan and China where further developments contributed to the growth of Comparative Education. In Spain, in particular, Comparative Education became a compulsory foundation subject by government mandate for the bachelor's degree in Pedagogy. In Slovenia, Comparative Pedagogy has likewise been a mandatory course in the study of pedagogy since 1979. In Switzerland, a full professorship for Comparative Education was established in 1973 at the University of Geneva which had enjoyed a prominent position until the death of its holder, Pierre Furter, in the 1990s. In Greece, Comparative Education was developed as a university discipline in the 1980s and 1990s. Similarly in Oman, Comparative Education was institutionalized with the official opening of its first university in 1986.

In Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary and the Czech Republic a new development phase of Comparative Education commenced in the 1990s, and in Kazakhstan, Lithuania and Serbia such a phase started in the late 1990s to early 2000s. In Uganda, Comparative Education experienced a significant development in 1996.

Canada, Brazil, Uruguay, Chile, the UK, Italy, Denmark, the Netherlands, Flanders, Russia, Korea have also begun to witness a renaissance of Comparative Education for a decade or so. In most cases, however, it metamorphosed from a strong, stand-alone lecture course to a perspective increasingly infused in educational subjects, a transition from specialization to integration (Tikly & Crossley, 2001).

New Development Phase of Comparative Education at Universities (2000s)

At the end of the last millennium, Patricia Broadfoot optimistically comments:

“I suppose we should be pleased. At last the potential of Comparative Education has been recognized. It has established itself in the eyes of policy-makers as an important mechanism for both judging the health of a particular education system and for learning about ways to improve it. If 20 years ago the future of the field itself seemed in some doubt as specialist appointments to university posts dwindled and courses were axed, now the commitment to ‘learning from comparing’ has arguably never been stronger” (Broadfoot, 1999, p.197).

Most authors of chapters in this book report on renewed development processes in Comparative Education as an academic field in their countries. The current situation in a world wide comparative perspective is analyzed below.

Current State of Comparative Education at Universities World Wide

In the introductory chapter of this book, Erwin H. Epstein cited among the benchmarks of the field's organizational development the creation of coursework, the establishment of formal academic programs, the publication of textbooks, the inauguration of professional societies, and the development of databases on programs and coursework in Comparative Education. This section draws the contemporary scenario world wide on the first three domains. Concretely, it examines the current forms of existence of academic Comparative Education, the main trends of development, the contents of lecture courses and patterns in the use and authorship of textbooks. The section concludes with some remarks on the contemporary challenges facing the position of Comparative Education in academia.

The forty-two chapters of this third edition explored 58 countries in six world regions. Nevertheless, other parts of the world are underrepresented. Moreover, some reports focused on teacher education and others on graduate courses; only a few provided detailed quantitative data on surveys conducted. The trends and patterns reported here therefore have to be viewed with some restraint as depicting a world wide 'snapshot' inventory.

Current Forms of Academic Comparative Education

As a Specialist Programme in Comparative Education or Related Fields

A total of eleven countries reported on the existence of specialist programmes of Comparative Education at the Master's level. They were, in regional order, Norway, Switzerland and the UK; Canada and the USA; China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Japan; and Tanzania and Uganda. Common titles of the programmes were: Comparative Education; Comparative and International Education; International and Comparative Education; Development and Multicultural Education; Comparative, International and Development Education; and Intercultural and Comparative Education. The most recent programme (since 2005) was established in Switzerland. Though less common, some countries, namely Norway and the Republic of China, offer a bachelor's programme in the field.

As a 'Comparative Education' Lecture Course at Universities

The chapters in this volume indicated that the course entitled 'Comparative Education' is currently taught at the B.Ed. level in almost 50 countries (81 percent of reported countries), and at the Master's level in 34 countries. Ten countries (20 percent) reported a compulsory/core status for the subject at the bachelor's level, and 4 countries (12 percent) at the master's level. In Bulgaria, for example, a compulsory lecture course at the B.Ed. degree level is taught in 7 universities. In Spain, Hungary, Kazakhstan, and Russia, national curricular guidelines mandate this lecture course as a compulsory/core course for B.Ed. majors. In Serbia, however, the course is compulsory only in one institution of teacher education in Novi Sad. Meanwhile in Iran, Comparative Education is a sub-field of Primary Education at its teacher training universities. Overall, subjects specifically named as 'Comparative Education' are more widely taught as a lecture course in the bachelor's degree in education and are mostly offered as optional courses at universities. Tables 1 and 2 give a regional breakdown of these phenomena.

Table 1: 'Comparative Education' taught as a B.Ed. Lecture Course (2012)

| Region | Countries | Compulsory only | Optional only | Compulsory & Optional ¹ | Total No. | % |
|----------------|--|-----------------|---------------|------------------------------------|-----------|------|
| Europe | Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands, Flanders, Norway, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, UK | 3 | 9 | 7 | 19 | 39% |
| North America | Canada, USA | - | 2 | - | 2 | 4% |
| Latin America | Brazil, Cuba, Mexico | - | 3 | - | 3 | 6% |
| Asia | China, Taiwan, Japan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Malaysia, Thailand | 1 | 4 | 2 | 7 | 14% |
| Middle East | Egypt, Iran, Oman | - | 1 | 2 | 3 | 6% |
| Africa | Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Gabon, Namibia, Reunion, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda | 6 | 8 | 1 | 15 | 31% |
| <i>Total</i> | | 10 | 27 | 12 | 49 | 100% |
| <i>% total</i> | | 20% | 55% | 24% | 100% | |

Note: ¹ The subject is compulsory for some B.Ed. specializations, but is optional for other majors.

Table 2: 'Comparative Education' taught as a Master's Lecture Course (2012)

| Region | Countries | Compulsory only | Optional only | Compulsory & Optional ¹ | Total No. | % |
|----------------|--|-----------------|---------------|------------------------------------|-----------|------|
| Europe | Bulgaria, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Lithuania, Norway, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, UK | - | 7 | 3 | 10 | 29% |
| North America | Canada, USA | - | 1 | 1 | 2 | 6% |
| Latin America | Cuba, Mexico | - | 2 | - | 2 | 6% |
| Asia | China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Japan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Malaysia, Thailand | 2 | 2 | 4 | 8 | 23% |
| Middle East | Iran | | 1 | | 1 | 3% |
| Africa | Benin, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ghana, Namibia, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe | 2 | 2 | 7 | 11 | 32% |
| <i>Total</i> | | 4 | 15 | 15 | 34 | 100% |
| <i>% total</i> | | 12% | 44% | 44% | 100% | |

Note: ¹ The subject is compulsory for some specializations, but is optional for others.

With respect to the positioning of Comparative Education within university curricula, Park & Hyun (Korea chapter) commented that: "how much leeway

Comparative Education courses have in teacher education is closely related to the system of teacher education and its curriculum structure". This is substantiated in Ireland and the Netherlands and Flanders, and Serbia, which associated the marginal status of Comparative Education within teacher education with the low status and late development of teacher education in their countries. A similar pattern occurs in Uruguay due to the late development of its higher education system.

A common pattern further exhibited in the country reports is a contraction of space allocated to the foundations of education (including Comparative Education), with a marked shift in teacher education curricula from a theoretical to a pragmatic focus (e.g. Chile, USA, South Africa). Yet, the converse is also true: countries that are in the process of reforming their education systems and are expanding their teacher education programmes have offered opportunities for the institutionalization of Comparative Education. Greece cited the promotion of the 'teacher-researcher' status and the expansion of the educational sciences in its Teacher Education Departments. In Russia, the status of Comparative Pedagogy was elevated to a lecture course consisting of 120 lessons by a ministerial decree in 2005, including it among 20 'professional training' disciplines. Similarly, in Kazakhstan, Comparative Education became a compulsory subject at teacher training universities in 2000 for the specializations of 'teacher-psychologist' and 'teacher of foreign languages'. However, Switzerland seems to be a counter-example in this respect since, despite the recent expansion in its teacher training universities, some scholars predict a quiet integration of the international dimension into the general educational sciences, thereby further eroding the (remaining) legitimacy of Comparative Education as an independent discipline (see Schüssler & Leutwyler chapter).

Moreover, not all changes have brought about (or are expected to bring about) a secured position for Comparative Education. After three decades of enjoying a core/compulsory status in Egypt and Tanzania, reforms in the early 2000s reversed the subject's status. Also, unlike the strengthening or revitalization of the field in Croatia, Hungary, Italy and Serbia brought about by the Bologna Process, both Spain and Germany are uncertain of the impact that these transformations will have on Comparative Education in their countries. As Naya, Ferrer and Martínez (Spain chapter) point out, the currently entrenched and privileged position of Comparative Education in educational curricula as a result of a ministerial imposition might be eroded by giving universities greater autonomy and leaving the field at the mercy of institutional politics.

Nine countries reported that 'Comparative Education' is not taught as a lecture course at the bachelor's level. In regional order, they are France and Switzerland; Chile and Uruguay; Hong Kong and Macao; Egypt, Lesotho, and Zimbabwe. At the Master's level, fifteen countries did not explicitly comment on the current situation, while eight acknowledged the absence of the subject in their universities. These eight include Brazil, Chile, Croatia, Ireland, Lesotho, Macao, Switzerland, and Uruguay. Yet, these countries report some activity under the umbrella of Comparative Education. In what other ways is Comparative Education present in these places? At least three other forms of existence can be identified: as related subjects taught at universities, as a research area (e.g. PhD, projects), and as an activity beyond the university sphere conducted by or in collaboration with international organizations.

As a Subject Related to Comparative Education

Most of the countries that exclude Comparative Education as a lecture course report the field as an academic activity under this grouping. Among the fifty-eight countries surveyed here, several provided titles of subjects related to Comparative Education in the university curricula. In addition to Comparative and International Education, other salient titles and the countries that reported them include those listed below in thematic order:

- Intercultural and Comparative Education (the Netherlands, Switzerland); Intercultural Pedagogy (Slovenia)
- International Understanding (Korea)
- Polycultural Education (Russia)
- Globalization and Education (Flanders), Global Education (Canada)
- Education Systems in the European Union (Hungary); Education Systems World Wide (Spain); Education Systems and Administration in Oman and the Gulf States (Oman); Education System in Egypt and International Approaches (Egypt);
- Cooperation for Development in Education (Spain)
- Education and National Development (Lesotho); Education and Development in the Context of Globalization (Hong Kong); Education Development Strategy Slovenia)
- Comparative, International and Development Education (Canada)
- Comparative Physical Education and Sports (Macao; also Cuba)
- Comparative Higher Education (Japan)
- Comparative Elementary Education (Korea, Thailand)

As Kubow and Fossum noted in the USA chapter, education systems continue to receive substantial attention in most countries, echoing the findings of CIECAP (2006a). However, the education systems of interest differ from country to country, demonstrating some regional patterns. As expected, most countries in Europe are interested in neighboring EU-member states; similar patterns are reflected in the regions of Latin America, Asia and Africa.

As a Research Area

Most countries in this survey reported work done under the label ‘Comparative Education’ as a research field parallel to and sometimes, far exceeding teaching activity (especially the Netherlands, Finland, Brazil). Except for Croatia, which explicitly denied the existence of Comparative Education at the postgraduate level, almost all countries offer possibilities of pursuing doctoral studies in this research area. Mexico, for example, offers a doctorate in International Education at the Universidad de Tamaulipas. Uruguay launched in 2005 an Advanced Program of Education at the doctorate level in its Universidad de la Empresa, which included 40 lecture hours on Comparative Education and preparation of a publishable article as a course completion requirement. Taiwan’s PhD programme commenced in 1998, and in 2006 there were 50 postgraduate students registered (possibly including master’s students). Egypt meanwhile reported a steady stream of masteral and doctoral awardees from its Comparative Education and Educational Administration Department at Ain Shams University over a 35-year period since 1971. However, several countries acknowledged

a negligible output in terms of PhD dissertations in Comparative Education (Denmark, Finland, Brazil, Japan).

Commonly cited research projects related to Comparative Education were the OECD’s PISA and IEA’s TIMSS. Finland is particularly strong in IEA studies and Germany, Hong Kong, Malaysia and Chile also reported salient activities in this area.

The previous sections described the current presence of Comparative Education as an area of teaching and research at universities. This ‘snapshot’ might mislead readers to conclude that the field has a widespread and even distribution in the academe worldwide. Despite the lack of uniformly reported data from all the countries in this survey, some numerical data might help relativize that impression (see Table 3).

Table 3: Number of Institutions teaching Comparative Education^a

| Less than 10 institutions | More than 20 institutions |
|--|--|
| 1 - 3 only: Botswana, Brazil, Croatia, Denmark, Hong Kong, Ireland, Malaysia, Namibia, Netherlands and Flanders, Norway, Oman, Serbia, Slovenia, Swaziland, Switzerland-Francophone, Tanzania, Uganda, Uruguay, Zimbabwe | Canada (25) Italy (25) Spain (39) Mexico (40) |
| 4 - 7 only: Bulgaria, Cuba, Greece, Lithuania, Thailand | Korea (42-61) ^b China (+/- 100) |

Notes:

^a This includes the teaching of related subjects denominated differently from Comparative Education.

^b 42 undergraduate institutions (34%), 61 postgraduate institutions (46%).

In the three Southern African countries (Namibia, Botswana and Swaziland) listed in Table 3, Comparative Education is taught in the one and only university in the country. The situation is different from the case of Brazil, where the subject is taught in only 3 universities out of a huge base of universities in the country, or from Malaysia where it is offered as a course in 3 out of 11 universities with education majors. Being small in number does not however diminish the significance of the field. As Sisson and Gomes (Brazil chapter) observed, the metaphor of ‘salt and yeast’ aptly describes the role of Comparative Education, which, while being a marginal field, enters the mainstream of knowledge in education in order to flavor it and stimulate its growth.

As for the high numbers of institutions in Canada and Italy, it is worth noting that in both country reports, Comparative Education is understood more broadly to include a wider range of topics and approaches. In this respect, China followed by Spain, Mexico and Korea should stand as towering figures in terms of course offerings in absolute numbers. It therefore comes as a surprise why Mexico’s professional society of Comparative Education was only recently established and why all four countries are not (yet) a major player in the world scenario of Comparative Education. The issue of language biases might be pertinent in this regard. As Manzon (China chapter) observed, “the incommunicability of some parts of the world due to language differences is a hindrance to having a comprehensive and globally-inclusive picture of the field of Comparative Education”. English has a dominant share as the lingua franca in international discourse (Altbach, 2007). The obscured visibility of the contributions of some non-English speaking countries is partly explained by the language factor.

Work of National and International Educational Organizations

A final arena where intense comparative education activity takes place is in large-scale studies promoted by international agencies. Among the countries that reported the notable activity of international organizations in comparative education research projects were (in regional order): France, Lithuania, the Netherlands and Flanders, Norway, Switzerland, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, Japan, and Oman. Of these, four were countries that reported the absence of a lecture course on 'Comparative Education' in their universities (France, Switzerland, Chile and Uruguay). The most commonly cited organizations were UNESCO, OECD, IEA, and the IBE (International Bureau of Education based in Geneva). In the case of Chile, the government's work in doing comparative research in education as a policy tool is salient, overshadowing the marginal presence of the field at Chilean universities.

Some regional patterns are also worth highlighting. Latin American countries represent one third of the countries listed, being 'recipients' of technical assistance and serving as regional offices for some international agencies. It is surprising, however, that Africa, which is a major recipient of development aid in education, did not highlight such presence of foreign organizations. This perhaps reflects a distinct and 'unequal' partnership between donor-recipient parties in Africa vis-à-vis in Latin America. But the opposite pattern is salient, with four European countries and Japan citing educational aid to the African continent as a salient activity in the field.

It would also be pertinent to mention the work of professional societies of Comparative Education, whether national, regional, language-based or global (such as the World Council of Comparative Education Societies–WCCES). Their activity in promoting the field through conferences and publications, as well as in organizing a visible community of scholars interested in Comparative Education, has had a symbiotic relationship with the development of the field at universities. The 'direction' of this mutual linkage varies from case to case. In Uruguay, for example, where academic Comparative Education is still incipient, substantial collaboration with scholars from the Argentinean Comparative Education society (Sociedad Argentina de Estudios Comparados en Educación–SAECE) was cited, particularly in serving as visiting lecturers and in providing course materials. The Cuban society (Asociación de Pedagogos de Cuba [Sección de Educación Comparada], APC-SEC) offers similar academic support to a Peruvian university. Universities in Francophone Central Africa likewise cite the role of international comparative education researchers from the WCCES and AFEC (Association francophone d'éducation comparée). The revitalization of the field of comparative education in Serbia was also owing to the stimulus received from the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies held in Sarajevo in 2007 and the annual conferences organized by the Bulgarian Comparative Education Society. Meanwhile in Thailand (and in most other cases), a professional society was formed by academics who had been teaching Comparative Education as a subject at their universities. Although the academic base is small, having a national society was helpful in galvanizing the scholarly community and hopefully in strengthening its position at universities. At the least, it keeps a visible group of comparativists in existence, which is particularly important given the marginal status of the field in their universities. This situation is somewhat echoed in the Czech Republic, the Netherlands and Flanders, France, the Nordic Region, Brazil, Hong Kong & Macao, among others. The revitalization of the field in some countries has sometimes

followed the revitalization of its professional society, this owing to the encouragement received by a few individuals after participating in a World Congress or a big international conference. Such is the picture presented in Malaysia where new impulse to the field was catalyzed by its hosting of a Comparative Education conference. Parallel effects were noted in Cuba and the Czech Republic, who have both hosted past World Congresses of Comparative Education Societies, as well as in Mexico through its frequent participation in the CIES (Comparative and International Education Society) conferences in North America. The role of Comparative Education societies in cultivating the field is amply discussed in Manzon & Bray (2007).

Main Trends of Development

This section delineates some trends in the place of Comparative Education at universities world wide. Of the 58 countries in this volume, the current position of the field could not be clearly discerned in 10 countries since they were either in a period of transition (Ireland, Mexico, Hong Kong, Macao) or information was insufficient (Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Reunion, Swaziland and Zimbabwe). Despite the limitations of categorization, three broad trends can be discerned: constant development, decreasing interest and revitalization. Patterns of specialization, integration and transformation in the modes of existence of teaching Comparative Education can also be observed within these three categories (Tikly & Crossley, 2001).

Constant Development

Eleven countries (19 percent of countries surveyed) demonstrated signs of steady growth. Within Europe, these were Bulgaria, Croatia, Greece, Norway, and Spain. A common push factor was the Bologna Process. In North and South America, the USA and Cuba exhibited stable growth, while in Asia and Africa, countries like Taiwan, Oman, Egypt and Burundi also showed positive developments. Oman for example cited the possibility of offering Comparative Education at the Master's level.

Decreasing Interest

Almost one third of the surveyed countries (16 in total) reported indications of regression in the status of Comparative Education at their universities. The various reasons for the neglect of the field (see section on Historical Background: 1970s – 1990s) differently account for this trend. Seven European countries (Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Flanders, and Switzerland) experienced a fragmentation of the field and the integration (or appropriation) of the international dimension in education into other disciplines. In Latin America, Brazil and Chile never recovered their (central) institutionalized position in education faculties after the discontinuance of comparative education courses in 1969 (Brazil) and in 1973 (Chile) due to political reasons. In the Asian region, China, Japan, Korea and Malaysia have noted signs of receding interest and marginalization of the field. In the case of Korea, a lack of specialists and language constraints add up to the lack of student interest in the subject. Malaysia also reported a shortage of trained personnel. As for the African countries, Rwanda, South Africa and Uganda seem to exhibit some decline in the teaching of Comparative Education. South African Comparative Education experienced a contraction since 1994 from its formerly prominent position at White Afrikaans and historically Black universities, while in Uganda, the only university offering a Master's

in Comparative Education witnessed a drop in applicants, with some years reporting nil applications.

Revitalization and New Entrants

The above scenario, notwithstanding, there are new signs of life in different parts of the world. Thirteen countries (22 percent) experienced a renaissance of academic Comparative Education. In Europe, they were eight: Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia, UK and possibly the Czech Republic. Italy, Hungary and Slovenia cited the role of the Bologna Treaty and Europeanization of member states as a catalyst, while Russian Comparative Education was privileged by a favorable government policy prescribing Comparative Education as one of the core professional disciplines. Likewise, newly independent countries from the former Eastern Bloc have rejected ethnocentric and ideological positions, thereby witnessing an increasing interest in comparative studies. Canada has also picked up since 1997 witnessing an increasing infusion of the international outlook in educational curricula especially in graduate programmes. However, the traditional specialist courses on Comparative Education became less salient. In Latin America, Uruguay (also Argentina, though not included in this survey) has gained momentum in the 2000s with course offerings at the doctoral level. In Asia, both Kazakhstan and Thailand are taking their first steps. In Kazakhstan, Comparative Education enjoys the status of a compulsory subject by government decree. Meanwhile Thailand is planning to establish a Department of Comparative Education at Chulalongkorn University and Thai comparativists have also recently formed a professional association. Finally, in the African region, Tanzania anticipates that a course on Comparative Education might also be offered at two new universities in the country. Overall, it can be said that countries in this category exhibit a push-pull pattern between specialization in Comparative Education teaching and the integration of the comparative approach into a wide array of educational disciplines.

Contents of Lecture Courses

Curricula presently employed in teaching Comparative Education as a subject at universities may be broadly classified into descriptive/analytical and systematic/thematic. With the term 'systematic', Popov refers to the treatment of historical, theoretical-methodological, and practical descriptive aspects of Comparative Education (see Bulgaria chapter). These categories are not mutually exclusive within and across each other. Thus, a course may be descriptive and analytical, as well as systematic and thematic. An analysis of the country reports, grouping curricula into either bachelor's or master's degree courses, reveals the following:

- Of the 49 courses taught at the bachelor's level, almost half adopt a descriptive approach and one-third an analytical approach. Moreover, one-third offer a systematic introduction to Comparative Education, and others also employ a thematic, problem-oriented approach. Similar patterns are reflected in the analysis of master's lecture courses.
- With respect to the systematic approach, Oman and Mexico explicitly acknowledged that sometimes this aspect is dropped from the course because of a lack of appeal to students. In this respect, those that tended to adopt solely a thematic, issue-oriented approach were Ireland, Thailand, Tanzania, and Flanders. By contrast, Greece, Germany, Italy, and Russia highlighted interest in

epistemological and methodological issues even at the undergraduate lecture courses.

- At the master's level, the USA and the UK emphasized more theoretical approaches, while Japan and Namibia also went into (geographic) area specializations.

As alluded to by Kubow and Fossum in their chapter, the themes emphasized in Comparative Education courses mirror the instructors' varied interests and expertise. Yet some common themes become salient when countries are grouped into world regions.

In the case of Europe, 'Euroharmonization' and trends in education systems in the European Union, for example, were repeatedly cited as topics of interest by EU-member states (Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Greece, Italy, Lithuania, Serbia, Spain) as well as non-member states like Switzerland. The rise of the regional (economic) blocks as prominent foci of comparative studies (Cowen, 2002, p.275; Crossley & Watson, 2003, pp.126-127) is a recurrent pattern in Asia, Latin America, and to some extent, Africa, as discussed below.

For North America, in the USA (and to some extent Canada), a prominent focus on theory and international development was reported in addition to gender and women's issues which were a thematic focus in over 50 percent of the introductory courses. Globalization and the organization of schools and national education systems also received sustained substantial coverage (CIECAP, 2006a).

In Latin America, as in the EU, an intra-regional focus is salient. The Mercosur (Common Market of the Southern Cone of South America), for example, which is the dominant South American regional economic organization comprised of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay, is an educational space that is commonly studied for comparative purposes (see Brazil and Uruguay chapters).

In Asia, different patterns emerged. Aside from the natural tendency to do intra-regional comparisons (e.g. Malaysia and Thailand on the ASEAN [Association of Southeast Asian Nations]), a key focus of the comparative discourse in China, Taiwan, Japan, Korea and also Kazakhstan, is on the so-called 'key countries' or the developed (Western) countries. Only Oman, which properly speaking pertains to the Middle East rather than to Asia, diverges from this mainstream tendency, having as a logical core focus the Gulf States.

As for the African region, country reports demonstrate a variegated pattern, with some sub-regional lines of interest. Tanzanian Comparative Education, for example, has a clear orientation towards East Africa and socialist states while South Africa exhibits a high level of interest on democracy in its lecture courses in addition to regional issues within the Southern African Development Community.

Finally, as mentioned in the conceptual section above, it is worth highlighting here that in some countries, the introductory course on Comparative Education encompasses not only the study of foreign education systems, but first and foremost, one's own education system. Such is the case in Cuba, Egypt, Oman, South Africa, Tanzania, and Uganda. This approach illustrates the value of comparison in education: in knowing 'the Other', one can know oneself better.

Textbooks and Other Publications for Teaching

Epstein, in his Introduction to this book, noted the role of textbooks in providing a common set of teaching materials. He also observed that most textbooks in the field are

written in the Western context and in the English language, though an increasing number are written for Asian and African readers. Kubow and Fossum (USA chapter), however, citing the findings of CIECAP (2006b) contend that “a textbook is rarely an anchoring feature of the curriculum, even in introductory classes...but articles from a vast array of authors tend to comprise course readings, sometimes complementing a selected textbook but more often than not substituting for a course textbook”. These observations of Epstein and Kubow and Fossum are substantiated rather unanimously by the chapters in this volume.

In the first place, later entrants to the field have logically made use of publications from pioneering countries in North America and Continental Europe. Foreign works, which were mostly but not exclusively in English but also in French, German, Italian, were used either in their original language or were translated to the vernacular of the ‘importing’ country. Some “spatial lines of attraction” (Cowen, 1990, p.335) determined by linguistic, political and cultural affinities of the country ‘importing’ the texts have become salient. In Latin America, for example, countries like Mexico and Uruguay benefit from textbooks originally written in Spanish by authors from Spain (where the field is more mature). Contemporary Spanish authors cited in the Mexico chapter were Francisco Pedró, José Luis García Garrido, Miguel Pereyra, Marcela Mollis, in addition to the Brazilian author Lourenço Filho whose work entitled *Educação Comparada* (1961) [see Appendix for List of Textbooks] was translated to Spanish in 1963. Translation of foreign works was more often unidirectional, from the developed West to the rest of the world. Such patterns were exhibited in the Asian countries where the medium of instruction is not English (e.g. China, Taiwan, Korea, Japan), as well as in the Spanish-speaking world.

A few countries explicitly cited the use of old foreign books and/or journal articles. For example, Malaysia employs the 1986 work of Altbach and Kelly; Thailand used Eckstein & Noah (1969), King (1958), Koehl (1977), and Nagel (1961); and Burundi, Tanzania and Uganda continue to use classics such as Kandel (1933), Bereday (1964), Hans (1974), Holmes (1963), among others. A common problem cited by these African countries is the limited endowment of university libraries, leaving scholars but little choice for research and teaching resources. As Anangisye (Tanzania chapter) notes, not only are materials outdated, but they are also written in Northern socio-economic contexts not applicable to local users. In these circumstances, instructors of Comparative Education increasingly employ Internet sources. Meanwhile, among the fairly recent foreign books often cited in several chapters were Arnove and Torres (1999), Alexander, Broadfoot and Phillips (1999), Kubow and Fossum (2003), Crossley and Watson (2003), and Schriewer (2000).

In addition to the use of foreign works, translated or otherwise, almost all the countries represented in this survey employed their own locally authored textbooks, usually published in the local language, and complemented by readings prepared by the lecturer. Early non-English works in Europe, Latin America, Asia and Africa date back to the 1960s. We only highlight a few important and whenever possible, fairly recent textbooks that take a systematic approach to the introduction of Comparative Education, since a complete list is provided in the Appendix. We have excluded the English textbooks published in the UK and the USA as they have already been cited above. The list below is organized by regional groupings, indicating the language of publication, author and year:

- *Europe*: Bulgarian (Bishkov & Popov, 1994, 1999); Croatian (Vrcelj, 2005); Czech (Váňová, 1998); Danish (Winther-Jensen, 2004); Finnish (Raivola, 1984); German (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004); Greek (Bouzakis, 2002, 2003, 2005); Hungarian (Kozma, 2006); Italian (Gallo, 2006); Dutch (Standaert, 2007); Lithuanian (Juceviciene, 1997); Norwegian (Brock-Utne & Bøyese, 2006); Russian (Vulfson, 2003); Spanish (Ferrer, 2002);
- *Latin America*: Portuguese [Brazil] (Bonitatibus, 1989); Spanish [Chile] (Fuentelba, 1985); [Cuba] (Massón, 2006); [Mexico] (Villalobos, 2002);
- *Asia*: Chinese [PRC] (Gu & Xue, 1996); [Taiwan] (R. Wang, 1999); English [Hong Kong] (Bray, Adamson & Mason, 2007; Manzon, 2011); Japanese (Okihara, 1981); Russian [Kazakhstan] (Belkanov, 1994); Korean (Chu, 2005); English [Malaysia] (Wong, 1973); English [Oman] (Issan, 2006);
- *Africa*: English [Burundi] (Rwantabagu, 1990); Arabic [Egypt] (Sobihe, et al., 1988); English [Uganda] (Odaet & Bbuye, 1997).

Contemporary Challenges

Perhaps the pioneering attempt to gather scholars from all over the world to present and reflect on the theme ‘The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers’ was no other than the 1st World Congress of Comparative Education Societies held in Ottawa, Canada in 1970 (WCCE, 1970). There, thirty-four scholars representing sixteen countries from Europe, North America and the Caribbean, Asia Pacific, the Middle East and Africa, mapped out their plans to establish or strengthen the incipient field in their institutions or to share ideas on teaching materials and aids. Much has been achieved since then. This section has offered in broad brush strokes a picture of the contemporary state of Comparative Education at universities in the globe. The field continues to grow institutionally with a few new specialist programmes being established and some others revitalized in different parts of the world. Yet the legitimacy of Comparative Education as an independent academic field at universities remains uncertain and the integration of the comparative perspective seems to overtake achievements in the area of subject specialization. This is especially the case in some ‘pioneer’ countries where the field took root in the early years of its history and had enjoyed a strong foothold for some decades. The privileged position of Comparative Education in mandatory national curricula is the exception rather than the rule; much work in the field is rather owed to individuals’ efforts and enthusiasm. The rather opportunistic positioning of the field in years past thus needs to be re-examined in this era of global integration, increased institutional accountability, and easy access to educational information. Will Comparative Education go down the road of decreasing specialization and increasing integration into mainstream educational sciences? Has all the effort expended by our predecessors in the field come to naught? Or, are we in fact in a privileged position to construct a new future? These are some of the questions addressed in the concluding section below.

Some Critical Reflections

The forty-two chapters in this book encompassing 58 countries in six world regions have provided rich insights into the academic locus of Comparative Education in different parts of the world. They compose a rather comprehensive and checkered mosaic of Comparative Education teaching at universities throughout the world. This

concluding section recapitulates some of the lessons learnt from the conceptual, historical and current state analyses of university-based Comparative Education.

Conceptual Ambiguities

The conceptual clarifications made above have identified global trends that point to a vague disciplinary identity of Comparative Education. They show that there is no shared understanding of what Comparative Education is. In some countries, even an identity crisis can not be overlooked (e.g. Switzerland, France, Canada, USA). In this respect, contributions to this volume give skeptical answers to Wilson's question about "when comparative and international education will achieve recognition as something more than an 'amorphous' field" (1994, p.485) – at least for the part of Comparative Education.

These skeptical responses are not at all surprising when considering the interesting findings of Cook, Hite, and Epstein (2004), evincing that about 70% of the Comparative and International Education Society members received their academic degree in a field other than Comparative Education, and more than one third has never taken an introductory course in the field. As Epstein elucidated in the introductory chapter to this book, "these results show the field's large eclecticism and the difficulty of arriving at a common understanding of the field's history, purposes, and boundaries". It seems therefore quite evident that lamenting about the lack of a clear, distinct identity with sharply demarcated borders is, indeed, still a widespread issue in the academic discourse on Comparative Education in many regions all over the world.

However, naming the uncertainties and dealing with the identity crisis is undoubtedly an expression of intense and vigorous self-introspection which could be seen as a healthy sign of the vitality of the field. Dealing with changing frameworks and with their methodological, theoretical and philosophical implications is in fact an expression of accommodating and customizing Comparative Education to the contemporary situation. It is a fact that the relevant units of analysis for Comparative Education have changed and are still changing (Schriewer, 2006), that they move from "entities clearly delimited from one another as nations, cultures or societies [to] trans-societal structures" (ibid., p.323). It is a fact that Comparative Education, at the same time, "is asked to turn its greater attention to 'small-scale' rather than to 'large-scale' innovations", as Wolfgang Mitter already predicted fifteen years ago (Mitter, 1997, p.409). And it is a fact that with changing units of analysis, methodological questions have to be re-assessed. On the one hand, with changing epistemological foci an updated "legitimacy to qualitative modes of research that emphasize grassroots fieldwork, ethnography and the interpretive/hermeneutic paradigms" has to be disputed and "new forms of international relationships in terms of comparative and international research" (Crossley, 2002, p.82) have to be aspired. On the other hand, influential national and international league tables insinuate an impartial definition of educational success and give rise therefore to important questions of power, of "whose knowledge counts?" (ibid., p.83) with their methodological implications.

Against this background, including conceptual, methodological and theoretical dimensions as crucial parts in Comparative Education courses at universities (as e.g. Oman, Greece, Brazil, Egypt, and Southern African countries do), may not only be due to an elusive identity, but may also be taken as a well-developed self-awareness of what Comparative Education is and as a strong expression of accommodation of Comparative Education to the contemporary situation.

Multiple Histories

The historical analyses discussed above have shown the more than 110-year university history of Comparative Education and the wide developments regarding theoretical, conceptual and methodological aspects within this time. On the one hand, the periodization into five phases identifies global patterns that may be explained by mutual influences and interactions between scholars and institutions in the field as well as by trans-national and trans-regional developments that impact on societies, politics and education. On the other hand, however, the analyses have highlighted in some cases differential developments within the same period. For instance, some countries (such as Brazil, the Soviet Union, and Uruguay) did not participate in the general process of Comparative Education expansion in the third quarter of the 20th century. Other countries (such as Egypt, Greece, Spain, Cuba, Mexico, Thailand, Japan, and China) did not face the major trend of negligence or fragmentation during the mid-1970s and early 1980s experienced by ‘pioneer’ countries in the field.

These differentiated trajectories clearly show that the academic place of Comparative Education and its relevance are deeply embedded in local structures, contexts and cultures, and this social contextualization “leads to different comparative educations in different parts of the world” (Cowen, 1990, p.333). In this sense, the forty-two national and regional chapters of this volume provide strong evidence of the differential, multifaceted effects of major global trends such as globalization and internationalization in dialectic interaction with local forces (Arnone, 2003, p.1). Parallel patterns are reflected in the variegated histories of the scholarly societies of comparative education, which serve as windows to the field that they serve (see Manzon and Bray, 2007). It is the challenge for Comparative Education itself to trace, to identify and to understand the complex interrelations and interdependences between historically and socio-culturally contextualized local situations and global developments. In approaching this challenge, Comparative Education is at the same time the subject *and* its own object of analysis.

Contested or Continued Relevance?

The overall analyses of the preceding chapters have discerned three broad trends: a trend towards constant development in some countries, a trend towards decreasing interest in other countries and a trend towards a revitalization of Comparative Education in some further countries. The identification of these varied developmental patterns is another evidence for the pluralistic effects of major worldwide patterns such as globalization and internationalization. Geomorphic transformations differentially impact on the local characteristics, specifications and developments of Comparative Education, according to each specific context with its tradition.

While development patterns differ across regions and countries, it can modestly be affirmed that the legitimacy of Comparative Education as an independent academic field at universities continues to be challenged. The investigation of national education systems as it was traditionally ascribed to be the core business of Comparative Education “has passed its ‘great period’ and is unlikely to come back” (Mitter, 1997, p.409). Even if in some countries a revitalization of Comparative Education is manifested, Mitter’s prognosis from 1997 is still valid. The relevant units of analyses have changed and it may be asked to what extent the revitalized position of

Comparative Education owe its renaissance to a particularly successful re-definition of their identities.

By contrast, some chapters revealing a decreasing interest and a regression in the status of Comparative Education point to a considerable incorporation of genuinely comparative concerns in the general educational sciences (such as Switzerland, France, the Netherlands, Flanders, Denmark). In these cases, Comparative Education is certainly less visible, but perhaps not less present. Maybe, even an increasing importance of comparative concerns may be claimed when international dimensions have captured a more or less self-evident position in education. However, such a transition from specialization to integration (Tikly & Crossley, 2001) is a great challenge for protecting the methodological and theoretical specificities of Comparative Education – specificities that concern primarily and explicitly the role of culture and context. And today, furthermore, “context matters” (Crossley & Jarvis, 2001).

Against this background, an ample discourse on methodological and theoretical specificities of Comparative Education is an essential exigency for cultivating and highlighting the relevance of culture and context. However, if dealing with methodological and theoretical specificities shall be taken as an effort to emphasize context-sensitivity, then its reflection has to refer to real outputs of comparative studies and cannot be limited to a mere meta-reflection (Waterkamp, 2006, p.197). In this sense, Comparative Education should prove its relevance by providing enrichment to the educational discourse, not by simply claiming its relevance. Yes, it is important to clarify the role of quantitative and qualitative approaches in Comparative Education and to ask for its methodological peculiarities. It is part of the academic field of Comparative Education to ask how to make systematic comparisons (see Epstein chapter). It is also important to shed light on the role of Comparative Education when the role of national educational systems changes, when educational matters move increasingly either to international or to local and private spheres. But, these clarifications have their value only when aiming at an impact on comparative studies and when comparative studies are carried out by researchers who are sensitive to the peculiarities of comparative approaches. The best qualified researchers to carry out this task, indeed, are the comparativists themselves.

If we, the comparativists, carry out comparative studies that create real benefits for educational sciences, for educational practice, and for educational policy, if we illuminate *how* culture and context matter, then we will construct our future building on the infrastructures established, the knowledge created, and the enthusiasm of new scholars, capitalizing on the treasures inherited from elders in the field. If we, the comparativists, illuminate *better* than others how culture and context matter, then we will exceed the goals of those who had gone before us in order to leave a fertile terrain for those who will come after.

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Prof. Dr. Charl Wolhuter
North-West University
Potchefstroom Campus
South Africa
e-mail: Charl.Wolhuter@nwu.ac.za

Prof. Dr. Dr.habil. Nikolay Popov
Sofia University
Bulgaria
e-mail: npopov.bces@mail.bg

Doc. Dr. Klara Skubic Ermenc
Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy
Faculty of Arts, University of Ljubljana
Slovenia
e-mail: klara.skubic-ermenc@ff.uni-lj.si

Dr. Maria Manzon
Comparative Education Research Centre
The University of Hong Kong
e-mail: manzon@hku.hk

Prof. Dr. Bruno Leutwyler
Institute for International Cooperation in Education, PHZ Zug
Switzerland
e-mail: bruno.leutwyler@phz.ch

APPENDIX

List of Comparative Education University Textbooks

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