A FRAMEWORK FOR THE EXPANSION OF THE FIRST LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN

BRAZIL, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE MUNICIPALITY OF

ITAPIPOCA, CEARÁ

by

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Dedicated to:

     My Compatriots

     My Parents

     The Reader

ABSTRACT

In a century in which changes have happened so rapidly, Brazil has had nine major education reforms, each with an average duration of a decade.

With the 1964 change of political leadership, new trends emerged and finally took shape through the Education Act of 1971. The adoption of this new Act required a considerable effort in the re-shaping of educational institutions and from each level of governmental administration.

The organisation and administration set up to bridge these changing circumstances, with particular reference to the First Level of Education in less progressive areas of the country, and how this organisation and administration might be developed according to certain specified criteria, is the main theme of this thesis.

Section I details the origins, limits and the purpose of the study as one of identifying those educational administrative functions which have been delegated to Municipal local groups, and to assess their effectiveness in the Municipality of Itapipoca in the State of Ceará in Northeast region of Brazil. Questions such as:- What constraints have prevented Brazil from putting into practice some principles of devolution recommended by its constitutions ? How far can equality of opportunity in education between urban and rural areas be improved, taking into account that 44 percent of the population in Brazil lives in rural areas ? Would the transfer of administrative and supervisory responsibilities to the Municipalities contribute towards effectiveness in the public education system at the First Level ? - These questions amongst others are posed to indicate the direction this research will take.

Section II provides an account of the National political organisation, the pace of development and of Itapipoca's lands, people and economy.

In Section III, the educational system is interpreted in the light of the statutory provisions both past and present. Itapipoca's educational scene is also portrayed and evidence is offered to show that its educational interests may have been neglected by political leaders.

Section IV examines three national oriented projects taking place in the Northeast region in which their development aims, implicitly or explicitly, include the educational sector as part of their task. A follow-up questionnaire is interpreted in order to assess the results of a particular innovation in education.

The subject of this thesis does not lend itself to an initial review of the literature. Nevertheless the relevant literature is referred to at appropriate places in the text.

In Section V, selected aspects of the literature are reviewed in order to develop an organisational outline of educational provision for Itapipoca so that educational interests can be more effectively taken care of. Examples from other countries are introduced to clarify aspects of organisational applications. The professional and administrative aspects are dealt with in the analysis of the organisation of the educational system. The influence of an <u>Advisory Council for Education</u> is examined within the policy formulation, policy adoption and policy implementation, taking Itapipoca as the point of reference.

Section VI gives conclusions and a summary of the discussions.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

ANCAR	Northeast Association for Credit and Rural Assistance
CANES	Centre for Analysis and Engineering of Systems
CAPES	National Co-ordination for Postgraduate Studies
CBED	Brazilian Co-ordination for Home Surveys
CE	Ceará
CENEDI	Educational Centre for Integrated Development
CINCRUTAC	Incentivating Committee of CRUTACs
CNEC	National Campaign for the Education of the Community
CRPE	Regional Centre for Educational Research
CRUTAC	University Centre for Rural Training and Community Development
DES	Department of Education and Science
FIBGE	Brazilian Institute Foundation of Geography and Statistics
FSESP	Foundation for Special Service of Public Health
FUNRONDON	Rondon Fund
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
INEP	National Institute for Pedagogic Studies
LEA	Local Education Authority
MEB	Movement for Basic Education
MEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MR	Microregion
MOBRAL	Brazilian Movement against Illiteracy
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PE	Pernambuco
PEP	Political and Economic Planning
PIPMO	Intensive Programme for Manpower Training
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
SEC	Secretariat of Education of Ceará
SEEC	Statistics Service for Education and Culture
SENAC	National Service for Commercial Apprenticeship
SENAI	National Service for Industrial Apprenticeship
SG	General Secretariat
SPAE	Sector for School Building and Equipment
SUDENE	Superintendency for the Development in the Northeast
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: SAMPAIO, DORIAN and COSTA, LUSTOSA, Anuário do Estado do Ceará
FORTALEZA:1972.

SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM AND PROCEDURE

Genesis of the Study

It was in 1962 that I first became interested in the municipal

administrative system of education, after having been in California

on a short visit.

I had then four years of teaching experience mostly with girls

between the ages of 11 and 15, in a state secondary school to which I

had just been appointed as deputy head. Because of my personal

acquaintance with him, a headmaster of an elementary school in the

District of Merlo Park, Los Angeles, made arrangements for me to visit

some schools and to interview a few officers. I repeated this experience

later on in Michigan, in a very informal way, visiting a friend who

happened to be the superintendent of a small district - Battle Creek.

I was most impressed by the decentralization of the American

educational system. That country was as young as Brazil and yet its

educational service was so much more efficient. Of course our historical

background was very different but our administrative and political

organization have been very much alike since 1889 when we became a

federal republic.

Returning from that short trip I resumed my post but not for long

because I was appointed to another, higher position in the state

secretariat of education in charge of primary schools and later of

teachers' in-service training. My new educational outlook, and my

enthusiasm, interested my colleagues. I spent a year in each of these

posts, during and just after our very critical political period - 1963,

1964 and 1965 - and so it was impossible to put into practice some of

the ideas I had in mind. I also realised that any new procedure in education would require a long time to implement. Besides it would need some stability of the personnel involved in the programme.

The opportunity to discuss the issues of centralization versus decentralization of the educational system arose when I started lecturing in the Faculty of Philosophy (teachers' training college) in 1969. There, I could not act directly, but I was able to undertake debates about the main issues with my students who already were or who would become headmasters and headmistresses in the state schools.

In the state of Ceará the principle of devolution should be applied in both the urban and rural areas. There is a great imbalance in the distribution of educational resources in the state. Usually, the main headquarters are located in urban areas. Hence, the towns have been more privileged, because they influence the headquarters' decisions and absorb available resources for their own needs. Rural areas, besides their geographical isolation, lack leadership and a strong voice to influence the decision-makers.

The main thrust had centred on the modernization of urban areas, particularly on industrialization, and while notable progress had been made in many countries, the great majority of the people - those living in rural areas - had benefited relatively little. In consequence, the social and economic gap between the modernizing urban sectors and the poverty-ridden rural ones was widening ominously. Imbalances in the pattern of national development threatened further progress, even in the cities.

Education was part of this imbalance. For many years the dominant strategy everywhere had been to achieve the rapid quantitative expansion of the existing educational system substantially in its old image, in the belief that this would equalize opportunity and generate the human

skills and leadership needed for general development. Measured by statistics of enrolments, this expansionist strategy had made spectacular gains. Yet as the developing nations entered the 1970s they found themselves without exception, in the throes of a deepening educational crisis. It was not only a financial crisis; it was a crisis of serious maladjustment, taking many forms, between inherited educational systems and the realities of their rapidly changing societies.[1]

Between 1963 and 1968 the State of Ceará joined the other states of Northeast Brazil in an investment programme of education, particularly in the building of schools and in-service training for primary school teachers. The funds came from three different sources: the State, SUDENE (Superintendency for the Development in the Northeast) and from U.S.A.I.D. (United States Agency for International Development). This programme was a result of the movement in aid of the fast expansion of the contemporary primary school network system. The programme was aimed mainly at the investment in rural areas of the States where the needs were more acute.

Each State administered the operation in its territory, under inspection of the other two partners in the agreement SUDENE and USAID. Although a new body had been created to co-ordinate the programme, the results were not in Ceará as expected. The school buildings, built on contract with private firms, did not follow the required specifications, and the programme as completed was not accorded USAID approval, thus leaving the State to pay for all the costs alone.

An evaluation was made of the adopted in-service training to upgrade unqualified teachers, and any effective results were presented.

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[1] P.H. Coombs and Manzor Ahmed, Attacking Rural Poverty. A World Bank Publication 1974, p.3.

Although a large amount of money was invested in education by the State most of the time this money was not spent adequately and wisely, and thus failed to present the expected and relevant numerical outcome in the short run.

I believe that this programme was not completely in vain and that some results which cannot however be quantitatively evaluated have occurred in the long run. This is due to some changes of attitude of the education administrators. However, I have also realised that other factors should be considered when a government wants to adopt the policy of giving priority to the educational sector of its public service.

My next stage was to become interested in development projects where the educational system was taken into consideration. Educational change cannot go alone, it must be part of an existing movement in order to be successful. I undertook two visits, one to the Piaui Project, in our neighbouring State, and to the Morada Nova Project, in a rural area of the State of Ceará. Education in both projects has occupied an important and essential role.

Finally I became involved in a third project: CRUTAC-CE - Centro Rural Universitário de Treinamento e Açao Comunitária - Ceará (University Centre for Rural Training and Community Action from Ceará). Federal university students in the last year before graduation are encouraged to work for a certain period of time in a rural community, helping it on manpower needs and reinforcing its own institutions. During my last six months in Ceará, I worked as co-ordinator of the educational sector of this programme.

As one of CRUTAC's co-ordinators I started the job trying to discover the local needs through contact with the local people involved in education. I had several meetings with headmistresses and headmasters from private and public schools in the District of Itapipoca. The

objectives of CRUTAC were explained to them and how we would expect to operate together in the community. (Later in this report I will describe this operation in detail).

Some issues received more support from the teachers than others, although they also agreed as to the relative importance of the others. I soon realized that my priorities were not necessarily theirs and to keep morale high, we had to give preference to the issues they ranked first. A certain acuteness to perceive this subtlety was required. Hence this study has been made aiming at arriving at some useful conclusions and recommendations from the attempt towards the understanding of the existing factors involved in the process of change, taking place at different levels of the educational administration. Also it has taken into consideration three projects of development in the northeast of Brazil, in which the educational sector has occupied some relevant role.

Statement of the Problem

The Brazilian rapid development expansion which is taking place now, the large rate of population growth and the national goal for universal education for the population between seven and fourteen years of age, has created the need to expand also the educational system all over the country.

In Brazil, education is a shared responsibility by the Municipality, State and Federal Government (the Union).

The problem which this study will focus on is the Municipal system of education - with special reference to the Municipality of Itapipoca - examining whether its effectiveness might be so changed as to make a significant amelioration of national policies in education.

Limits of the Study

A permanent problem for developing countries, whose economies are mainly based on agriculture, is the lack of technology and of an effective infrastructure in the rural areas. The use of old-fashioned methods of cultivating the land and of feeding animals is a further drawback. Generally most of these rural areas are poorly run. The Government has been sensitive to this problem and several attempts have been made to solve them.

Perhaps it is right to endorse the opinion of many educationists that the problems of agricultural education are not primarily educational. Problems such as systems of land tenure, improved land use, finance and marketing, research and development, traditions and customs, to mention only a few, are out of the control of the Ministry of Education. However, given solutions to the non educational problems in what particular directions could the schools best help a developing rural area ?

"The value of education is shown and demonstrated by the way the individual can transfer cognitive and incognitive skills from one area to another", according to Bloom quoted by Dr. Blaug during one of his lectures.[1]

V.L. Griffiths, analysing the educational needs for the rural population, enumerates the objectives for general education in order to improve the quality of rural population. Apart from learning some elementary skills, the stress is on acquiring certain attitudes of mind and on bases for understanding and co-operating in change. He goes on to say that attitudes and understanding are not taught through adding to the curriculum isolated subjects such as elementary science or agriculture, but through permeating all the teaching with these ideas so that they become

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[1] Dr. M. Blaug, lecture on Economic Aspects of Education held in the Institute of Education, University of London, Nov. 28, 1973.

part of the pupil's thinking and make up applicable to all relevant situations.[1]

French education follows the above principle. There, rural and urban schools at the primary and low secondary levels have the same kind of curriculum. Students at these ages should be exposed to the same experiences in similar degree of competence for mastering and appreciating arts, sciences and humanities. Environmental studies will, it is hoped, give the necessary knowledge and elementary skills for the students to adjust themselves to their own geographical and social environment. Therefore this study limits itself to the provision of this type, described as general education, the basic and compulsory one: the first eight years of formal education, for pupils aged 7 to 14 years. It has been also limited to the finding of a set of administrative principles and procedures in the educational system in order to facilitate social and economic development in Itapipoca, a Municipality of the State of Ceará.

Key Questions involved in the Study

The following questions were posed to indicate the directions this research should take:

1. What weight should we give to the principle of devolution in the educational system as a contributing factor for the whole development ?

2. What patterns have other developed countries followed in order to cope with their educational responsibilities ?

3. What constraints have prevented Brazil from putting into practice some principles of devolution recommended by its constitutions ?

4. How can the degree of equality of opportunity in education between urban and rural areas be improved, taking into account that 44 percent of the population of Brazil lives in rural areas ?[2]

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[1] V.L. Griffiths, The Problem of Rural Education, UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, 1968.

[2] MEC-FIBGE, Anuario Estatistico do Brasil, 1973.

5. Would the alteration of the public educational machinery necessarily ameliorate education qualitatively and quantitatively in Brazil ?

6. Which procedures should be adopted by the government in order that the voices of the people be equally heard from the different areas, including the most remote ones ?

7. How can their priority needs be met in the most objective and balanced way ?

8. Is there any existing fixed strategy to follow, any fixed steps to take ?

9. Which kind of approach should be adopted, the directive or non-directive one for community development ?

10. Would the transfer of planning controlling and supervisory responsibilities to the Municipalities, contribute towards effectiveness in the education public system at the first level ?

11. Is there any optimum size of a geographical and populational area, economically and socially recommended as an administrative unit ?

12. What should the State delegate to the Municipalities ?

13. How autonomous are the Brazilian Municipalities in reality ?

14. Is the increased participation of local community members in the administration of education for first grade schools in Brazil the only and best way to obtain for the population more satisfaction, prosperity, initiative, awareness, effectiveness, development of leadership among its members, money for education, productivity, employment opportunities, external help ?

15. If so, how should these members be selected and of whom exactly would they be representative ?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are made to guide this study:

If local groups had some functions or direct administrative
responsibilities on the whole of the school system at the municipal
level then:

1. educational planning would be more in accordance with their needs,
and there would be less wastage in the system and for the students;

2. local government would have greater participation and help to
control the education provided at its own level;

3. duplication of educational measures in a Municipality would
disappear because of co-ordinated sound educational planning;

4. a fundamental local infrastructure would be created in order to
support a better qualified educational system to fulfil its main
purpose;

5. eradication of illiteracy would be accelerated together with other
types of nonformal education as a result of a sound education planning
at local level.

The Procedure

Several lines of research have been followed. First, a preliminary
overall review to gather information and obtain suggestions on possible
material to be examined. Second, a wide variety of documents was
assembled and analysed. Third, a diversified sample of ongoing
development and education projects and programmes was selected "in loco"
and examined in close collaboration with local personnel. The results
of the analysis and also of questionnaires applied have also helped
on the evidence and ideas collected in the previous steps in the
preparation of the recommendations and conclusions of this study.

SECTION II

THE GENERAL AND THE PARTICULAR CONTEXT

CHAPTER 2

BRAZIL

The Government

Under the present Constitution the United States of Brazil constitutes a Federal Republic. The Union, as it is described in the Constitution, is divided into 21 States, one Federal District and four Territories indissolubly united under a representative form of government.

The authority of the Union derives from the people and is exercised in their name and on their behalf by the legislature, executive and judicial branches acting in co-operation but working as autonomous bodies.

The States of the Federation have their own governments with powers in all matters not specifically reserved for the Union or assigned to the Municipalities under the Federal Constitution. The executive authority in each State is exercised by an elected governor with the legislative powers lodged in the State Assembly.

State governments draw up their own budgets, select and control their own civil service and are responsible, under the general supervision of the Federal Ministry of Education, for designated functions in the field of education. Apart from directing most of the primary and secondary schools, a number of the leading States have their own regional universities.

Municipalities, of which there are nearly 4,000 in Brazil, are autonomous in strictly local affairs under the provisions of the Basic Law of the Municipalities, enacted by the Federal Government.

The National Congress is composed of two houses, the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The Deputies are elected every four years by direct

secret ballot under the system of universal franchise for all men and women over 18 years of age and able to read and write. The Federal Senate is composed of three senators from each State elected for terms of eight years by straight majority by secret ballot.

Among its other responsibilities, the Senate exercises the right to give assent to the nomination of Chief Justices, the Attorney General, the Minister Controller of Accounts, the Prefect of the Federal District, the Governors of the four territories, the heads of Brazilian diplomatic missions and certain other senior posts in Government, Administration and the Judiciary.

The Executive Power is exercised by the President of the Republic with the advice and assistance of his Ministers. Candidates for the Presidency, who must be Brazilian-born citizens in full enjoyment of all their civil rights and over thirty-five years of age, are elected by simple majority in open session by an electoral college, composed of all members of the National Congress, and Delegates appointed by the State Legislatures on the basis of three for each State and one more for each five hundred thousand voters registered in the State. The President holds his office for four years and is not eligible for re-election.

Ministers of State are appointed by the President and are responsible to him.

The National Security Council is an advisory body composed of the President, Vice President, all the Ministers of State and the Chiefs of Staff of the Armed Services.

The Judicial Power of the Union is vested in the Supreme Federal Court; the Federal Court of Appeals; and in the Military, Electoral, Labour and other special Tribunals. Judges of the High Courts and Tribunals are appointed for life. Autonomous in their own affairs, they elect their own presidents and manage their own internal organisations.

The Supreme Federal court, with its seat in the national capital
in Brasilia, exercises jurisdiction throughout the whole country. It
is composed of eleven Judges selected by the President of the Republic
who take office only after the nominations have been approved by the
Federal Senate.[1]

Each State has a constitution which provides for executive,
legislative and judicial branches of government. The executive branch
is headed by a governor, who is elected for a 4-year term.

A Municipality is organised according to laws of the State of which
it is a part. An elected prefect (mayor) is the administrative head
of the unit, and an elected chamber (camera de vereadores) has
legislative, and at times, some administrative functions. The prefect
is assisted by department heads who administer the various divisions
of the Municipal Government.

The franchise is open to all literate citizens who can communicate
in the national language (Portuguese) and are 18 years of age.

Persons who have permanently or temporarily lost their political
rights and enlisted members of the armed forces do not vote.

The Economy

The country is the fifth largest in the world, occupying an area of
more than 8,511,000 square kilometers, and the eighth in terms of
population - nearly 100 million in 1970. There is great natural wealth,
both agricultural and mineral, much of it still to be exploited, and
in recent years, remarkable industrial growth.

Brazil has made impressive progress since 1964. In the early 1960s,
the Brazilian economy went through a period of ups and downs accompanied
by inflation which reached its peak in 1963 and 1964. But since then

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[1]Flávio Cavalcante, "Brasil em Dados", Indice, Rio, 1971, no. 2, p.14.

there has been a dramatic change in the economic scene. The government has had great success in its efforts to achieve stability, remove structural distortions in the economy and to consolidate growth. There has been a sustained rise in industrial production since 1967; overall output rose by 14 per cent in 1972, compared with 11 per cent in 1971.

The rate of inflation has been radically reduced and the rise in the cost of living has been brought down from 86.6 percent in 1964 to 15.3 percent in 1972.[1] Although it may seem high by European standards, it represents a major improvement for Brazil.

In this successful political and economic climate, a continuing high rate of growth can be confidently expected. The National Development Plan, announced in November 1971, concentrated on accelerating development, restraining inflation and increasing foreign trade; it aimed at a minimum annual growth rate, in real terms, of about 10 per cent in 1973 and in 1974. In fact, Brazil had an average annual growth rate in Gross National Product of 5.8 per cent from 1947 to 1961 - one of the highest sustained rates of growth in the world.[2] From 1962 to 1964 the expansion of the economy paused but since then, growth has been resumed. In 1972 the increase in the Gross National Product was 10.4 percent, against 11.3 percent in 1971 and 8.4 percent in 1968. The significant increase in investment by its foreign competitors in the past five years is a reflection of the growing international confidence in the economy. Brazil's balance-of-payments position has improved tremendously in the past five years. In 1972, there was a record surplus of some US$2,400 million, compared with one of US$555 million in 1971, thanks to huge capital inflows from abroad. As a result in the external position the Government has allowed imports to rise rapidly; they have increased from

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[1]The Brazilian Gazette, Special Supplement, London, March 1974.

[2]Secretary of State for Trade and Industry: pamphlet, London 1973.

US$1,667 million in 1967 to US$3,250 million in 1971 and to an estimated

US$4,200 million in 1972. The proportion represented by Machinery and

Vehicles (ships, aircraft and road vehicles excluding passenger cars)

has been growing steadily - from 29 percent in 1967 to about 38 percent

in 1971.[1]

When examining the development of Brazil's Gross Domestic Product per

capita, one observes the different growth rates registered in the urban

and rural sectors of the economy, as well as in the different geographical

regions of the country. Figures published in 1973 by the Finance Ministry[2]

demonstrate that while urban income in 1972 ran at an estimated US$760 p.a.,

income in the rural sector was only 260 dollars, producing an average

GDP per capita for the country in 1972 of US$520. These figures also

show that whereas total income (both urban and rural averaged) in the

Northeast region of the country was 260 dollars in 1972, in the South this

income per capita was 730 dollars, almost three times greater.

The accelerated economic growth registered by the Brazilian economy

during the last years has led to a certain scarcity of labour, not

only skilled but also unskilled.[3]

It has created also a shortage of certain basic raw materials and

agricultural products.

Investment in Brazil has been running at a very high rate, only

Japan is significantly above it in this matter. Government has invested

heavily in infrastructure programmes and has created the mechanism

whereby an increasing quantity of funds will be available to the

private sector for private investment purposes. To make sure about the

importance of the investments, one must observe the public investment

in highways, bridges, electric energy generation capacity, in tele-

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[1] Ibid.   [2] See Table (2:1).
[3] See Table (2:2).

communications, sanitation facilities and in housing. The transamazonic

highway, the continued work on the subway systems of Rio de Janeiro

and Sao Paulo, the Rio-Niteroi bridge, the expansion of almost all

major seaports, and the continued development of the National Housing

Plan are all examples of the important rapid economic development

taking place in Brazil.

Brazil has been intensifying cultivation of other agricultural

products besides coffee, such as soya beans, wheat, sugar cane, cotton.[1]

The rapid growth of these new crops benefited above all the small and

medium-size farmers, whose incomes have returned rapidly to the cities

in the form of purchases of consumer goods, multiplying the demand for

manufactured products.

Brazil has problems related to the distribution of wealth. 10 per-

cent of the population receive 46.47 percent of the total Brazilian

income whereas the poorest 10 percent receive only 1.16 percent between

them.[2] The developed areas are very close to British standards like Sao

Paulo and Rio de Janeiro and the underdeveloped areas are certainly too

far below any standard.[3] Social pressures reduce options, and force the

country to embark on the attempt to create a better distribution of

wealth through the development of a solid and a geographically wider

basis for its economy. By keeping the economy at full speed many problems

will disappear. For a country whose population is over 50 percent below

21 years of age,[4] where continental distances are the rule rather than the

exception, in a country with tremendous communication problems, the new

investments in transport and communications are going to expand

development. Concentrated efforts will be needed also in the educational

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[1] See Table (2:3).   [2] Brazilian Demographic Census of 1970.

[3] Jacques Lambert, Os Dois Brasis. Rio de Janeiro: Ministério de Educação, 1961, pp.105-110.

[4] See Table (2:4).

system where 25 million students of all ages started their courses in March, 1974.

This present chapter was about the government organisation in Brazil and also commented on its rapid growing economic development with implications on its population and the distribution of wealth among individuals and regions. The part which follows, attempts to analyse the general conditions where the people of the Municipality of Itapipoca live, being the area chosen as the special reference for this thesis.

TABLE (2:1)

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT "PER CAPITA" IN 1972 (in U.S. dollars)

Source: Finance Ministry

TABLE (2:2)

EMPLOYMENT (1972)

Source: F.I.B.G.E.
       Fundação Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística

TABLE (2:3)

BRAZILIAN EXPORTS (in million U.S. dollars)

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: International Advertising Association - Brazil

TABLE (2:4)

BRAZILIAN POPULATION - 1970

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: F.I.B.G.E.

MAP(3:1)

MUNICIPALITY OF ITAPIPOCA

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

MA

RS

Source:PLANO MUNICIPAL DE EDUCAÇÃO 1970/1972. MUNICIPIO DE ITAPIPOCA
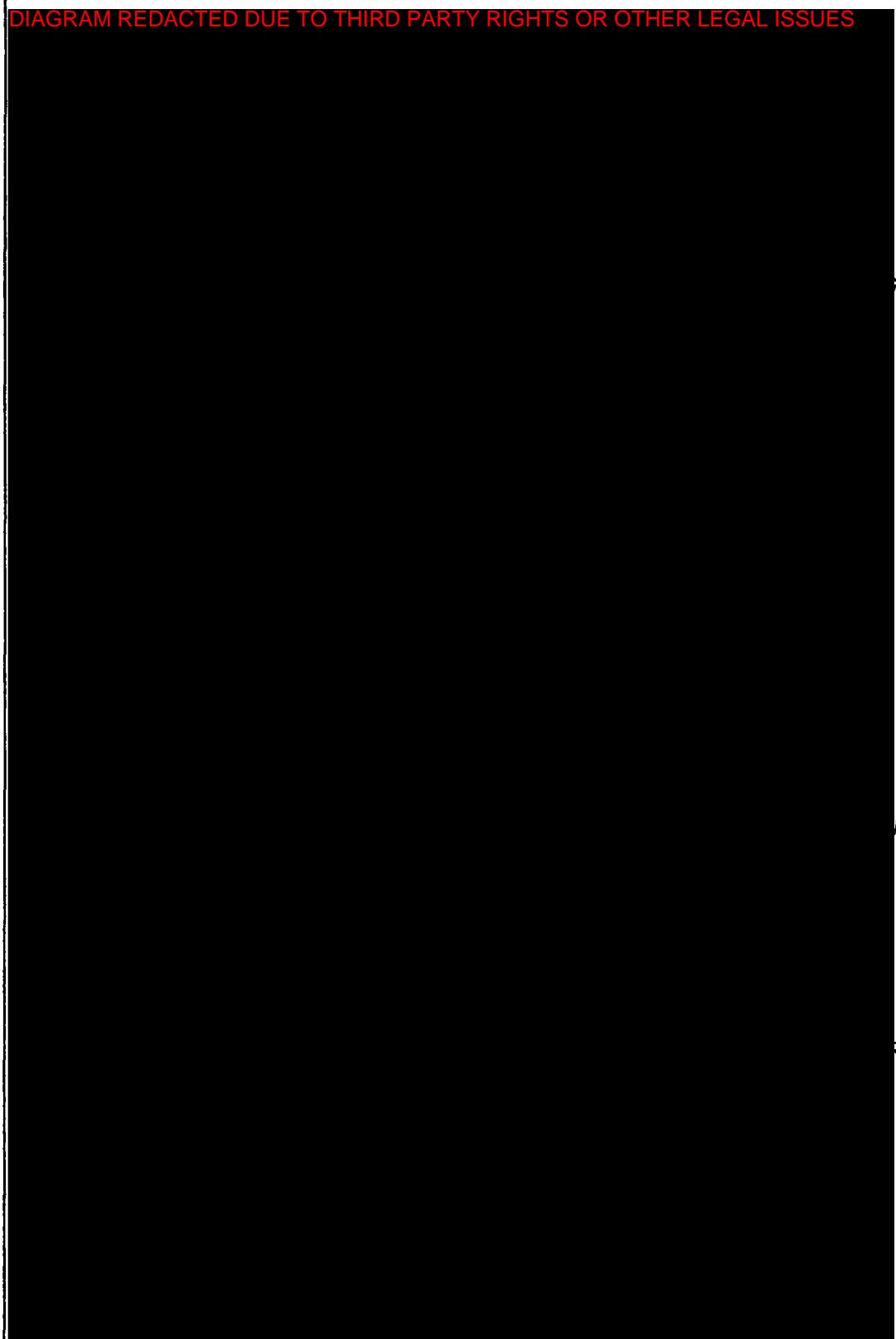
CHAPTER 3

ITAPIPOCA

The Geography

Itapipoca is one of 141 municipalities into which the State of Ceará is divided. An Indian name, it comes from "ita", stone, and "pipoca", to break, "broken stone". Its territory was, originally, part of the municipalities of Fortaleza and Sobral. It became "vila"[1] on 3rd February 1823, after an Imperial Resolution. Through a State Enactment no. 1,288, on 31st August 1915 this "vila" was promoted to a Municipality. This area is located in the heart of an equatorial zone, at approximately 3°31'02" Southern Latitude and 39°33'26" West Longitude. In the equatorial region, the northeast part of Brazil[2] is considered an exception because of its irregular climate which is affected by the cyclic droughts, though it has a coast extending to the north and east. In the north the shores of Itapipoca are washed by the Atlantic Ocean; the Eastern boundaries meet with Trairi and Uruburetama; the southern border touches Itapagé and Irauçuba. In the Western borders with Santana do Acaraú, Acaraú, Sobral and Morrinhos.[3] It encompasses 3,124 square kilometres of land, with an average altitude of 98 metres above the sea level.

The climate is traditionally classified as hot and dry during the summer and temperate during the winter, with the most frequent temperature of 30°C and presenting areas of land affected by severe droughts. These

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[1] "Vila" or District is a community without administrative autonomy, it is subordinated to a municipality which forms the smallest political unit. "Vila" or village may suggest a degree of centralisation of buildings and social life and, in importance, is superior to the "aldeia" or "povoado".

[2] The State of Ceará is located in the northeast part of Brazil.

[3] Each of these names correspond to a municipality.

noticeable variations are due to the influence of the winds and the ocean. Although the temperature remains generally constant, there occurs a slight drop in temperature near the ocean. In the coastal zones, with the sea breezes the temperature varies from 25.5°C to 27.5°C. Another zone, further inland, registers temperatures between 27.5°C and 29.5°C. The third zone is a fairly windless area, and consequently registers the highest temperatures around 34°C.[1]

Rainfall has shown appreciable variations, having a very irregular distribution. While on the coast and in the mountains, during normal years, one can observe high rates of rainfall, 1700 - 2000 mm., in other areas, in the backlands, the rate falls to only 500 mm per year,[2] mainly during the months of March and April.

The studies carried out until recently indicate that droughts occur in cycles of 10 to 11 years, with a great reduction in rainfall in the areas which normally most benefit from the rain, and no rain in regions of normally little rainfall.

There are several rivers such as the Aracataçu, Aracati-Mirim, Mandau and a number of streams which water Itapipoca's land.

Rivers in Itapipoca as well as in other municipalities of Ceará are characterized by the fact that they all have a large volume of water during the rainy season, and dry up completely during the dry season. Since rainfall is their only available source and because rain only falls abundantly during part of the year, all rivers dry up for a period of not less than eight months. For this reason, during the dry season particularly, the natural lagoons and the artificial reservoirs in which there are fish of many kinds, are very important for agriculture, animal raising and domestic purposes. Quite a large number of them can

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[1] Prefeitura de Itapipoca, Metas Administrativas 1973.

[2] These figures represent: 67 - 79 and 20 inches respectively.

be of considerable size and others are smaller, usually taking the name

of their villages or farms.[1]

A low relief topography is predominant, indicating an ancient land

formation. Uruburatama mountains constitute a continuous range of small

hills which serve as the watershed for the rivers. These slopes are

made up of plains spotted with small cliffs and are known by the name of

"sertao" (backlands). The plains in the backlands have semi-arid

characteristics, with a predominance of desert-type vegetation -

caatinga. The largest area of this territory is covered by caatinga.

This word means "white forest" and gives a graphic idea of the native

vision of the sparse and transparent vegetation that covers this immense

region during the long dry season. This kind of scrub bush area in which

small trees and bushes grow, looks dead during the summer and turns green

again during the rainy season. During this season the pastures are

covered with grass and small weeds, intermixed with thorny cacti, such as

mandacaru, xique-xique, cardeiro and macambira. In this backland

landscape one can also observe other types of vegetation which men have

been trying to utilize as a source of wealth, such as the carnauba tree,

the oiticica tree and the manicobal tree.

Within the extensive castinga zone, there are certain regions where

the special characteristics of the soil, and the elevation, by permitting

greater precipitation and retention of moisture, create marked climatic

differences, where the population tends to concentrate.[2]

Along the rivers light vegetations are sometimes observed together

with several types of vegetation, among them the well known juazeiro

tree, the only one which maintains its greenish colour during the dry

season. In the mountains the climate is agreeable, and the different

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[1]CRUTAC mimeographed Report, Fortaleza, 1972.

[2]C. Furtado, Diagnosis of the Brazilian Crisis, Berkeley and Los
Angeles, 1965, p.144.

landscape allows for the growth of other types of vegetation, taller

types of lush green. While agriculture in the backlands is based on

canauba, oiticica, cashew nuts, and cotton, in the mountains sugar

canes, bananas and citrus fruits grow. On the coast, besides a

subsistence agriculture the cultivation of cashew and coconut is

evident.

In the early days of its colonization, settlers hoped to find

silver and gold but exploration has disproved such hopes. However, other

minerals have been found which are only now starting to be researched

and exploited.

As to its geological make-up, Itapipoca is formed by pre-Cambrian

rocks as is the rest of the State. In spite of billions of years of

intensive erosion resulting in a loss of mineral resources, two mineral

deposits of diatomito remain.[1]

The Population

With a population estimated at 95,590 the demographic density is 30

inhabitants per square kilometre.[2] One observes when looking at the

distribution of the population in the ten districts into which the

municipality is divided[3] that 84 percent of the people live in the rural

areas. Hence, most of Itapipoca's population work on the land and in

the majority of cases, they live without almost any form of political

organization. That is to say they live not in communities made up of

citizens, but as individuals of a family or neighbour unit, without any

political expression. In effect, the man who does not directly participate

in a politically organised society does not become aware that the world

in which he lives can be changed by his own personal actions.[4] In 1970

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[1] Anuário de Educação do Ceará, 1970.

[2] Forecasts estimated by the "Fundação Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística - FIBGE of 1970.

[3] See Table (3:1).

[4] Everett Rogers, Modernization among Peasants, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969, pp.32 and 148.

less than 25 percent of the population was able to vote, and 17 percent

of the total did vote.[1]

The attitude of the people is passive or totally submissive to

those in power, who they regard as the arbiters of good and evil.

This pre-political situation in which the majority of the people live

has to be taken into account so as to understand both the importance

of local authorities, and the role played by personal ties in the

exercise of political power as C. Furtado pointed out.[2]

> The urban worker. . . is aware that the norms that
> regulate a citizen's life are different from those
> that regulate his work, and this enables him to observe
> labour relations with a critical eye. On the big farm,
> the man who leaves his house for work is simply moving
> from one part of the farm to another. Thus, there is no
> aspect of his life that falls outside the system of norms
> that governs his working life. In this way, his experience
> of practical life does not allow him to develop as a citizen,
> or to become conscious of a responsibility for his own
> destiny. Every act of his life is the act of a client,
> the actions of an element whose existence is in every
> respect integrated into a single socio-economic unit.
> These men are hardly aware of belonging to a municipality
> or a district, the most rudimentary form of political
> organization. Even when their dwellings are grouped
> together as a village, the village is attached to an
> "estate", and for this reason the impersonal link with a
> public authority lacks clarity in comparison to the all-
> embracing presence of this private authority.[3]

The horizons of such a man living in a remote area are extremely limited

since the probability of his remaining in the same condition into which

he was born is extremely high. He does not understand the link between

his political behaviour in voting during elections, and his living

conditions.

> Whatever the results of the elections, the local authorities
> are the only ones whose acts have an effect on his life, and
> must of necessity be approved of by the groups who have
> something to defend, as the owners of the land, the machinery,
> the houses, the roads - in fact, everything within the estate
> where the voter lives.[4]

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[1] Anuário de Educação do Ceará 1970, op.cit.

[2] Celso Furtado, Diagnosis of the Brazilian Crisis. Berkeley and Los Angeles 1965, p.128.

[3] Ibid., pp.129 and 130.   [4] Ibid., p.130.

For some authorities in the subject,[1] this strong vertical relation of dependency (between people and those in power) referred above, is a relic of the feudal system inherited from Brazilian colonisers. Dr. Frank[2] holding a marxist point of view, disagrees with this thesis and makes attempts to prove in his work that underdevelopment of the rural areas in Brazil and Latin America is a consequence of the capitalist mercantilist system dominating since the beginning of the colonisation. His contention is that mercantilism was the motive which brought the colonisers interest into Latin America. However, Ernesto Laclau[3] argues that, admitting this was the real motive, the internal vertical relation (serf and feudal noble) was maintained within the "estate" unit, and the existing feudal system, already in its decadence in Europe, was indeed transplanted to the New World.

Whatever dual system one accepts:- underdeveloped/developed, feudal/ capitalist or traditional/modernised set up, the isolation of a man living in a remote area has contributed to the survival of the subsistence type of economy.

Industrialisation, initiated from the urban centres towards the rural areas, has brought changes into the modes of production. Changes in agricultural production have also precipitated modification of peasant society. These changes, however, have been slow and, consequently, traditional and modernised modes of production and types of society have been co-existing side by side not only in Brazil but throughout Latin America, as in Peru for example.[4]

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[1] Jacques Lambert: Os Dois Brasis. Rio de Janeiro, Ministerio de Educacao e Cultura, 1961, pp.105-110; and Carlos Fuentes "The Argument of Latin America", in Whither Latin America, New York, Monthly Review Press 1963, pp.10-14.

[2] Andre Gunder Frank: Capitalism and Underdevelopment in Latin America. New York. Monthly Review Press, 1967, pp.221-227.

[3] Ernesto Laclau: "Feudalismo Y Capitalismo en America Latina". New Left Review, vol.67, 1971, pp.19-39.

[4] Solomon Miller: "Hacienda to Plantation in Northern Peru: The Process of

For the most part, the people are of the _caboclo_ racial type,
that is a blend of Indian and white, while a small percentage are either
negro or _mulato_, an intermediate variety of the three distinct races
together.

Despite the important bonds which unite the urban and rural
populations of Itapipoca, there are equally strong elements which divide
them.

The rural-urban dichotomy is indeed, in many ways, a more important
criterion than race as Ben Zimmerman aptly described referring to people
from a similar culture within the same region, in determining the class
position of an individual:

> A light person who is a grazier would be considered lower-
> class almost to the same degree as a dark person engaged
> in a similar occupation. At the same time, not all people
> who live in the rural areas can be considered equal in
> status. Relatives of important families in the city often
> work in the caatingas - generally as overseers of the family
> property - and they, like their kin in the city, would be
> accepted as upper-class. The great majority of upper-class
> people however, live in the city and, if they have rural
> properties, they hold them as absentee landlords. As with
> so many other aspects of this society, the criteria for class
> membership are changing. It is still true however, that the
> most important attribute for upper-class membership is family
> background. . . Within the community, however, the families
> are carefully rated and to identify oneself with one of them
> is a way of gaining prestige. . . One of the reasons, in fact,
> that a negro can never truly be upper-class in the community
> is because he does not have a 'family'. . .[1]

Negroes are descendants of slaves, bearing the physical marks of their
ancestry and are consequently lacking one of the most important attributes
of social status in the community: good family. Occasionally they become
important and accepted by society. In such a case they would be outsiders
who have become educated and occupy important positions in the public

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4 [contd.]
Proletarianization of a Tenant Farmer Society", in Julian H. Steward
(ed.): _Contemporary Change and Peruvian Communities_. Illinois,
University of Illinois Press, 1967, pp.140-142.

[1] Ben Zimmerman, "Race Relations in the Arid Sertao", in Wagley, Charles
(ed.) _Race and Class in Rural Brazil_, Paris, Unesco, 1951, p.86.

administration or have become wealthy. Within recent years another

criterion of status has become as important as family: money. The

determination of a person's class position is, broadly speaking, the

result of a combination of these two factors. The people themselves

normally recognize two classes: the "bigwig" and the poor people. The

bigwig include the farmer of "good family", the more important government

officials, such as the judge, the district attorney, the doctor and those

businessmen who have managed to attain influential positions in the

community. The poor include everyone else, the graziers, artisans, the

menials and the less affluent commercial people.[1] Playing an equally

important part to that of the family is the concept of "amizade"

which can be defined as friendship, although it is more than that. "It

includes the concepts of responsibility and obligation, so that every favour

received must be returned."[2] On other occasions, it may include an

exchange of favour: a grazier may assist a friend during his harvest

expecting that when he is ready to collect his crops the service will

be returned. A person who finds himself in difficulty may rely upon his

friends, and the people's loyalty is partly due to the principle of

friendship.

This same phenomenon is found in other parts of the world such

as South Africa, Papua New Guinea and Peru.[3] It seems that the feeling

of responsibility and obligation through friendship ties (expressed by the

exchange of favours through means of services and gift givings) is a

universal phenomenon more stressed, however, in simpler societies as a

means of survival. There, where an adequate local infrastructure does not

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[1] Ibid., p.87.   [2] Ibid., p.90.

[3] Lorna Marshall, "Sharing, Talking, and Giving: Relief of Social Tensions
Among !Kung Bushmen" in Understanding Society: London, The Open University
Press, 1970, p.103; A. Aarons: Planning the Curriculum for the First
Level Community Education in Papua New Guinea: unpublished M.A. thesis;
London, Institute of Education, 1975, p.6; Solomon Miller, op.cit., p.140.

exist, money is not the main means of exchange and its circulation is always scarce. Therefore, the created relation of dependency becomes an important factor, which unites people for two purposes: to help each other in working activities and in order to protect themselves against the enemy.

The culture of the people of Itapipoca, and of the people of all the northeastern region, is the result of the interaction of three relatively distinct historical traditions - the native or Indian, the African and the European. Vestiges of these traditions are apparent in almost every aspect of the culture; at the same time, the influences of each of the three traditions is stronger in some directions than in others.

Except in physical type, Indian influence appears to be rather slight. A few traits associated with the economic life are derived from the aboriginal people.

There are, likewise, a few traits in the culture which are truly African. It is possible that folklore elements, riddles for example, with which the people entertain themselves are African. It is in practices associated with religion that African influence is most marked.

European tradition is the most marked and easy to identify. The fashions in clothes follow European style. In folklore, food habits, city planning, attitudes, family organisation and official religion the orientation is towards European thinking rather than towards either the African or Indian cultures. For the most part, people are unaware of the amalgamation which has taken place, and an individual, as such, is not identified with the degree of his participation in one or another of these cultural forms. A person is not an Indian because he works in agriculture or a negro because he participates in a fetish cult. To the people of the community nothing is particularly aboriginal, African or

European. It is Brazilian.

Vegetation, animals and people from Itapipoca have been able through generations to adapt themselves to their hard environment. The xerophytic trees, with their capacity to retain enough water in their roots, can survive during the dry season. These adverse conditions called for a painful adaptation by the animal species introduced into the region, so that the predominant strain has a stronger bone structure, longer legs for roaming through the thorny scrub, and is extremely lean-fleshed. People have adapted the style of their houses: they usually have a light colour of white or cream, large verandahs surround the houses where the residents prolong their evenings in relaxing conversation with their family and friends. It is a custom for people to have a "siesta" after lunch, lying in hammocks hanging on the verandahs. Rooms do not have ceilings and under the roof larger houses very frequently have an open space for air circulation. The floor is covered with tiles. However, most of the people are very poor and have small houses made with crossed stakes filled with clay and the roofs are covered by tiles or with dry leaves of carnauba trees. These houses are resistant to the weather and can last for a long time. Each house has an average of three or four rooms and in general they do not have toilet or bathroom facilities.

The need for clothing is not crucial. In fact, people use very light and cheap clothing made of cotton and wear on their feet sandals made of leather, very cheap in the region. In a way, with only a few belongings and not many calories, it is possible to survive in this region.

The Economy

Itapipoca's economy is based on agriculture and animal husbandry. However the supply of water is insufficient as are the production and supplies of cattle feed causing the cattle to lose weight during the dry season. The government has a programme to improve pastures and produce

cattle-feeds and store them in underground silos. Cattle raising is undoubtedly the most important activity followed by the raising of hogs, goats and sheep.

Of agricultural products, cotton "moco" is the most adaptable one. This cotton tree, cultivated in the backlands, is from a special type which is able to survive during the dry season. Its quality is very high but its quantity is always dependent on good or bad winters. It represents 58.5 percent of agricultural income, followed by banana with 11.5 percent, beans 10.0 percent, corn 3.8 percent, the rest 16.2 percent of agricultural income comes from the production of sugar-cane, orange, mangoes, tobacco and coconuts.[1]

In this region the use of the land is more extensive than intensive in order to attain an economical result. For this reason large areas of land belonging to a few owners are to be observed. According to the classification of the farms registered by the "Instituto Brasileiro de Reforme Agraria - IBRA" in 1967, there were 1,649 small properties, 55 rural enterprises (size between 10 and 50 ha.) and 917 large properties. The areas of small property (2 to 10 ha.) represented 14.2 percent, the rural enterprises 2.7 percent and the large property (bigger than 50 ha.) 83.1 percent of the land available.

In 1971 there were four professional agricultural advisers dwelling in the Municipality and employed by the government to guide the farmers and assist them in the projects financed by the national bank and a local co-operative.

The peasants work on the land under a system of partnership[2] with the land owner, when they do not have their own land. In this case, the product of the sale of cotton and manioca is divided into halves, adding

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[1] Anuário de Educação do Ceará, 1970.

[2] Equivalent to the métayage in France.

to the peasant's lot everything else he planted: beans, corn etc. The

system of partnership is also adopted with animal husbandry. If they are

fishermen, they divide the profit with the owner of the boat. The

system of wages is also common among peasants but the minimum wage is much

lower than the workers in factories earn.

The Infrastructure

Thanks to a miracle of technology, most of the State of Ceará

receives electricity from a hydro-electric source. The districts of

Itapipoca, Amontada, Miraima and the village of Deserto also benefit

by it. This energy is generated by the Paulo Afonso Falls on the Sao

Francisco River and by means of transformers, it is distributed to an

enormous distance, reaching all northeast region of Brazil. A continuous

effort is made by local and regional politicians representing the area,

to spread the electrical network all over the area by using their

political pressures. It is foreseen that upon completion of this network

the area will soon improve its economic growth.

Roads are another crucial factor necessary to accelerate socio-

economic development. The district of Itapipoca is linked with the other

districts through dirt roads, except Amontada which is asphalted.

Fortaleza, the capital city of the State, and Uruburetama are the main

centres to which Itapipoca exports its products. Itapipoca is linked

with the capital city through a railway and an asphalt motorway. The

use of roads is becoming more and more frequent and most of the

transportation of goods is made by road transport. The distance from

Fortaleza is only 112 km.

The Post Office service facilitates communication between Itapipoca

and the rest of the world. There is only one office in the district

headquarters. To serve Itapipoca district there is a small telephone

system with 100 telephones. It seems that more use is made of it by

private residents. Not all public institutions have the telephone.
Even the schools do not have such a facility or the resources necessary
to acquire one. Communication with other municipalities is made through
a radio system.

The district of Itapipoca is the largest in the municipality and the
trend is towards growth and expansion, because of its facilities. The
town follows an urbanization plan. Of its 40 streets, one is asphalted
and nine others are paved. At strategic points there are squares with
gardens and trees. The town is divided into several zones; in one of them
the prostitutes live. Although prostitution is against the law, the
police know of its existence and unofficially they give prostitutes
instructions to avoid contact in the town with "good families".

It is the responsibility of the local administration to maintain
the facilities of collection and disposal of refuse in good order. There
are a number of animal-drawn vehicles designed for this purpose.

Malnutrition is an important factor in the high number of diseases
which attack the population. Poverty is one of the causes but the
other one is ignorance. The basic foods are beans and flour made of
native roots. Lack of hygiene is another reason for disease.

The medical service for the whole municipality is only operated by
three doctors, two dentists and a pharmacist. With three hospitals and
a paediatric department, the government is trying to improve the standard
of health of the population. However, much more has to be done in order
to eliminate the large number of diseases which are mainly caused by
lack of basic education. There are a few private associations which aim
to assist the health service. However, the results are not significant
and the authorities should provide more encouragement for this type of
initiative.

Itapipoca in 1973 was the fifth most populated area of the state; for

its geo-socio-economic and cultural importance, it was chosen as the seat

of a micro-region into which Ceará is now divided for development

projects, and economic purposes. This microregion encompasses a

population of 302,506 inhabitants. CRUTAC,[1] choosing Itapipoca's

territory to initiate its development project, had in mind the

hypothesis that if an experiment was successful there, having in its

territory a considerable representation of the state in coastal,

mountainous and backland areas, it would be easier to apply equivalent

methodology in the other parts of the state afterwards.

A gap exists between rural and urban areas of Itapipoca

municipality, in almost all aspects of life   This difference persists

if one compares the Itapipoca district headquarters with the other nine   .

districts. One will find differences in stages of development between

the district headquarters and the capital city with its sophisticated

machinery to assist the needs of its one million people, in a progressive

plan of growth. The differences continue to increase when one realizes

that Ceará, with 4.5 million population constitutes only the third

largest in terms of population and economic power among the nine states

which make up the northeast region. Finally comes the last difference

between the northeast and the southern region.[2]

Returning to Itapipoca municipality and considering it in relation to

the country as a whole, one realizes what a titanic effort must be made in

order to maintain the attempt to keep up with the accelerating pace of

national development.

To fulfil the healthy ambition of Brazilians, each of its citizens

must make efforts to facilitate the unity of their country not only in

language, race and religion but also in social and economic development.

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[1]This programme is explained in detail in Chapter 8.

[2]See Table (2:1), op.cit.

It is expected that the educational system in Itapipoca will be a great contribution to this development. Conditions of schools in Itapipoca will be studied here after a survey of the educational system of the whole country, the present state of affairs and possible trends for the future.

TABLE (3:1)

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION OF ITAPIPOCA MUNICIPALITY BY DISTRICTS

(in 1970)

Districts	Total	Urban No.	Rural No.	Rural % of total

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
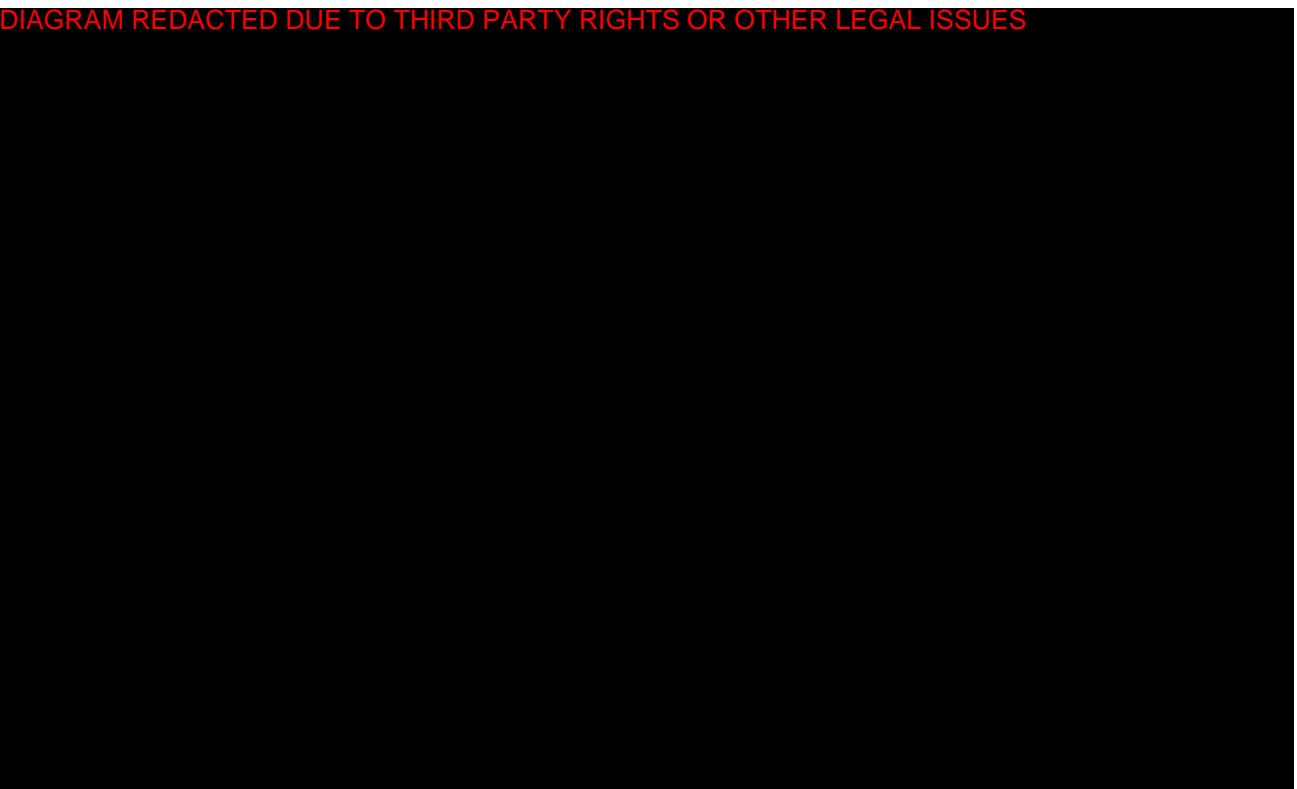
Source: Statistics Office

MAP(4:1)

MAP OF BRAZIL INDICATING REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION AND LAND AREAS (1970)

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
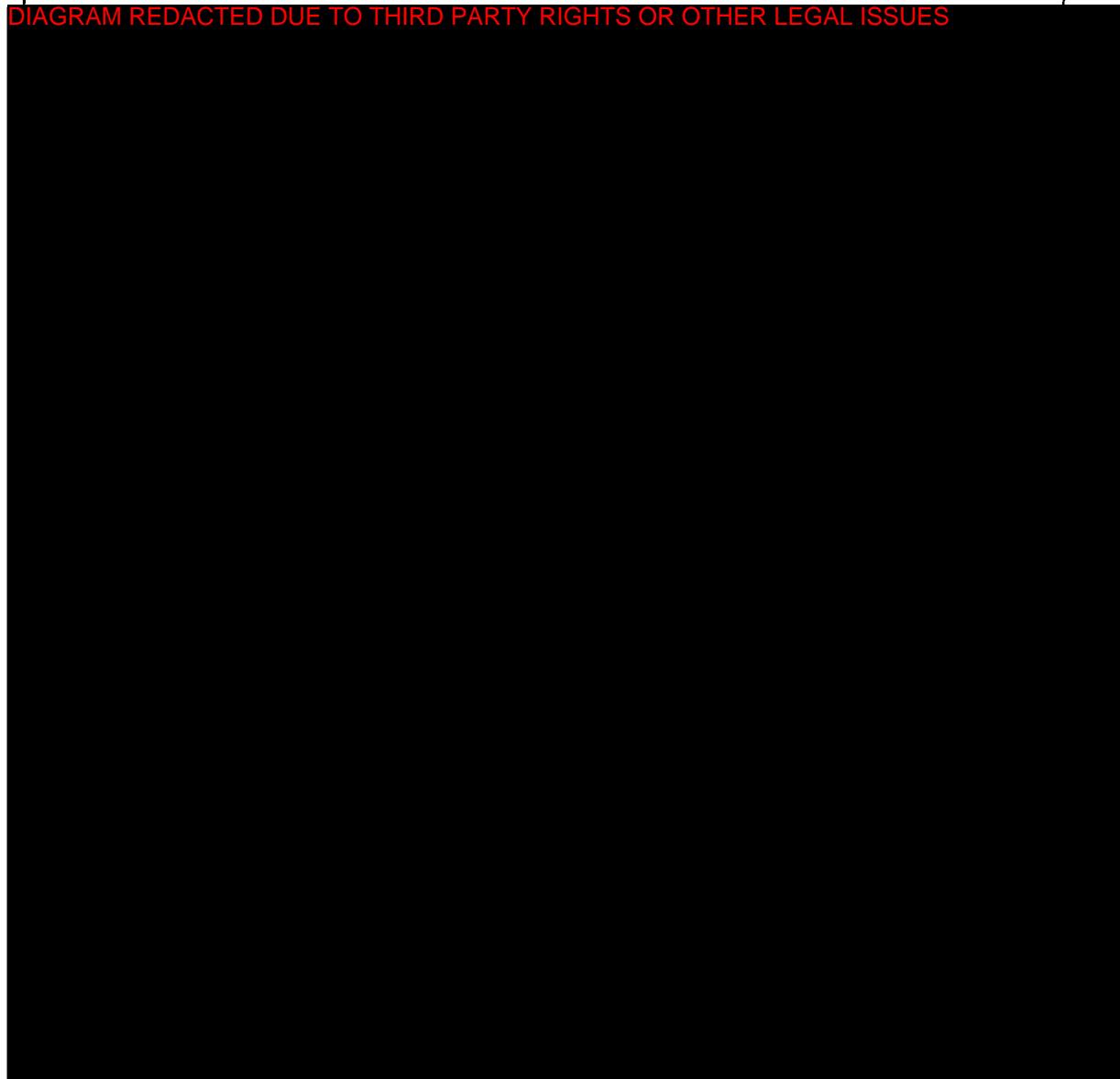
Total population : 93,139,037 inhabitants

Total area : 8,511,965km²

P/A : 11 inhabitants per km²

Source:Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística

DIAGRAM(4:3)

STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM UP TO 1971-BRAZIL
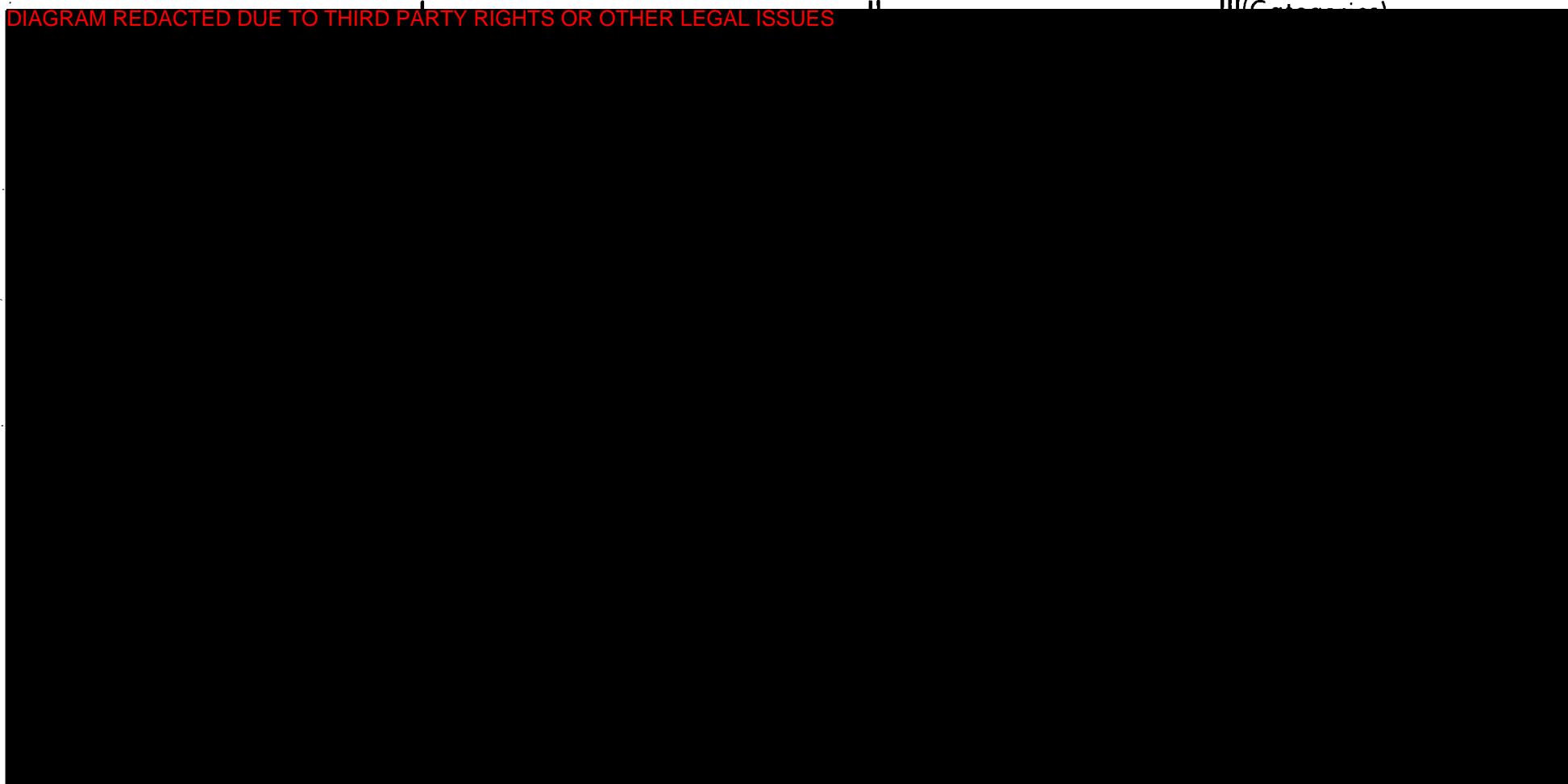
Source: M.E.C. Comission for International Affairs. Education in Brazil, Brasilia.1971 p.50.

DIAGRAM(4:6)

THE NEW STRUCTURE FOR THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

(post -1971)

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source:BOYNARD, ALUIZID PEIXOTO, op.cit. p. 195.
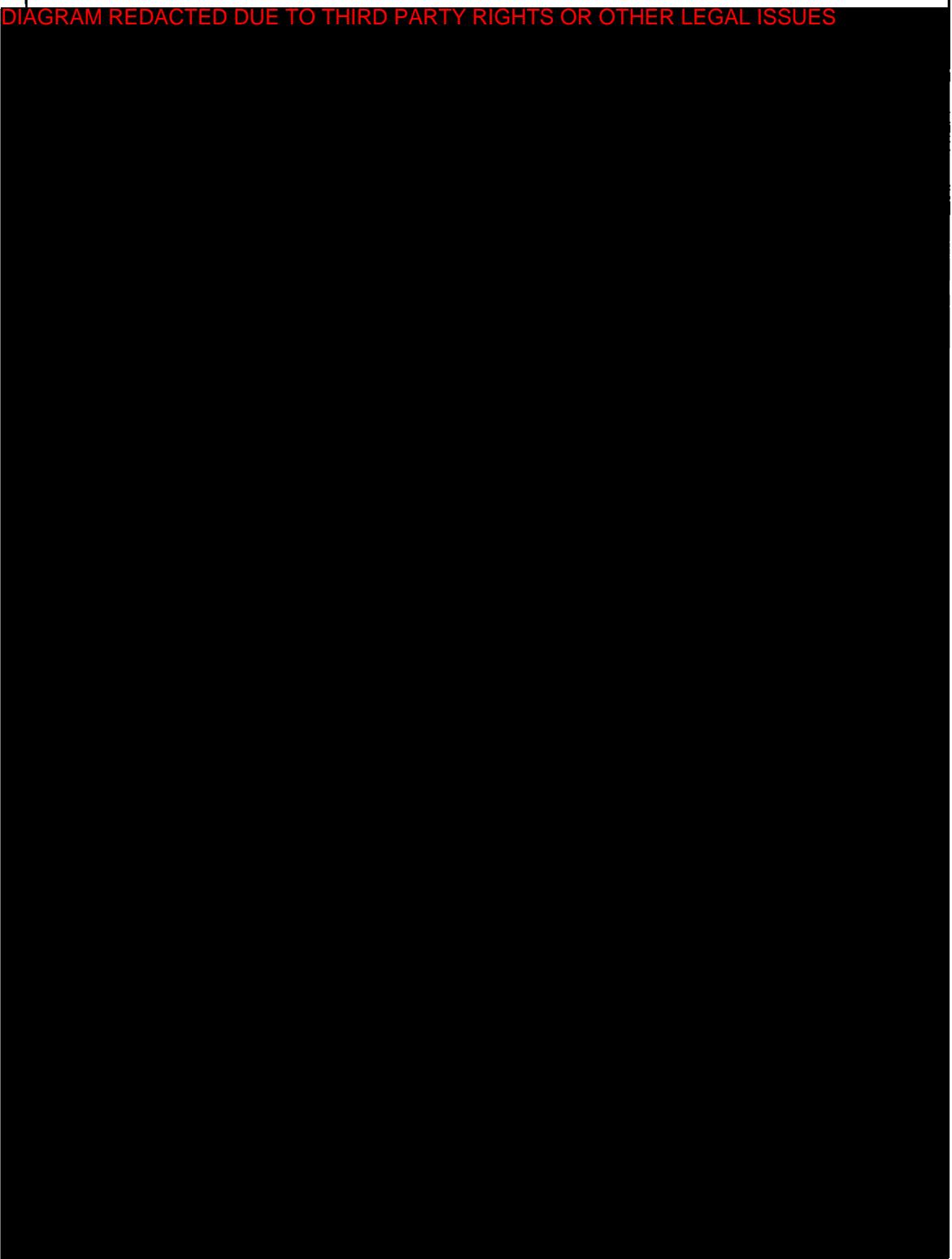
SECTION III

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

CHAPTER 4

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN BRAZIL

Introduction

The demographic factors are important when considering education
in Brazil. With the high rate of increase in population, 2.8 percent
yearly,[1] greater demands are made each year on the educational system
so that even plans made for projected situations are often inadequate
long before their implementation can become a reality.

Most of Brazil's population is concentrated near the coast, leaving
vast areas with such a sparse population that it is impossible for even
small, one-room schools to function. Even in the rural areas, near the
coast, population density is usually not sufficient to support more
than one or two-room schools.[2]

Road systems are still not developed enough to permit daily
transportation of students to school; and if they were adequate, economic
factors would prohibit the operation of school buses.

Another demographic factor of importance is the age distribution
of the population. With more than half of the population being 19 or
younger and about 35 per cent in the primary and middle level school
age groups, the nation would have to invest a large proportion of its
material resources and of its trained manpower in the school system,
if all of these groups were in school.

Considering also the schools of higher education and their enrolments
together with the lower level groups, Brazil would have been confronted

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[1] Boletim Demográfico CBED - FIBGE. 1971.

[2] See the map (4:1) indicating regional distribution of population
and land areas of Brazil.

with education as almost its primary activity.

The economic aspects of the school-age population also affect education. The percentage of individuals who are in the economically active age groups is so low that their productivity is expended merely in supporting the non-productive age groups. While a large proportion of Brazil's population is in need of the benefits of an educational system, a proportionally smaller group is contributing to its support.[1]

Low per capita income restricts the amount of money raised by taxes for schools. Economic instability and inflation make planning difficult and cause resources from projects to be insufficient.

An added economic factor is industrialisation. There is an increase in the demand for skilled workers and for persons who have sufficient education and training to learn new processes of production. The educational system is not yet prepared for meeting these demands, and the concepts of education held by the general population do not coincide with the needs of an industrialised society. Brazil remains largely an agricultural country, the trend towards industrialisation, especially in some regions of Southern Brazil demonstrates deficiencies in the educational system.

As for the agricultural sector, the largest part of the economy, the schools have included only a minute percentage of students who are studying agriculture at any level.

Those in Charge of the Educational Activities

Since the first Federal Constitution was created after Brazil's becoming a Republic, the country has been divided into three super-imposed tiers: the Union, divided into States; the State comprising the municipalities, and the municipality - the smallest political unit.

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[1] William A. Harrell, Educational Reform in Brazil. The Law of 1961, US Government Printing Office, pp.7-8.

It is the responsibility of the central government - the federal

authorities - to discriminate between the roles of each tier. Otherwise,

it might generate technical problems and conflicts within the same

territory between different bodies, possessing policy making powers

governing the society. So as to reap successfully the results of

harmony, security, unity and order, one authority should not be allowed

to overlap another within the same territory.

All the powers of the Union are defined in the Constitution, while

the rest are left to the State.[1] This method has had the merit of

simplifying the written form of the Constitution.

The municipalities exercise their powers of autonomy when acting

in their own interests. "Municipal autonomy is provided. . . by the

municipality's own administration when conducting its own particular

affairs."[2]

Hence, the Union has defined powers; the municipalities too, those

which concern them specifically, and the states the remainder and just

a few defined ones.

Besides the specific responsibilities belonging to each

administrative tier, there are some common to all. Education is one

of them. The Constitution gives to the Union the power to legislate

on the Directives and Bases for National Education[3] and to the States

the right of legislating on this subject in a complementary manner,

therefore sharing responsibility.

Hierarchically, in legislative matters, the Union is the most

powerful because it bears the responsibility of formulating the basic

and general principles upon which the structure, organisation and process

---

[1]Constitution of the Brazilian Federation Republic, 17 October 1969,
Art. 13, 1st Para.

[2]Ibid., Article 15, II.

[3]Ibid., Article 8, XVII.

of the educational systems depend.

The Ministry of Education and Culture[1] has the responsibility

of carrying out through its various departments the activities assigned

by law, and executing decisions of the Federal Council for Education,

as stipulated by the law. Its role is to supplement and support the

State systems and to supplement education throughout the entire nation,

"within the strict limits of local existing deficiencies",[2] rather than

to control and direct it.

The Federal system has the responsibility of exercising jurisdiction

over all federally owned schools of higher education, private elementary

and middle-level schools, in the Territories,[3] and those owned by the

Federal Government in any part of the nation (except military schools).

The Federal Council for Education is divided into committees to

deal with the various levels of education and is composed of 24 members

appointed by the President of the Republic for a six year term, and

selected on the basis of their experience in educational matters. It

has the power:

> to investigate through special commissions any educational
> institution, to determine its compliance with the law; to
> propose or adopt changes for the expansion and improvement
> of education; to propose measures for the organisation and
> functioning of a federal system of education; to make
> decisions regarding the opening of independent units of
> higher education - federal and private - and approving their
> charters after they have been in operation for two years;
> and to determine minimum curriculum requirements to
> education at any level of learning; to make plans for the
> use of federal resources which are appropriated for the
> different levels of education; to determine the overall
> amount from federal funds to be used for scholarships at
> the various educational levels in the States, the Federal
> District and the Territories; to maintain relations with the
> State Councils for Education, and to promote and circulate
> studies of the state education system.

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[1] See Diagram (4:1).

[2] Brazilian Constitution, op.cit., article 177.

[3] A Territory is a geographical area which has not yet fulfilled the
conditions to become a State. It is governed directly by the Federal
Government. Brazil, at the present time, has four Federal Territories.

All the actions of the Federal Council for Education of major

importance are subject to the approval of the Minister of Education.[1]

The administrative responsibilities fall mainly on the States.[2]

Hence, educational activities are, formally, the function of the States.

The Federal Constitution has given the States the power to legislate

in order to exercise these activities properly. So, taking into

consideration the Education Act, each State establishes the educational

policy required for its own system. The Secretariat of Education has

the responsibility to carry out through its various departments the

activities assigned by law, and to execute the decisions of the State

Council for Education as stipulated by the law. Just as the Minister

is a choice of the Republican President, the Secretary of Education is

that of the Governor of the State.[3]

A State Council for Education in each State is structured

according to State laws and composed of representatives of the various

levels of instruction, private and public, as well as teachers and

administrators.

Primary Schools: There are two parallel systems of public primary

schools:- the State and the Municipal one. In recent years the number

of Municipal schools has exceeded those of the State.[4]

Since the first Republican Constitution in 1891, primary education

has been considered by the State and Municipality as a common

responsibility. The additional Act to the Constitution of 1834

delegated the power to legislate on public instruction to the legislative

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[1] Directives and Bases for National Education Act, No. 4024 of 20 December 1961, in William A. Harrell, op.cit., articles 6 to 9.

[2] Ibid., Art. 11.

[3] Diagram (4.2) shows the organogramme of the Secretariat of Education of Ceará State.

[4] See Table (4:1).

assembly of the provinces.[1] It was the first step in the decentralisation

of primary and secondary schools. At the same time, however, it caused

the abandonment of these levels of education by the Central Government.

"It is possible to administer from near, only".[2]

The 1891 Constitution did not include among the responsibilities

of the Congress[3] the opening of primary schools as it did for the

other levels of education. This is the reason why Union[4] participation

in the primary system of education was almost nil until 1934 when a new

constitution established, for the first time, that the Union would be

the only one "to legislate on the directives and bases for national

education"[5] to formulate the "national plan 'for education at all levels

and branches"[6] and establish a compulsory quota of 20 percent minimum

from the annual education budget for instruction in the rural areas

(meaning the primary schools). The Federal Government from that period

on started legislating for and financing primary education, together

with the other administrative bodies - State and Municipalities.

The Union's part today in directly administering the primary

schools network is kept to a minimum. In 1973 only 849 primary schools

were Federal, of which more than 50 percent were located in the

Territories.[7]

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[1] Former name for States.

[2] Maria do Carmo Tavares de Miranda, Educação no Brasil, Recife: Imprensa Universitária, 1966, p.47.

[3] National Congress is the collegiate which exercises the Legislative Power of the nation and is divided into two sections: Federal Deputy Chamber and Federal Senate, see page 24.

[4] Central Government.

[5] Federal Constitution of 1934, Art. 5, XIV, in Hélio Pontes, Educacão para o Desenvolvimento, São Paulo: Editora Nacional, 1969, p.60.

[6] Federal Constitution of 1934, Art 150, a, ibid., p.60.

[7] Anuário Estatístico de 1973.

Secondary Schools: The power of the Union to create secondary schools since the Constitution of 1891 was poorly exercised. This type of school financed by the State was small in number since the trend was towards leaving the responsibilities to private enterprise, mainly religious bodies.

Municipalities with rare exceptions were unable to cope with the financial burden which a secondary school system requires. They merely provided encouragement, moral and political support, to any enterprise with such an end in view.

Helio Pontes[1] analysing the governmental neglect of the middle school system based on Anisio Texeira articles, comments that the pre-industrial society, unable to prevent access by the dominated class to the schools, because it was not convenient, formulated a dual educational system preventing the members from filling the traditional positions reserved for a few members of the ruling class. Hence, the double school system emerged; the former was academic for the ruling class and limited and the latter consisted of primary schools, followed by normal schools and professional schools for the people. This system maintaining a permanent separation of classes, allowed the government to generalise education, meeting the demands of the newly emerged lower class, without however abolishing the privilege of the ruling class, which, through academic courses, had access to university, so guaranteeing continuity of the class structure.

In fact, the evolution of secondary schools in Brazil followed the same pattern as in the developed countries during the pre-industrialisation period. The system was a selective one, through intellectual and economic criteria; the first was controlled by a tough examination at the end of

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[1] Hélio Pontes, op.cit., pp.20-21.

primary school and the second through the payment of fees. The

government policy tended to encourage a private school network, distrib-

uting scholarships to needy students selected by means of an examination.

It was a policy of non-competition in order to supplement private

enterprise.

Mainly after the second decade of this century,[1] several factors

promoted industrial development in Brazil, such as the interruption of

imports of manufactured products as a result of the 1914-1918 war, and

the opening of the subsidiary industries of powerful foreign enterprises.

New demands emerged for education. Industrialisation and urbanisation,

by generating development and at the same time creating social problems,

demand a larger participation by government in national life. In

every nation of the world, development requires that the State be more

active, more present and more responsible. As a corollary, there is a

growth of public administration with an increase in bureaucracy, both

civil and military.

Mario Wagner da Cunha[2] demonstrated this fact when analysing the

census data from the two years 1920 to 1940. In the entire country of

Brazil, without exception, there was an increase both of the absolute

number of civil and military servants and in relation to the growth

of population.

Industrial and urban development by causing the growth of public

administration, private enterprise, and business, developed a new and

strong social group, the so-called Brazilian middle class. This new

class that falls between the working class and haute bourgeoisie, aspires

to continuous social upward mobility. This upward mobility has usually

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[1] Caio Prado Jr., Historia Economica do Brasil, São Paulo: Ed. Brasiliense, 1966, pp.267-273.

[2] M. Wagner da Cunha. O Sistema Administrativo Brasileiro, Rio: M.E.C., 1963, pp.113-114.

been connected with the extent and type of education provided, because the process depends upon competition. Although education is not the only agent of such a mobility it constitutes a very important one.[1] This new class forced a change in the educational system by the adoption of the same ascendant structure of studies open to all, with any branch of studies being sufficiently flexible to receive or to transfer students from one to the other, giving everyone access to a university. Hence, the conditions of aptitude and intellectual capacity were satisfied.[2]

The middle class, eager to reach university level, forced its way into the academic schools. This, in turn, caused two important government decisions: multiplying schools and bringing the fees more in line with the population's income. That was the starting point of secondary school[3] expansion. Each municipality found, in its community, leaders such as doctors, priests and pharmacists who were the original secondary teachers. In the big cities, expansion was taking place, thanks to private and government initiative which solved the second problem, that of the fees.

In 1973, 52 percent of all secondary schools were supported by public money, from federal, state and municipal funds.[4]

When pressures emerged to create such schools, the State government took the initiative. The low financial resources of the municipalities prevented them from having a major role at this level of instruction.

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[1] Octavio Iani. Industrialização & Desenvolvimento Social no Brasil, Rio: Civilizacao Brasileira, 1963, pp.260-261.

[2] Lourenço Filho - Educação Comparada, São Paulo: Ed. Melhoramento, 1961, pp.43-44.

[3] Secondary school was the middle level school of an academic type, offering only general education in its curriculum.

[4] Anuário Estatístico de 1973.

Higher Education: Up to now the Union has participated most actively
at the University level. Ever since independence, when the right to
legislate on education was given to the State Assemblies, the faculties
of medicine and law (which were at that time the superior courses)
were explicitly excluded. Since the formation of the Republic, the
Union first and the States later, have been bearing the responsibility
of top-level education.

The roles of the church and private initiative have been remarkable.
Many of these universities and some institutions were created by private
associations and were incorporated later into the Federal system, thus
receiving financial support. In 1972, of 65 universities in Brazil, 31
belonged to the Federal Government, 12 to the States, 3 to municipalities
and 19 were private.[1]

To summarise, Brazilian educational administration and authority is
shared by the Municipalities, States and the Union. The Primary School
or First Level of Education is the responsibility of the Municipality
and the State, with increasing Municipal participation; the middle level
schools or Second Level of Education belong to the Municipality and to the
Union, with a strong State predominance; finally, Higher Education
belongs to the State and to the Union, with a remarkable predominance of
the Federal Government.

Private schools follow legislation made by one of the administrative
tiers, according to the situation.

Control and Articulation of the Different Tiers

The role of the Union in education is not restricted only to issuing
the Directives and Bases for National Education and to giving financial
help to the States. It can assume directly the administration at State

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[1] Anuário Estatístico de 1973.

level if the local system appears inappropriate to national educational policy.

Geographical, economic and financial circumstances have influenced the supplementary action of the Federal Government. One can generally define Federal action in Brazil in the following areas: Maintenance of Higher Education in several of the regions' priority areas; of the education system in the Territories; of non-formal educational programmes everywhere, of technical and financial aid to the State; of welfare assistance for the students in the country as a whole.

The direct influence of the Union over the Municipalities in education has been shrinking a great deal, after the official pronouncement of the Federal Education Council in 1964 which wisely drew attention to the spirit of the law, of centralisation in planning and decentralisation in administration; to the need for greater articulation of Union and State plans; to the fact that States should be given executive roles for carrying out their programmes.[1]

From another angle, in the opinion of Carlos Pasquale, the way in which the Municipalities are managing their educational funds indicates the need for better co-operation between the Municipality and the State.[2]

Centralisation versus Decentralisation between Union and States

> There is a fallacy in identifying centralisation with control and decentralisation[3] with freedom. Within a centralised system where control of the system is concentrated in a centre remote from many of the schools, detailed supervision at the grass-root level is more difficult to exercise. Therefore, in practice the schools may have more freedom. In a decentralised system schools are

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[1] Parecer 49/64 da Câmara do Ensino Primário e Médio - Conselho Federal de Educação, in Carlos Pasquale, "O Desenvolvimento do Ensino Primário e o Plano Nacional de Educação" in Estudos e Documento, São Paulo: Vol.4, Series 1, CRPE, Prof. Queiroz Filho, INEP/MEC, 1966, p.13.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Decentralisation has here the same meaning as devolution.

much closer to the controlling centre and their day-
to-day working is more open to observation and therefore
sometimes to control by the supervising agencies. . . It
is more important to analyse the discretion and accountability
of the various administrative levels.[1]

What characterises the decentralisation of a system is the degree

of participation of members, responsible for the operational units in

decisions which concern themselves.

Ernest Dale, studying the problem of centralisation in American

industrial enterprises, shows that the degree of decentralisation in a

company is as large as the number of decisions taken at the lower levels

of the hierarchy; the more important were these decisions, the more the

number of these functions increased and the control by the higher

authorities diminished. In terms of this control, decentralisation

reaches its maximum when it is not necessary to make any report, and less

than the maximum when a superior must be informed about the decision

taken, and much less still if he has to be consulted beforehand.[2] Hence,

we can say that an educational system is centralised or decentralised

according to the degree of authority possessed by the school or the

system to decide its own destiny. The greater the decentralisation, the

more important the decisions taken in administrative and pedagogical

matters at the school level. The extension of these decisions widens

and control at the top of the system decreases. Therefore, there are

degrees of decentralisation, as Fayol has already pointed out.[3]

Decentralisation is an administrative concept and not a spatial

one. According to William H. Newman and Charles E. Summer, decentralisation

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[1] Dr. K. Van Gendt. "Conditions for Innovation at school level".
Conference in Reading, 14-17 Sept. 1973.

[2] Ernest Dale, _Planning and Developing the Company Organisation Structure_,
New York: American Management Association, 1959, pp.149/150.

[3] Henry Fayol, _Administração Industrial e Geral_, São Paulo: Atlas, 1958,
p.44.

is a way of dividing directive work among several executives.[1] The

space, or the territorial extension which comprises the system is only

one of the variables which guide the administrator in the division and

allocation of authority. Hence, decentralisation is a criterion of

organisation.

In Brazil, a misconception about decentralisation in educational

policy has existed and consequently governments have adopted in different

periods opposite attitudes towards delegating authority. The Additional

Act to the Constitution of 1834, already mentioned, delegating the

power to legislate on public instruction to the legislative assemblies

of the provinces, initiated decentralisation of elementary and secondary

schools. However, instead of permanently reinforcing the provinces'

capacity, through financial and technical assistance, what happened

was the abandonment of these levels of education by this central

government.

By 1939 the Federal Government seemed to have arrived at the

conclusion that the previous decentralisation was the cause of the

backwardness of the educational system. Motivated by the new political

regime, the extreme centralisation under President Getulio Vargas

dictatorship, led the government to intensive and extensive power.[2]

The concept of hierarchy was a traditional one, in which decisions

were taken based on a philosophy of centralisation. Decisions were

taken at the top even in trivial matters. Of course this situation

created feelings of dependency and lack of initiative at the bottom

levels of the administration. Even today one still finds the vestiges

of such attitudes. At the bottom of the administrative machine there

exists a fear of taking decisions. At the top, there is mistrust of

delegating power.

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[1] William H. Newman and Charles E. Summer, The Process of Management, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1961, p.38.

[2] Hélio Pontes, ibid., p.68.

In a country of the size of Brazil centralisation is useful to keep the country uniform. But how valuable is the uniformity ? According to I.L. Kandel variety (in a unique structure which should be one of the educational characteristics) is more important than uniformity and standardisation existing in the centralised control.[1] Moreover, as Anísio Teixeira points out, much confusion throughout the country among educationists stems from the error of trying to solve by law that which could be left to meticulous and up-to-date professional and specialised opinion. He says

> a law in education must limit itself to indicating
> the educational objectives, to determining certain
> external conditions and to providing responses in order
> that this law may be carried out. One cannot prescribe
> internal conditions for particular procedures, because
> these conditions stem from a science and a technique in
> permanent development, the object being the control of the
> professional conscience of the educationists themselves
> and not the laws.[2]

Administrative decentralisation determined by the Directives and Bases for National Education Act, in 1961, in which the universities acquired didactic, administrative, financial and disciplinary autonomy, and elementary and secondary schools the freedom to gain pedagogical experience and pursue regional adaptation, was the starting point for educational participation in the administration, and direction of its own establishment and the education systems, increasing their degree of responsibility and freeing them from many legal limitations. However, this freedom was interpreted timidly, as Maria José Werebe describes.[3]

The Union in educational policy-making for the whole country, delegated by the Constitution in respect of educational experiences and regional adaptations, given by Directives and Bases in 1961,

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[1] I.L. Kandel, Uma Nova Era em Educação, Rio: Fundo de Cultura, 1961, p.142.

[2] Anísio Teixeira, A Educação e a Crise Brasileira, São Paulo: Cia Editora Nacional, 1956, pp.22 and 123.

[3] In Grandezas e Misérias do Ensino Brasileiro, São Paulo: Difusão Europeia do Livro, 1963, p.67.

confirmed and enlarged by its revision through Act n.5692 of 11th of

August 1971, allows for the desired articulated decentralisation of

the educational, Municipal, State and Federal systems. It is possible

though, to reconcile respect for the professional activities of the

educator, and at the same time to recognise the supremacy of the

Federal Government for the educational policies of Brazil. This is,

in fact, what the country needs. In determining the main Directives

and Bases for administering its own system in the Territories, or as a

supplementary resource in financing the school systems within the

States and Municipalities, the presence of the Union is crucial:

firstly to establish a minimum uniformity for the cultural unity of the

nation; secondly, for the important role of education in the process of

transforming the society and its economy, ensuring that the educational

system corresponds to the needs of development.

Each of the five regions in Brazil is at a different stage of

educational and economic development. Therefore, a well established

Federal system is required, which would give balance - financial and

technical - to the less fortunate ones. If this problem is neglected,

the differences between the regions would increase and threaten national

unity.

If education is to be understood as a factor of economic development,

the reverse is also true: the more developed the educational system of a

people is the more developed its economy. The regional imbalances in

economic development are reflected in regional imbalances in educational

development.

If one uses the number of industrial enterprises and workers as

indicators of economic development, and if one takes the number of

teachers, enrolments and graduates, as an indication of educational

progress, it is possible to observe the high correlation that exists

in Brazil between these two factors. In the advanced areas of the South

and the East the statistics of education demonstrate a corresponding
level of advancement. Florestan Fernandes' study demonstrates these
educational differences in the Brazilian regions.[1] The same author
referring to such inequality between varying regions points out that
education is an economic social and regional privilege, and as such is
more readily accessible to the prosperous areas of the nation.[2]

While the participation of the Federal government in supplying
States' needs, thereby decreasing their educational and economic
differences, is doubtless the right policy to follow policy on this
inequality between the State and its Municipalities is very much in need
of being further defined. The example of the Federal Government could
be an inspiring source for the States' procedures.

Criteria Evolved for Financing Education by the Union and the States

The Allocation of Financial Resources for Education: Through
allocations of money from the national budget, varying annually in
amount, the Central Government gave financial help to the States and
Municipalities, even before the creation of the Republic.[3] This
procedure, however, was not satisfactory. In 1932, a group of intellectuals
and educationists condemned it in a manifesto entitled: "Manifesto of the
Pioneers of the New Education". They maintained that education should
not have to depend upon grants, varying in size and fluctuating in
accordance with the country's economic situation, and upon the relative
commitment of each respective government. "Autonomy is only possible
when a special fund is made available for education purposes, providing a
ready source of income, to be administered by the educational body".[4]

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[1] "Dados sobre a situação do ensino", Revista Brasiliense, São Paulo: 1960,
Quadros XIV, XVI and XXII, pp.67-138.

[2] Ibid., p.113.

[3] Obras Completas de Rui Barbosa, Reforma do Ensino Secundário e Superior,
Rio: M.E.C., vol.9, 1940, p.31.

[4] Em Fernando de Azevedo, A Educação Entre Dois Mundos, São Paulo: Edições
Melhoramentos, 1958, p.83.

The proposal for the creation of an educational national tax fund was made before the establishment of the Republic.

Rui Barbosa in 1882, reporting in the Rodolfo Dantas reform project for primary schools, said that there was nothing to prevent Brazilians following the example of the majority of the modern States, in creating a school fund combined with direct local taxation, specifically to support schools.[1] Rui Barbosa was greatly impressed by the American system of direct taxation for schools, finding it to be the best procedure for amassing educational funds. All these suggestions were put forward at a very turbulent period of history. There was the clash between Church and State and problems of a racial and economic nature as a result of the abolition of slavery, and the advent of the Republic. The above mentioned were the main issues and public educational reform was suffocated.[2]

Approximately a half century later, thanks to the influence provoked by the "Manifesto of Pioneers" Brazilian legislation established the principle of specific taxation and school funds when it was decided that a third of the resources obtained from sale of stamps used on official documents would be allocated to education and an autonomous board was nominated to administer it.[3]

The Constitution of 1934 not only prescribed the principles supported by the "Manifesto of Pioneers", but adopted the recommended formula from Rodolfo Dantas (Rui Barbosa's report) when dealing with the financing of education. The then Minister of Education, Gustavo Capanema, in his justification added to the Decree no. 4,958, of 14 November 1942 creating the National Fund for Primary Schools, expressed

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[1] Ibid., Reforma do Ensino Primário, 1947, pp.271/272.

[2] Ibid., prefácio no volume IX, Tomo I, pp.xvii/xviii.

[3] Decreto 21.335 de 20 de abril de 1932. Diário Oficial da União de 6 de maio de 1932.

himself in the following words:

> It seems the moment for direct action from the Federal
> Government in relation to Primary Education has arrived.
> It is clear that if the States are obliged to rely only
> upon their own resources and initiatives they will be
> incapable of solving their problems of primary education.
> The Federation should provide guidance in establishing
> Directives and Bases, and ultimately co-operate in the
> execution of the said Directives and Bases.[1]

The Central Government intended not only to decrease the existing

inequalities between States but also to put them under an obligation to

spend a fixed percentage on Primary Education from their tax revenues.

In order to ensure that the percentage allotted for education had been

used, the Federal Government adopted the technique of conditional aid:

"To qualify for federal aid for the purposes of Primary Education, each

State must prove that the previous year it had followed the terms

agreed with the Union".[2] One of the conditions of the agreement with the

Union was that each State and Municipality should set aside a minimum

percentage of its local revenue for Primary Education. Thus, their

parallel efforts were guaranteed by the Union without risk of replacing

them.[3]

Until 1961 the National Fund for Primary Education was made up of

specific taxation from a percentage of a consumption tax on drinks and

from a quota of taxation levied for Health and Education.[4] The Directives

and Bases for National Education in 1961 abolished this system of tax

contribution for education and the national fund for education was composed

of the 9/10 of the annual Federal budget for education. This amount was

divided in equal parts: 3/10 for National Fund for Primary Education;

3/10 for Secondary Education., and 3/10 for Higher Education.

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[1] Diário Oficial da União de 20 de novembro de 1942, in Hélio Pontes, p.78.
[2] Decree 19,513, ibid., p.80.
[3] Decreto lei 4958, Clausula 3rd a 5th, op.cit.
[4] Decretos 6,785 de 11 de agosto de 1944 e 9.486 de 18 de julho de 1946.

Later on, the Salary-Education Law[1] was passed in which each
enterprise had to contribute 1.4 percent from each employee's salary
in order that the government might supply compulsory education for the
children of employees. 50 percent of those resources were set aside
to reinforce the Federal Primary Education Fund, while the other 50
percent went into the State Fund for Primary Education to be administered
by the State according to the directives of State Education Council.

The Directives and Bases for National Education in 1961 established
that the three funds - Primary, Secondary and Higher Education - should
be used mainly for the maintenance of public system. As a result, a
change of philosophy took place. This policy was the opposite of the
former one which was mostly inclined to subsidize private institutions
of education rather than to expand the public system. The National Plan
for Education[2] established the regulations concerning expenditure of the
said Fund, and determined that the Federal system of education should be
given priority in drawing upon the Fund, followed by the State and
Municipality. The funds evolved during stages in Brazil's history and
were created to cater for the needs of education at three separate levels
- Primary, Secondary and Higher Education - in that order of priority.

Each administration - Federal, State and Municipality - when
adopting the quota system had to ensure that a certain percentage of the
budget went towards education. This system of dealing with the costs of
public education was in force from 1934 until 1966. According to the
Directives and Bases Act of 1961, the Union quota was 12 percent of its
tax revenue, while the States and Municipalities set aside for education
at least 20 percent of their budget. However, after the Constitution was

[1] Lei 4.440 de 27 de outubro de 1964.
[2] MEC Plano Nacional de Educação, 1962, p.37.

drawn up in 1967, the quota system (or compulsory percentage system)

was abolished by the Federal government and in 1971 by the States, as

a result of the implementation of the new Directives and Bases Act

no. 5692.

Hélio Pontes[1] however, after studying the annual national

Brazilian statistics from the years 1958 to 1962, found that the Union,

States and Municipalities had fallen short of carrying out the

requirements of the Act. He pointed out that to put a particular Act

into practice successfully is a different matter from imposing it in

the first place. The Federal Government did not use its authority to

deny financial aid to the States and Municipalities for two reasons:

firstly, because the States and Municipalities had clearly made efforts

to interpret the act accurately (this being evident in the respective

budget applications on Education, which were extremely close to the

official quota), and secondly, because of the inequality between areas

and Municipalities within each State, the figures tended to emphasise

these inequalities, and so did not give an accurate picture of the

efforts made. As a general rule, the States and Municipalities that

failed to spend the recommended amount ought to be penalised and miss

the chance of the entire sum. However, in areas where hardships

existed and priorities were different, the Union did not withhold

assistance, as this would only aggravate the situation.

Educationists and education planners have criticised the quota

system a great deal for failing particularly in two important respects:

firstly, for its tendency to generalise and, secondly, for its arbitrary

nature. The only valid criteria for forecasting expenditure in education

would be those based on an accurate analysis of all education data (the

number of children of school age, the required number of teachers, the

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[1] Educação para o Desenvolvimento, op.cit. p.86.

cost of their training, the total amount required to cover teachers' pay,
the number of classrooms needed, the cost of construction, ancillary
expenses etc.) considered alongside many other needs of the Federation,
in order to establish priorities to use the available money. Suggestions
as to what percentage of the budget should go on Education have varied
greatly, ranging from 10 percent to 20 percent within the Union, and from
20 percent to 25 percent within the States and the Municipalities.[1]

The second criticism concerns the uniformity of the fixed quota.
It fails to take into consideration the acute economic and social
inequalities between the States and Municipalities. It is impossible
to prescribe a uniform policy of expenditure for all the States. Each
State and Municipality according to its needs and possibilities should
make adequate resources available for education. Therefore the amount
of the said resources would have to vary between one school and another,
in the same way as educational needs would have to fluctuate from time
to time for a particular school. As the financial resources are usually
not sufficient, they are widely disputed and administrative action is
very often discriminative. Programmes are not carefully structured,
and investments in the expansion of education temporary and inconsistent.
In other words, educational needs can only be met adequately if the
country's education policies are worked out in conjunction with all the
government's general strategies on planning and development.

School Funds: As mentioned before, in the past legislation regarding
Federal funds for education was intended to divide funds into equal parts:
3/10 for Primary Education, 3/10 for Secondary Education and 3/10 for
Higher Education. This system was finally abolished in 1967. This
measure was designed to maintain the policy of uniformity of levels of
education throughout the country. However, it clashed with the Brazilian

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[1]Jose Duarte, A Constituição Brasileira de 1946, Rio: Imprensa
Nacional, Vol.3, 1947, pp.276 and 280.

tradition of giving full support to Higher Education and leaving the
States and Municipalities to bear the burden of Primary and Secondary
Education.

To maintain the centres of Higher Education, larger grants
were needed from the Federal Government than those which had, in the
past, been intended only for supplementary purposes. Conformity with the
law on equality of funds produced two impossible alternatives: (i) that
of reducing the costs of Higher Education, bringing it into line with
Primary and Secondary Education, (ii) that of increasing costs
in Primary and Secondary Education, so bringing them up to the level
of the Higher Education fund. The result of this first alternative
would be the inevitable collapse of Higher Education and the result of
the second would be a considerable increase in Education costs. As this
would prove impracticable, the government preferred not to submit to
this law. In practice, the Federal expenses were only artificially
adjusted under the 1961 Directives and Bases Act. The triennial Plan
for Economic and Social Development tried to make this adjustment but it
did not include in the funds maintenance expenses; only capital expenses
were included. In this way the formality of the 1961 Act was maintained.[1]

The conclusion, however, of maintenance expenses from the Fund for
Higher Education concealed the Union's participation in financing it.

Whilst the capital expenditure of the Federal System in the 1964 Budget
was CR$45,059,997,000, the expenditure of the Federal University System,
for personnel, excluding the University of Brasilia and the Rural
University was CR$42,661,752,000.[2]

Therefore, the aims of the 1961 Act were not put into practice.

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[1] See Table (4:2).

[2] Orçamento do Ensino Superior, Rio: Ministério de Educação, 1964.

It was not the intention of the Union to reduce expenditure on Higher

Education, and no increases were made with regard to Primary and

Secondary education.

Criteria for Educational Needs: As stated earlier, the Federal

Government's participation in financing the country's educational

activities was designed to assist the needs of the States and correct

regional inequalities as well.

Although in many cases the criterion of a per capita income index

tends to draw attention to the high proportion of income in the hands

of a few, without reflecting development of society as a whole, it

is still the most reliable means of assessing a country's overall economic

development. Taken as it is, the inequality of the per capita income

of Brazilian States shows the stage of development of each State. In

order to soften the effects of inequality between States, the system of

allotting a specific sum, according to every State's needs, has been

devised.

The inclusion of the population according to school age together

with the income per capita was essential. Taken singly as criteria

from which to divide the percentage amount does not present an accurate

picture. Taken alone the school age population does not have any meaning.

If a State is rich, it does not matter, and when the population of a

State is small it constitutes a heavy burden, if the State is poor.

If the National Education Plan had taken into consideration the

income per capita/school age population, as the only criterion for the

distribution of Fund's resources, the classification order of the States

in relation to the amount received would have been more equal. If one

compares the classification of the States, resulting from the total

distribution applied in the National Education Plan, with that of 70

percent, it would not be difficult to conclude that the second criterion

would satisfy the aims of the Federal aids better than the first.[1]

Guanabara and Sao Paulo for example, the two States with the highest income levels in the country, and therefore least in need of assistance held the eighteenth and third places in the total distribution scale of the Primary Education National Fund. However, they occupied the twentyfirst and sixth places respectively, in the distribution scale, based on the 70 percent category.[2]

The school age population taken as a separate item gains far greater advantage from Union assistance in the wealthy States, even though from a relatively small percentage of the Fund.

If one were to take into consideration other factors besides per capita income/school age population, it would be better to use educational indices related to school units, enrolments and teachers, these being more objective than the income measurement. They would not only reveal the educational inequalities of the States, but assess them too. Without such an evaluation the participation of the Federal government aggravates the differences instead of softening them.

After the 1965 Revision, the National Educational Plan substituted the per capita income criterion for the deficit of enrolments of children of 7 to 11 years of age, in order to calculate the distribution of resources allocated for Primary Education.[3] However, this measure was a step backwards in the principle adopted in 1955, distributing the resources of the Fund according to certain school indices, as the number of qualified teachers exercising their functions in the classroom and the number of students enrolled in the last grade of Primary school. The result was that Sao Paulo and Minas Gerais began to receive the largest proportion of the Fund. It was difficult to justify so much Union

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[1] Criterion for the Primary Education National Fund
  (a) 30 percent - no. of school age children from 7 to 14 years of age.
  (b) 70 percent - indirectly proportional to the per capita income, combined with criterion (a).

[2] See Table (4:3).   [3] Plano Nacional de Educação, Revisão de 1965.

assistance for Primary Education in Sao Paulo. While Primary Education

was deficient in almost all the States, the educational facilities of

Sao Paulo were much greater. The Second Plan of Action for Sao Paulo's

Government (1963-1966) showed that in 1960 the school age population from

7 to 11 years was all enrolled and the Sao Paulo primary schools were

distinguished not only for the high enrolment level but also for their

highly qualified elementary teachers; in 1958 only 2.9 percent of its

38,676 teachers were without the minimum qualification in Normal schools.[1]

While in 1962 and 1963 Sao Paulo spent CR$119,290,043 on education, the

Federal Government during the same period, through the Ministry of

Education and Culture, spent CR$119,457,484.[2]

In adopting criteria for the application of Funds, two risks have

to be faced. The first is that Federal aid would tend to favour a more

prosperous State, aggravating existing regional inequalities. The second

risk is that in order to soften inequalities between regions throughout the

country, the Union might not give enough consideration to certain

variables in national development, only because they are located in the

more developed States. For example, the Union cannot be indifferent to

the fact that industrial technical education should be available in Sao

Paulo, the largest industrial centre of the country. Specialised labour

is still a big problem. It would therefore prove beneficial to the whole

country if Federal resources were available to promote expansion of

technical education in Sao Paulo, without stressing too much the

importance of balancing the needs and possibilities of the other States.

In reality, in order to fulfil the interests of the nation, the

supplementary educational function of the Federal government cannot be

carried out by way of the quota system and equal parts of Funds for each

[1] Governo de São Paulo, 2º Plano de Ação 1963-1966, pp.35 and 36.

[2] Anuário Estatístico de 1963 & 1964.

level of education. From 1930 onwards sufficient administrative

experience had been accumulated to fulfil the country's needs through

better educational planning.

The Technique of Planned Action

The strategy on administrative developments cannot be allowed to

proceed in a haphazard way; planned action technique should be employed

to provide systematic guidance; first, by sectorial plans, envisaging

the elimination of bottlenecks. Planning in such a case is partial.

Once some of these points have been identified, the Government will

put all efforts into solving them.

If the aim of development is systematic growth, sectorial planning

only would not be sufficient. If the State does not calculate in

advance the consequences of a sectorial plan, the deficit would be

repeated as soon as the programme were to produce the expected effects.

Development as a whole has to be interrelated between the different

sectors undergoing transformation. This shows that we cannot base

development on partial or sectorial planning only. The second way of

guiding administrative action is to elaborate complete plans comprising

all the aspects of development. The object of the plan is the well-being

of the nation as a whole, and depends upon the interchange between

regions. It is for this reason that only integrated planning is able

to give guidance in the ordered development of society.

Developing countries have to plan for each sector not only according

to its particular need but mainly in relation to the effect this has on

the other sectors. As the resources of such countries are scarce and

there are many problems to solve, each sector is in permanent competition

with every other in order to gain the largest financial resources from

the Government.

If the nation needs to guarantee primary education for its primary

age children, to build houses for the workers; roads to facilitate the circulation of merchandise; to produce agricultural equipment and fertilisers in order to increase production in agriculture, but it is without adequate means to undertake all these investments, it is imperative to determine which of these sectors should be given precedence and to what extent.

Public expenditure must be administered according to current priorities. Towards this end each category must be analysed and its overall effects evaluated.

It is therefore inadvisable to draw up either a programme for primary education, or a housing programme, or a motorway programme, without ensuring interdependency between these programmes. Educational planning like any government strategy must be part of a careful and integrated development programme.

Collaboration with Private Enterprise

The constitutional character of a regime evolves according to its type and nature. When such a regime is a democratic one, free initiatives are not only respected but play a leading part in the traditions of the country, its financial activities, its schools, teachers and students. This fact, which carries such social, economical and pedagogical significance, cannot be ignored when one organises and plans the educational system in Brazil. Legislation integrates free enterprise into the educational system of the nation, authorises legally its existence, recognises officially all the courses and establishes on the Federal and State Education Councils, a proper representation. No distinction is permitted between the validity of the studies in officially recognised public schools and private schools.[1]

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[1] Carlos Pasquale: *O Desenvolvimento do Ensino Primário e O Plano Nacional de Educação*, *op.cit.*, p.14.

Diplomas and certificates from both public and private institutions are subject to the same regulations and registration.

Private schools may receive loans, subsidies, and grants from Government sources. However, they are required to grant free or cheaper tuition up to the value of the funds received. Private schools may also have to accept students holding government scholarships.

The schools run by religious bodies are among the free independent institutions. Although the Roman Catholic Church has much influence, owing to the large number of members - 91.8 percent of the population[1] - unlike the English Church schools, religious schools as a whole, are not administered and supported by the Church. They are maintained by a fee paying system. As the members of the priesthood and sisterhood who constitute many of the teachers in these schools are bound by a vow of poverty, they were able to afford to offer a high standard of education and as the number of these religious teachers grew such schools multiplied, even offering free places for needy students. Nowadays teachers belonging to a religious membership are scarce and fees have to be high to cover the costs of lay teacher contracts. This is also one of the reasons why each year the percentage of government schools increases at the expense of a steady decline in independent schools.

According to the latest statistics[2] the private or independent school network in Brazil comprised 6 percent of the total number of primary schools; 48 percent of the secondary schools and 29 percent of Higher Education institutions.

Educational Foundations: The 1961 legislature also recommended the establishment of non-profit making foundations and associations.

Schools at any level sponsored by such organisations may receive

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[1] Anuário Estatístico do Brasil de 1973.

[2] Ibid.

financial support from the government and are allowed to charge for

tuition at secondary and higher levels, subject to government approval.

The Contribution of Commercial, Industrial and Agricultural Enterprises:
Under the Constitution, private enterprise - commercial, industrial and
agricultural - must contribute to education in one of two ways: either
by maintaining their own schools and providing free education for the
children of their employees of school age, or indirectly, to schools
administered by the government through a special contribution specified
by law.[1] At the same time the enterprises share with the government the
responsibility of providing apprenticeships for employees of 18 years
and under. In order to integrate the contribution of free enterprise
the Law has established the policy of the local administration of
education; and to ensure the success of such integration, it submits the
industrial and commercial apprenticeship courses for approval to the
State Education Council.[2]

Present State of Education

Structure for the Educational System: The take-off phenomenon in
education as compared to other fields of activity has been universally
experienced. Largely, this has been a result of technological and
industrial requirements of labour.

Brazilian school organisation did not provide satisfactory results
in the attempt to achieve its objectives. Since the Republican period,
successive laws on education have attempted to provide a model for social,
economic and political change. However, no law could have the magic
power to reconcile such different aspects of national life. Such laws

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[1] Constitution of 1969, op.cit., Article 178.

[2] Directives and Bases Act of 1961, article 106, in Guido Ivan de
Carvalho, Ensino Superior Legislação e Jurisprudência, 2nd ed., Rio:
MEC, 1969, p.42.

reflected much of the philosophical tendencies in Brazilian policy, prevalent in the first half of the twentieth century. They did not follow or facilitate social requirements and failed to keep pace with economic trends. Advances in science, technology and communication have taken place at an astonishing rate, and the educational laws of the country, which are often of a rigid and inflexible nature, have failed to keep pace with them. Such laws were frequently replaced by new laws, which in turn, quickly became outmoded.

Since the Republic, the average duration of educational reform laws has been ten years: Benjamin Constant (1891), Epitacio Pessoa Reform (1901), Rivadavia Correia Reform (1911), Carlos Maximiliano Reform (1915), Rocha Vaz Reform (1925), Francisco Campos Reform (1931), Capanema Reform (1942), Directives and Bases Act in 1961 and its latest review - Law 5.592 in 1971.[1]

Capanema Reform was of longer duration than most (19 years). However, during this period it took the Directives and Bases Act sixteen years to go through Congress and to replace it later. This means that when three years old the Capanema Reform became out of date. The political situation at the time had a decisive influence on its replacement. The long period that elapsed during the elaboration of the Directives and Bases Reform which finally became law in 1961, coincided with the industrialisation of the country, which affected the project, increasing its range, without its becoming 'bogged down' in over-ambitious programmes. The Directives and Bases Act retained the Capanema structure, which in turn derived mostly from the Francisco Campos Reform. The 1961 Act had the merit, however, of softening the rigidity of the curriculum.

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[1] Senado Federal, Diretoria de Informação Legislativa, Diretrizes e Bases para o Ensino: 1o e 2o Graus, Brasília, 1971, Tomo 1, p.224.

Generally speaking, the structure of Brazilian schools until

1971 fell into the following three categories: primary, secondary

("ginasio" and "colegio")[1] and higher (university).[2]

Access to ginasio and university was by way of an examination

prepared by the institution concerned.

> The selective process within the Brazilian educational
> system and in society resulted in the loss of trained
> manpower for the nation, and in restricting the individual
> development of those students who did not remain at school.
> Instead of maintaining high standards this selective
> process caused a reduction in output rather than raising
> the standard of the work.
> [3]

Promotion from one year to another depended on passing in every

subject. Failing to pass in even one subject meant that pupils were

required to repeat all of them.

The reasons for an educational system into categories, varying in

number of years, in building accommodation and in names (infant-junior-

senior or primary-middle-secondary), are primarily certain differences

between one country to another. Psychological differences between

student groups are mentioned and emphasised sometimes but in fact, these

variations depend more on the ability of societies to offer an education

to their citizens. The number of categories tends to decrease or even

disappear where each school student progresses according to his own

capacities, as in an experiment undertaken by the University of New York.

Schooling in such a case is one and continuous; the pace of student progress

depends on his/her potential.[4]

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[1] Ginásio, with a four year course, and the colegio which follows with a
three year course, make up what is called secundário, while the other
middle level schools supplement the traditional secundário to make up
ensino médio. However, despite the proliferation of supplementary courses
the main stream of secondary schooling is still contributed by the ginasio
and colegio.

[2] See Diagram (4:3).

[3] Maria Ercilia Santos de Melo Freitas. Reading: unpublished essay, 1972, p.27.

[4] Aluísio Peixoto Boynard and others: A Reforma do Ensino, São Paulo: 1971,
pp.76-77.

in the 7 to 14 age group out of school and the low
productivity rates of the system indicate the
importance of a concentrated and continued effort
designed to increase school capacity and raise the
schooling rate.[1]

According to a study by the Special Commission of the Federal Education
Council on "Integration of Secondary Education into Higher Education"[2]
the Brazilian system of education puts a stranglehold on education as a
whole, even at a very elementary level. In 1964, for every 1000 children
enrolled at primary school, an average of 515 did not get a place; of
those admitted, only 92 completed the first year of "ginasio"; 30
completed secondary school, 15 reached higher education, but only
10 graduated,[3] as compared with 170 in the U.S.A., 98 in Great Britain
and 78 in U.S.S.R., at that particular time.

With regard to primary schools as a whole, it is relevant to mention
that although the majority of such schools (76.4 percent) are located
in the rural areas, in the urban areas students enrolments absorb 63
percent of the total school age pupils, because of the urban population
density. However, in the same urban areas, 45.9 percent of the teaching
staff possess the necessary qualifications as contrasted with only 9.9
percent in the rural areas,[4] a clear indication of the higher standard
of teaching there, as compared to the countryside.

As only 6 percent of primary schools are Private, the Municipalities
and States bear most of the burdens and responsibilities for primary
education with 59 percent and 34 percent of the total, respectively.[5]

With regard to "ensino medio", which are in any case inadequate in
number, the whole situation changes. These schools are located mostly in

[1] *1972/1974 Sector Plan for Education and Culture*, MEC, p.47.
[2] Indication in 48/67, *ibid.*, p.48.
[3] See diagram (4:5).   [4] Census of 1964.
[5] *Anuário Estatístico de 1973*.

the urban areas; 75 percent of the courses are wholly academic[1] and
48 percent of the schools are in private hands.[2]

The number of children attending school in the rural areas
represents 37.8 percent of the total, partly owing to a lack of schools,
but also due to economic conditions in those areas.[3] In many cases
financial hardship necessitates the children abandoning their studies
to take up some form of employment, and increase the family budget.
Another reason for low attendance levels is that schools often fail to
fulfil the needs and requirements of helping the pupils for a better
performance on the job, especially in rural areas.

The duration of school attendance in Latin America is on average
2.2 years[4] and in Brazil in the years 1955-1959 was not even of two
years' duration.[5]

Quality of Teachers: It is generally agreed among educationists that a
reliable way of judging the quality of education in schools in a particular
region, or on a national scale, is by taking into account the qualifications
of the teachers. Let us consider some data concerning the qualifications
of teachers in Brazil. In 1964, 51.5 percent of primary school teachers
did not have the minimum qualification,[6] although this percentage has
decreased to 34.3 percent.[7]

At secondary school level, the situation was much worse: 3/4 of the
teachers lacked the university training and required qualifications.[8]

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[1] Sinopse Estatística do Brasil, 1973.

[2] Anuário Estatístico de 1973, op.cit.

[3] Anuário, op.cit., p.760.

[4] "Educação e Desenvolvimento Economico Social", Cuba. . . y la conferencia de p.141.

[5] Carlos Pasquale: Salário Educação, Belo Horizonte: Centro Regional de Pesquisas Educacionais, 1965, p.10.

[6] Teacher qualification is obtained in normal schools which are institutions for teacher training at an equivalent level to the last three years of secondary school.

[7] See Table (4:5).   [8] See Table (4:6).

The admission of unqualified people into teaching has damaged the whole profession. As a whole, it is generally regarded as unattractive by young people with talent. It does not offer very high financial rewards, conditions of work, and so a teacher's status and prestige within society are lower than that of other professions requiring similarly qualified members. Classrooms are crowded, with an average of 40 pupils; textbooks and other teaching materials are not available for everyone. Schools are poorly provided with essential facilities such as water supplies, drainage and so on.

A traditional characteristic of teaching at primary school level is that it is generally carried out on a part time basis. As a common practice, the teaching job is supposed to occupy only half of the day, running from 3 to 5 hours daily. A combination of factors have provoked the present situation. Only recently have schools assumed a more autonomous role regarding the general education of the pupils. Due perhaps to Brazil's Latin origins, and the inherited tendencies towards the Roman concept of education, the main role of schools in the past has been purely the transmission of knowledge in the narrowest sense. Education in the general sense of the word has been left to other institutions, such as the family unit and the Church.

Later, when social pressures were brought to bear for the introduction of mass education, a system emerged whereby different groups of pupils were conducted for periods of three to five hours in length within the same building throughout the day. In some States, where co-education is not well accepted in schools, boys go in one period, whereas girls attend the same school in other periods. The intensive use of the building has resulted in a great deal of wear and tear of school premises, and deterioration of the facilities. Another obvious explanation of the widespread use of part-time teaching is that

the number of school buildings under construction has not kept pace with the number of school age children. Finally, the system of part-time teaching provides the added bonus for the Government of maintaining teachers' pay at a very low level, thereby serving the needs of a maximum number of children at minimum cost to the country.

Secondary state school teachers are paid on a part time basis too, and many such teachers have two or more jobs, working part-time at private schools in an executive capacity, often following an extremely heavy schedule, and delivering up to twelve lectures per day.

When one comes to examine the Brazilian system of education, as described above, one has to take into account the needs of both the individual citizen and society as a whole. Only perhaps, after examining the statistics and scrutinising the Brazilian Educational System's incapacities and shortcomings, in particular the misuse of resources, failure to tackle poverty and a general inability to plan rationally, might pressure from all directions be brought to bear in order to cause a change in the present situation.

Indeed, such a change is now imperative, in view of the prominent position that Brazil now holds, both economically and politically in Latin America. Because educational standards were not keeping pace with the rapid rate of economic growth, it became necessary to raise the population's educational expectations by increasing free compulsory education from five to eight school years.

Secondary schools have tended to be completely academic whereas technical schools have placed too much emphasis on technical training, failing to provide a balance between general and specialised education, and to equate individual aspirations with social needs of the region and of the country.

The Differentiation between Municipal and State Primary Schools: As

it stands today, there are two systems of public First Level of Education -

the State and the Municipal. Each one has its own bureaucracy. Besides

the allocation from their own respective budgets, the Municipalities

receive from the State a percentage of the income fund and a quota of

the Federal tax revenue. The State educational system operates on the

money allocated to the general State budget. An additional 50 percent

is obtained from contributions raised by industries and private enterprise

for the primary school fund. The Federal grant to each State is

allocated according to some equalisation criteria involving per capita

income, enrolment. There are other general grants from Federal sources

which can be channelled to education.

    Unfortunately not enough has been done to strengthen mutual

understanding and co-operation between the State and Municipal

administration, and often they compete rather than act in common.

    The State network of First Level of Education is usually spread

over the State often giving preferential treatment to the urban areas

of each Municipality. There has always been the tendency to give the

biggest piece of the cake to the capital cities, at the cost of more

rural Municipalities. In the State of Ceará for instance, the State

school system is larger than the Municipal network in the capital city.

However, in the next largest Municipality of the same State, state

schools represent only 18 percent of the Municipal system.

    The Municipal network attempts to reach areas where population

is scarce and very frequently the school units are much smaller.

Itapipoca Municipality being typically rural, follows very much this

pattern and 85 percent of its schools are under Municipal administration.[1]

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[1] An account of this situation is given further in Chapter 5.

The most common are the one-teacher schools - although they sometimes

exist side by side with the state schools in the urban areas.

Although the number of school units is bigger at the Municipal

level[1] the proportion of enrolment changes to 34 percent in the

Municipal schools, 57 percent in state schools and 8 percent in

private schools. This results from state schools being larger

because they are in towns.

Teachers of the Municipal systems usually are less well trained;

it is estimated that more than 2/3 of primary school teachers did not

have their Second Level of Education completed.

Municipal administration has been less capable of maintaining in

good condition their school buildings and equipment. This present

situation together with the lack of a systematic supervisory body to

guide and stimulate curriculum activities with teachers, is reflected

in the promotion rate and in the number of repeaters in the whole system.

In 1972 more than 20 percent of enrolled pupils were repeaters, compared

with 16 percent in the State schools. With regard to promotion, from

the 4.7 million pupils enrolled, only 62 percent could be promoted at

the end of the year; in the same period 8.1 million pupils from the

state schools, 74 percent obtained promotion.[2]

Besides these relative numbers which imply the inferiority of

Municipal schools, many inspectors in their past reports have given

negative opinions about the way the Municipal schools are administered.

Although not a recent one, the findings of the survey of the

Municipalities of Sao Paulo, undertaken by Dr Carlos Marcaro,[3] a

Brazilian authority in education, confirm that the situation is no

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[1] See page 85.   [2] F.B.G.E. Anuário Estatístico do Brasil,
[3]   1973.
 Carlos Correa Mascaro, "Município e Ensino no Estado de São Paulo" in
 Administração Escolar e Educação Comparada. Boletim 242, n.4, São
 Paulo, 1958.

better in the remainder of the Brazilian Municipalities. In his study

he analysed the allocation and use each Municipality made of its own

budget for education and excluding the Federal and State direct grants

from this analysis. These findings proved that too frequently, local

educational executives have been unable to present a rational development

plan for the educational sector. They lacked qualified personnel to

exercise the proper management of this sector as well as for the fields

of Municipal administration.

Mascaro also pointed out - and this is confirmed by the present

writer's experience - that teachers if they had the choice preferred not

to belong to the Municipal system because they felt it was run by

personal interests in many circumstances. At the local level, lack of

interest in primary schools grew with the increase of resources that

could be afforded for education and it was diverted to other activities

such as sports clubs, playgrounds etc. Municipalities with less

income tended to exceed even their quota imposed by the Federal government

and most of their budget was concentrated on the payment of teachers'

salaries of primary schools.

On the grounds of improving the effectiveness of public primary

education in Brazil as a whole, there has been some strong criticism of

Municipal administration of educational sectors. There has also been,

however, some Brazilian educationists who have taken the position of

defending the Municipal concept of administration. Professor Anisio

Teixeira[1] supported a unified planning for education, in which the

three levels of government would join their resources for a co-ordinated

and continuous programme of activity at the Municipal, State and Federal

levels for a more disciplined development of school activity. He

argued that if the planning, instead of centralising the executive force,

[1] Anísio S. Teixeira, "Padrões Brasileiros de Educação" (Escolar), Cultura in Mascaro, ibid., p.117.

chose the decentralising approach, many co-operative sources of energy would emerge from the States and Municipalities. His basic line of thought for ideal planning would be to delegate the function of administration of primary schools to the Municipalities and in certain cases secondary schools as well; to the State would fall the responsibility for training teachers, secondary schools and higher education. The Federal Government would have the complementary function of supplying technical and financial assistance and of balancing the totality of functions among the different administrations. All Municipal budgets would be directed to primary education and complemented by the State and the Federal Government in addition to their other obligations for teacher training, secondary and higher education.

Dr. Rafael Xavier[1] suggested another distribution in defending the same trend of Municipalisation. As a first step the Federal Government and States would be responsible for higher education; the States and Municipalities for vocational training, including teacher training and secondary schools; and finally, Municipalities would be completely responsible for primary and basic education including adult and pre-school education. For him, the ideal ultimate situation would be to provide Municipalities with resources and powers to cope with the administration of education at all levels within their areas.

In 1952, Professor Cardoso de Melo, ex-secretary of education in Sao Paulo, predicted the form of implementation of Municipal education in the following points:

1. Municipalisation of schools would be done on a ten year contract between State and Municipalities, subject to the approval of the state assembly and Municipal Chamber.

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[1] Rafael Xavier, "Contribuição para os Debates", in Mascaro, *ibid.*, p.118.

2. Before any agreement the State would make a survey of the Municipality involved in respect of its income, economic activities, demographic pattern as affecting existing schools, public and private, location, means of transport, local needs etc.

3. With such data and other information, and having consulted the local authorities, there would be worked out a non standardized agreement which would vary from case to case.

4. However some principles would be uniform, for example: minimum qualification for teachers, equality of salaries and subsidiary financial resources from the State, proportional to the municipalised schools.

5. It would require adaptability to the local planning conditions - reinforced and accelerated here, delayed there, according to the successful acceptance by the local public, management and professional groups.

6. Implementation would start from the capital city under the supervision of the State, from the centre to the periphery, from the wealthier Municipalities to the poorer and less populated.[1]

The way in which Municipalities have been managing their educational resources indicates the need for better co-operation between the Municipality and the State. The new law has allowed the school units and Municipalities some flexibility for decisions in curriculum planning, teaching methods and on material aspects of education - buildings and equipment - at primary and secondary school levels. However the lack of qualified personnel, information and awareness of their own needs, has

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[1] João de Deus Cardoso de Melo, "Municipalização do Ensino Primário", in Mascaro, ibid., pp.119-120.

discouraged Municipalities from taking more initiatives in decision

making processes related to those aspects. As a result, they tended

to copy state procedures which in their turn are biased by the capital

city influences and therefore need not be adopted. Conditions of

service appointment and teacher salaries which could be imitated to

their advantage are aspects in which they mostly differ because of

their political convenience.

To make the State solely responsible for the entire primary and

secondary system would be unrealistic. If we examine the areas which

the State educational system has been able to reach, we realise the

capital cities so far have been the ones to benefit the most, since its

political influence has attracted the best services in these large urban

centres and the effect has been an increased inequality in provision of

education between the metropolitan centres and the more rural

Municipalities.

The United States' example in favour of decentralisation in

education is always mentioned. Undoubtedly education in that country

started from the periphery to the centre and very much apart from civil

government. The examples of criteria other countries have followed are

useful for the understanding of all factors involved which one would

wish to know, but adoption of the U.S. pattern in itself alone would be

unlikely to produce the desired effects. The history of education in

Brazil has not followed the same pattern as the American one and

Municipal authorities have not given much proof of effectiveness.

Faith in education is still much to be desired among Brazilian

politicians although authorities in the last ten years have steadily

increased the budget for education.[1]

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[1] Veja, "Educação", São Paulo: Ed. Abril, 22 de setembro, 1976, p.64.

For many reasons, traditional and political, it seems that
neither Federalisation nor complete Municipalisation of education is
likely to work in Brazil just now, Federal authorities are too far
away to influence effectively action in local Municipalities. On
the other hand, Municipal authority is too near and for this reason too
involved in the gift of relationship situation as defined on pages 41 and 42
and with much exception, not mature enough to organise and administer
their education system objectively.

Decentralised administration has not been an insistent issue for
Municipalities as a whole. Probably, because in the majority they
do not have sufficient resources to cope successfully with the
educational burden or because they prefer the burden to continue as
it has in the past, the main responsibility of the State.

It seems today as yesterday, that Municipalities more than the
States have been in need of technical assistance and support from
Federal and States to carry on their own service of public interest
in a more satisfactory way.

The interest in educational causes among Brazilian citizens must
be stimulated and guided, in the sense of strengthening participation
of the people in public administration in starting with the nearest
echelon - the Municipal administration, particularly now that direct
grant from Federal and State sources has been contributing an increase
in the investment capacity of Municipalities. While in the 1950s less
than 10 percent of the Municipal Governments' revenue was due to Federal
and State Government transfers, in 1970 such financial transfers amounted
to 73.47 percent of the total Municipal revenue for that year. In
addition, it must be mentioned that these figures do not include State
and Federal Government investments which cover most infrastructure works
related to roads and school building which they also finance.

Professor Carlos Mascaro, already mentioned, after having concluded his survey, foresaw the Municipalisation as the next stage for national primary education. By this he implies the delegating of more power of decision to the Municipality for the administration of its educational system. However, he says in order to produce the desired fruits, its implementation must use procedures and methods adaptable to our tradition with some degree of decentralisation except in cases where technically and economically it is not advisable in order to keep a cultural and technical unity of an acceptable standard. Before any transfer of responsibility of educational administration, it must be sure of Municipal authority awareness and ability to allow a rational implementation of the national educational planning.

Enough wisdom of the State will be required to decide how and when to delegate its executive authority to the Municipality. In such situations Municipal authority could destroy much of the disciplinary task of the State.

A system to operate through agreement between Federal Government and States and these two with Municipalities could represent the best solution towards the progressive increase of responsibility at the Municipal administration level. And, finally Dr. Mascaro suggested that the Municipalisation of primary school and basic education might become an effective and practical means for promoting national development if it is integrated with the social, economic and civic life of the whole nation.

1971 Education Act

The 1971 National Law emerged in order to remedy the defects of the previous ones. It retained the same educational aims, as described in 1961 Law and defined as the promotion of:

(1) an understanding of the rights and responsibilities of the
individual, the citizen, the State, the family and the
group which goes to make up the community;

(2) respect for man's dignity and fundamental freedoms;

(3) the strengthening of national unity and international brotherhood;

(4) full development of every individual's personality and the
capacity for public service;

(5) the use of science and technology by the individual and
society as the means of realising their potential and overcoming
the difficulties of the environment;

(6) the preservation and development of cultural heritage;

(7) the condemnation of any discrimination based on philosophical
or religious grounds, and of any prejudice in regard to
class or race.

These aims were however, too general, and were more an expression
of the values which the nation ought to look for than a specific goal
of the educational system. Hence, a more precise definition of objectives
to be carried out by the educational institutions was so far missing.
At this point, the 1971 Act satisfied these needs, making them more
explicit in three main respects:

(1) Development of the individual's potential for self realisation;

(2) qualifications for employment and

(3) preparation for citizenship.

The new Act was based on four principles:

(1) Decentralisation, in which each State's system maintains its
own character, regarding national unity as a goal rather than
a starting point, and diversity within national unity.

(2) Vertical and horizontal integration. Vertical integration of
school levels; as a first measure there would be integration

of primary and "ginasio" without the barrier of entrance exams.
There would be a horizontal integration of educational
institutions and of the specialisation within such
institutions. The solution given by the law for the
increased demand of differentiated new professional jobs is
that of creating a number of integrated subjects, incorporated
within a course of general study, in accordance with the
needs of a particular region.[1]

The concept of horizontal integration also suggests the
possibility of grouping small school units around larger ones
to the benefit of both. One example of this concept are the
inter-school centres, as a recommendation. Considerable
advantages in learning effectiveness might be gained by
experimenting with this model.[2]

(3) <u>Concentration of means</u> rather than duplication of resources, in
a word, rationalisation. The aim here is to concentrate for
co-ordinate essential means, in order to reach the desired goals.

(4) <u>Continuing and terminal</u>. So far, Brazilian schools have
failed to provide continued and terminal education, in other
words, to produce satisfactory end results; the reason is
that the two have been kept entirely separate. Continuing
education is more than a mere exercise of examinations and
the end results of terminal education must be a gain in more
than the acquisition of specific skills.[3]

Within the broad structural Plan of the National Educational system,
there exists a <u>general</u> termination, tending to coincide with the
psychological age or development of the individual, combined with the

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[1] See Diagram (4:6).

[2] Certain areas of study such as music or modern languages or sciences, art
and craft each centralising its activities in a building, working as a
centre, serving different schools.

[3] See diagram (4:6) <u>ibid</u>.

capacity to work. There is also the real termination of schooling which can be reached in a more specific way, depending purely on the capacity of the individual, or the educational course available under a particular system or region.

Ideally, terminal education would not be gained until the student had completed some form of further education, but where only three or four years schooling are possible, suitable arrangements for the end products (students who attended for these school years) must be devised for this short period. Therefore, if a student is forced to cut short his course before completing it, because of limitations in ability, or tendencies or pressures within his community, some form of training should be available to him, which will equip him for life and render him a useful citizen and member of the community.

The major characteristics of the present Brazilian Education System are as follows. Free, compulsory education for children from seven to fourteen years of age, lasting eight academic years, with a minimum of 720 hours instruction per year. This will be a combination of primary and "ginasio" school courses, existing under the previous structure. At this stage, emphasis is given to education in an all-round general sense, entirely so, in the first few years. Part of the curriculum is designed to explore specific abilities of the individual children.

Second Level of Education, the former second cycle of Secondary School, is a continuation of the First Level of Education (the former primary and ginasio), and the two are supposed to be integrated through the common studies part of the curriculum. During the Second Level of Education, that part of the curriculum leading towards semi-professionalisation is intensified and in specific cases, general studies are carried out in greater depth. Second Level of Education will not necessarily be free in all State schools.

Unfortunately, eight years of compulsory schooling for all is still a goal to be reached, an aspiration which the Law may aim for, but cannot put into effect until the general conditions of the municipalities and States permit.

Second Level of Education consists of a regular period of three or four years of study, comprising a minimum of 2,200 or 2,900 hours of school activities, respectively. These schools envisage that students could enrol to study a subject of their own choice. In order to reach the fast and slow students the 1971 Act established a minimum of two years and a maximum of five years to complete the course. There is a possibility of a subject studied during the fourth year of the Second Level of Education being valid for a higher education course in the same area. This arrangement does not exclude the "vestibular" (entrance examination) but is an important element in the integration of the Second Level of Education with Higher Education.

The 1971 Act provides in the organisation of the curriculum for all education levels (first and second) a compulsory common core, comprising subjects that have been determined by the Federal Council for Education. The common core has the following fields of learning:

(a) Communication and Expression;

(b) Social Studies and Sciences;

(c) Formation, including Physical Education, Artistic Education, Moral Education and Civics, Health Programme and Religion which is optional for the students, but compulsory in the curriculum of official schools without any charge upon the public funds. During the first four years of First Level of Education, the teacher in charge of all subjects in his/her classroom is also in charge of religious instruction. Since 91.8 percent of the population is Roman Catholic by tradition, religious conflict is practically non-existent.

The diversified part of the curriculum leading to professional

qualifications, has been set by the State Council for Education,

according to regional characteristics and needs.[1]

Teachers and Specialists According to the 1971 Act: It is now

recognised that a specific vocational and professional ability is

necessary in order to teach well. The aptitude to stand up well under

testing conditions is essential as is the ability to put into practice

those special techniques acquired during training, for the transmission

of the most up-to-date knowledge. Teaching is a professional activity

and must be carried out according to the highest possible standards in

order to produce good results and be rewarding. Just as a doctor is

selected on the basis of his performance in his own particular field,

so the professional teacher should be chosen for the quality and

standard of his teaching.

The number of qualified teachers is now very reduced (1/4 at

Secondary School level and 2/3 at Primary School level)[2] owing to ever

increasing demands, particularly in technological fields. Teacher

training courses are few in number and institutions of higher education

for the training of educational specialists, counsellors, administrators,

inspectors, planners, supervisors, etc. are in short supply, and fail to

cope with the demands placed upon them.

According to the predictions of some planners, Brazil will require a

total of 200,000 Second Level of Education teachers by 1980. Such

estimates do not take into account the needs of those teachers who are

already qualified and teaching and wish to take part in refresher and

other special courses. What types of teachers, and what types of

specialists are required ?

[1] The 1971 Act is shown fully translated in Appendix B.

[2] See Tables (4:5) and (4:6).

Article 118 of the 1961 Act predicted an emergency solution to the problem of the lack of teachers in technical areas. However, new techniques have evolved so fast that the rate at which the required skilled teaching personnel becomes available tends to be too slow to cope with the requirements in all the technological fields.[1]

The law passed in 1971 suggests several stages for the preparation of teachers in a short, medium and long run.[2] A scale of qualifications was laid down, gradually progressing, so as to take into account the cultural differences of the various regions, the characteristics of each subject, area of study or activity, and the different stages of the learners.[3] Three schemes were set up: a long term and two transitional ones, to be substituted gradually until the long term pattern was reached.

As far as the administrators, planners, counsellors, inspectors, supervisors and other specialists are concerned, training will be undertaken by universities, in short cycles, complete or in postgraduate courses.[4]

The following two articles of the 5.692 law deserve special note. Article 36 establishes teaching as a career and provides a series of gradual promotion. It is hoped that this solution will raise standards and that the teaching profession at First and Second Level of Education will be given greater incentive.

Article 37 gives advice on the pay of teachers and specialists at these levels, based on the qualifications of the teacher and his/her specific training, regardless of the levels taught. Such reforms aim to give greater incentive to teachers and specialists in order to raise

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[1] Aluísio Peixoto Boynard, op.cit. p.157.

[2] Law No. 5692 Article 30. See Appendix B.

[3] Ibid., article 29.

[4] Ibid., article 33.

their qualification standards, and to improve on a permanent basis many

of the aspects of education in Brazil. These reforms might ensure that

teacher training becomes a true investment for the country. At the same

time, it is hoped that they will help to dispel the false idea that

greater skill is required to teach older and more advanced pupils than

younger pupils at first level schools.

Working Regime: Regulations and conditions appertaining to teachers and

specialists under the new legislation vary according to the particular

administration under which he/she is employed.

When working in a private institution the teacher must conform to

labour laws. In addition those who are employed by the government must

follow Civil Service regulations. Nevertheless the law states that no

distinction may be made in the didactic and technical field between

those teachers following the labour regulations and those bound by

Civil Service regulations.

In order to obtain a post on the staff of a public school teachers

and specialists must be selected on the basis of their results, in

special competitive examinations, and consideration is also given to their

actual qualifications. This method of selection has largely eliminated

the possibility of corruption, in a region where jobs are scarce.

The competitive examination serves usefully in bringing pressure

on teachers to up-date their academic and professional knowledge. Without

such an incentive their daily work leads them to fall behind in such

knowledge.

The 1971 Education Act provides the opportunity for more flexibility

and adaptation of curricula according to local and regional circumstances;

however, to put this principle into practice, a local infrastructure

is required for the planning and controlling of the educational sector

within the area. It is becoming unacceptable that different regimes

with different periods of vacations, discrimination of assistance

from the supervisors, of supply of material and other facilities, might

exist between Municipal and State schools only because they happen to

belong to different government bodies.

Finance: By 1966, more than half the Federal revenue was channelled into

specific bodies or organisations, for special expenditure, but this caused

the public allocation of funds to be very rigid and restricted the extent

to which public expenditure could be related to current economic need.[1]

This situation finally led to the adoption of a new article in the 1967

Constitution: "No specific taxation will be earmarked for any specific

organisation or fund or for any specific expenditure".[2] "Public

expenditure will follow an annual budget law providing for allocation

of expenditure and estimate of revenues".[3] As a result, and as previously

explained on p.71, 12 percent of the Federal revenue which was made

available for education under the 1961 Education Act (Directives and

Bases for National Education) ceased to be received by the States from

the time of the 1967 Federal Constitution onwards, and as a result of the

1971 Act, the States were no longer compelled to devote to education a

formerly compulsory quota of 20 percent of the State budget. However,

although not of great economic significance, the 20 percent quota of the

Municipal Budget was retained. By 1971 the quota system for the various

administrative tiers, with the exception of the municipalities, was

eliminated altogether. Instead, the Federal Government has followed the

National Plan for Economic and Social Development, with a multi-year

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[1] A Constituição do Brasil ao Alcance de Todos, p.358.

[2] Federal Constitution of 1967. Article 65, para 3.

[3] Ibid., art. 63.
These three above citations are quoted by Adroaldo Mesquita da Costa in
Guido Ivan de Cervalho, Ensino Superior, Legislação e Jurisprudência.
2nd Edition M.E.C. Rio: 1959, p.412.

Investment Budget. Each three year period, within the established

general guidelines, the Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible

for the preparation of the Sector Plan for Education and Culture, as

well as for the corresponding multi-year investment budget.

The Sector Plan gives operational effect to the Law in the areas

of formal education, the sciences and technology, permanent education,

cultural and administrative activities. It has as financial support the

National Fund for the Development of Education. With the support of such

a funding mechanism, selected high priority projects can be implemented

and carried out successfully.

Since 1969, Union assistance for the States in First and Second

Level of Education has been conditioned to a counterpart of equal amount

from the respective governments.[1] This means the Union cannot transfer

to any State an amount greater than that which the State itself

allocated to education at these levels. Further, in order to receive

federal assistance, Municipal projects must comply with the State Plan

of Education, and be approved by the State Council for Education.[2] This

procedure has been effective in the sense that the lower income States

are prevented from receiving a larger amount than they would be capable

of spending without e.g., too rapid expansion of the building industry.

It is envisaged that the Central Government will gradually correct the

regional socio-economic differences, taking into consideration in its

budget for educational systems, conditions such as: income per capita,

school population, the existence of norms and regulations for teachers'

salaries, an increase in qualitative and quantitative standards, plus

good use of the educational budget of the State, during the previous

two years.

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[1] Decree 63.340, 1st October 1968. Article 1st, in Guido Ivan de Carvalho, ibid., p.108.

[2] Dec. 63.340. Article 1st Para unique.

To sum up, the sources of public revenue for educational programmes at all levels are thus following:[1]

a) Ordinary resources (including decentralised administration) from the National, States, Federal District and Municipality treasuries. These resources are levied but not with any specific programme in view, and the financial year is geared to coincide exactly with the calendar year.

b) Earmarked Funds. Because Brazil is now enjoying an era of rapid economic growth, it is possible for legislators to reconcile old and new principles for public finance and allow for more flexibility. The National Constitution has abolished earmarked funds, except for a few isolated cases. Education has been one Sector to have received exceptional treatment in three main ways:

1. Under provisions governing the Salario Educacao (Education salary) as laid down in 4.440 Act of 27th October 1964, all enterprises and other public and private entities are required to contribute to Social Welfare fund, pay a certain percentage towards the public[2] system of education for First Level of Education. This amount is divided into two equal parts, one being administered by the State and Federal District and the other going to the Union to be redistributed, taking into consideration the equalisation principles.

2. The Special Federal Lottery Fund under the law governing its administration (5.528 Act of 1968) retains 20 percent of the total amount collected for education.

3. Similarly, 30 percent of revenue from the Federal Sport Lottery is made available to education as the Decree Law 594 of 1969 stipulates.

c) Other resources:

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[1]Report, Ministério de Educação & Cultura. November 1972.

[2]The public system of education is maintained by public money; it can refer to the Federal, State or Municipal system of education.

1. Revenues collected directly by the decentralised administrative

    entities fees.

2. From credit operations, internal or external.

3. From agreements, with public and private entities.

The Federal Decree No. 66.254 of 24th February 1970, in its 7th article imposes on all the States, Federal District, territories and Municipalities, the obligation to devote at least 20 percent of their quota from the Participation Fund[1] to Education, at First and Second Level of Education.

With all the above mentioned resources available, in the period 1971[2] for example, 27 percent of expenditure in the Education Sector was derived from Federal Government, 62 percent from the State and 11 percent from the Municipalities, in total representing 4 percent of GNP[3] in 1974.

Conclusion

The 1972-74 Sector Plan for Education and Culture indicates that, as compared with developing countries generally, Brazil has quite an advanced macro-planning system. States and Municipalities in their turn, are trying to follow the pattern, at least on paper, because of course it is only when in fact as well as in theory the implementation is carried out that the situation really changes. There are all sorts of administrative problems involved. However, the enthusiasm generated as a result of the economic strides that the nation has been making, has brought pressure to bear in Educational Sectors at all levels. The starting point was the University Reform Act in 1968, followed by the Reform of the Educational System for the First and Second Levels of Education, through the 1971 Act.

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[1] The Participation Fund was established from the general tax, which was levied by the Union, to be distributed to the Federal Units, according to the principles established in the Constitution. The Federal Decree 66259 of 25th February 1970 determined the conditions for its use in education.

[2] Report M.E.C. November 1972, ibid.

[3] "The Brazilian Gazette", Special Supplement, London, March 1973.

One might wonder whether these reforms have been the result of political situation or not. Indirectly, the 1964 Political Revolution accelerated the process but it has been a direct consequence of the accelerated economic and social development which has taken place, resulting in an increase in manpower demand and the need for more educational opportunities for all.

Planning and administrative infrastructure at the top has matured and solidified. The need has now emerged for this enormous country to start moving towards a more detailed approach affecting all the ramifications of its micro-administration, and renewing once and for all its vital cell - the Municipalities.

In the field of Education, the establishment of State Councils for Education in all the States since the 1961 Education Act was the starting point, if a rather slow one, for the delegation of authority and responsibility from the Union to the State in educational matters, for First and Second Level of Education.

Through the 1971 Education Act, more authority was given to State Councils for Education to decide upon their own policies and for the administration of their own, and transferred resources. It was the same 1971 Education Act, in its transitional Article 11 which opened a new avenue towards decentralisation stating that "the State Council for Education might delegate part of its responsibilities and authority to Councils for Education organised by Municipalities, where there are conditions for such."[1]

A formal and/or informal means must be developed to join people and administration at the Municipal level, in the sense that local solutions must be found for local needs as regards quantity and quality of services

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[1] Law 5.692 of 11th August 1971 Article 71, fully translated in Appendix B.

provided.

How to involve the community in improving its public services,
which strategies to adopt and by what means, will be the subjects of
the following chapters. However, first it will be necessary to draw a
picture of the educational conditions in the Municipality of Itapipoca,
the area chosen for the purpose of this study.

DIAGRAM(4:1)

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
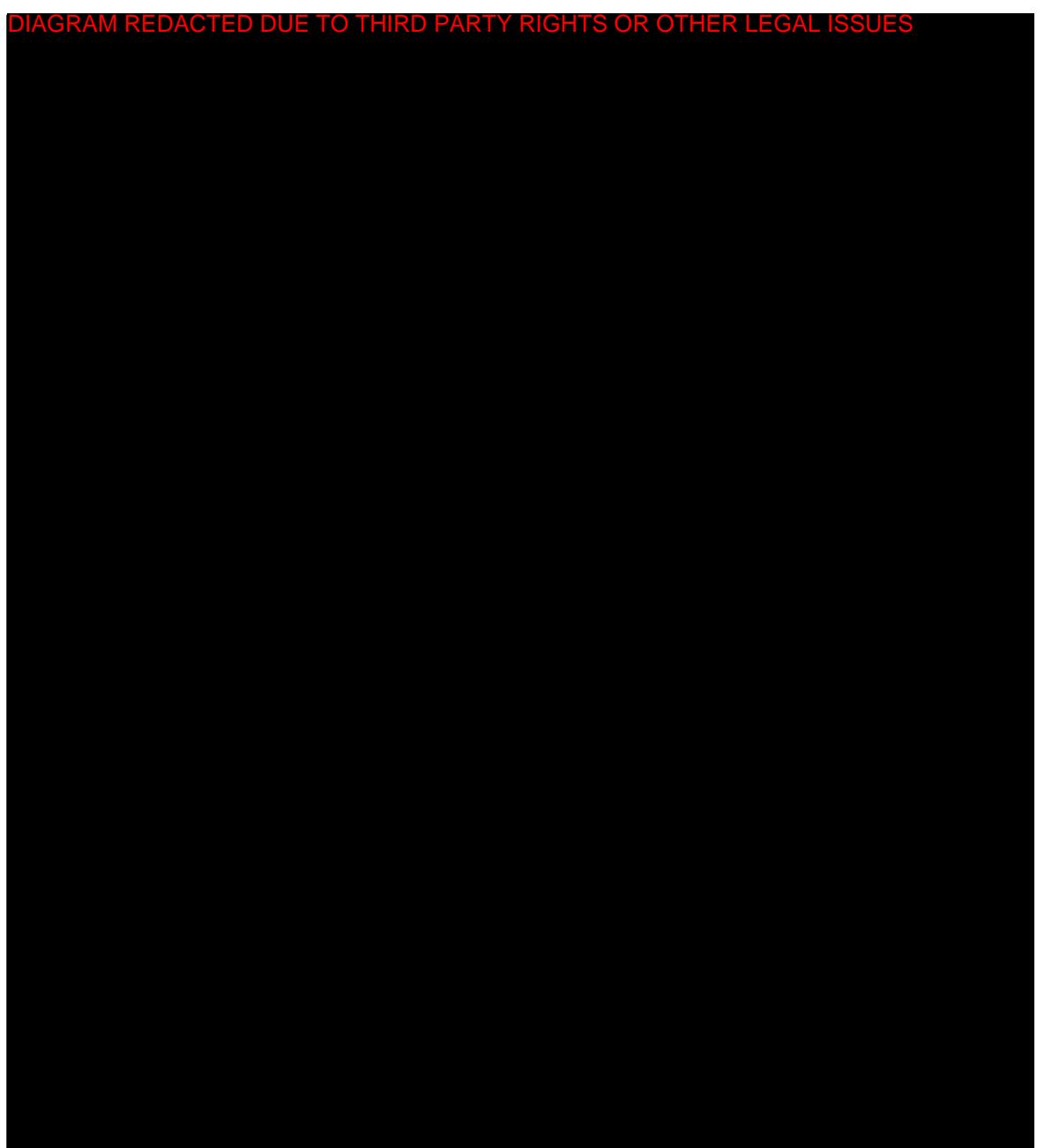
Source: M.E.C. Comission for International Affairs, Education in Brazil,
Brasilia, 1971, p.15.

DIAGRAM(4:2)

STATE OF CEARA

SECRETARIAT OF EDUCATION 1970

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: SE.CE.DIAGNOSTICO DA REALIDADE EDUCACIONAL, 1971,p.30.
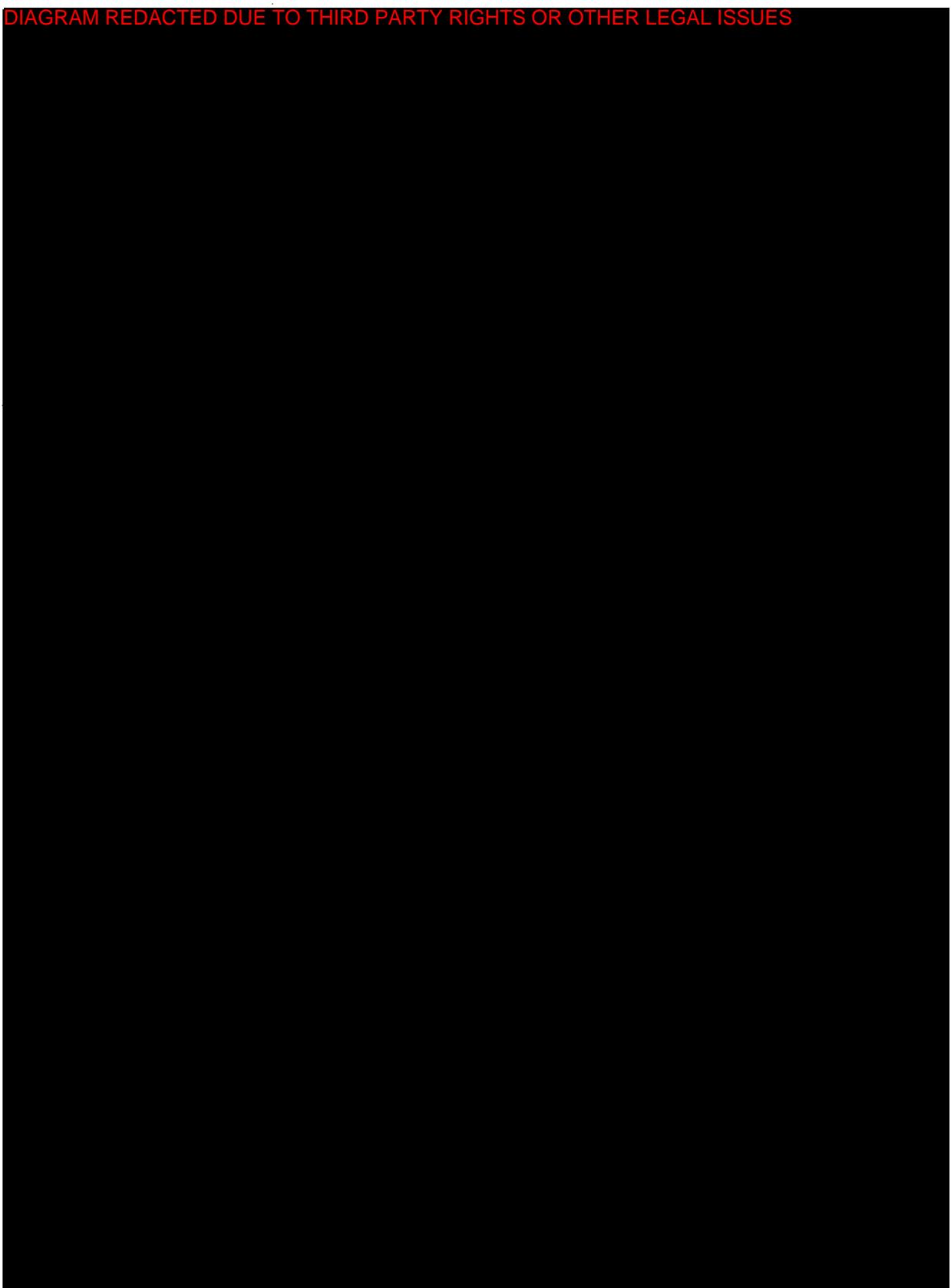
DIAGRAM(4:4)

BRAZIL : CONSEQUENCES OF THE 1961 EDUCATION LAW

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
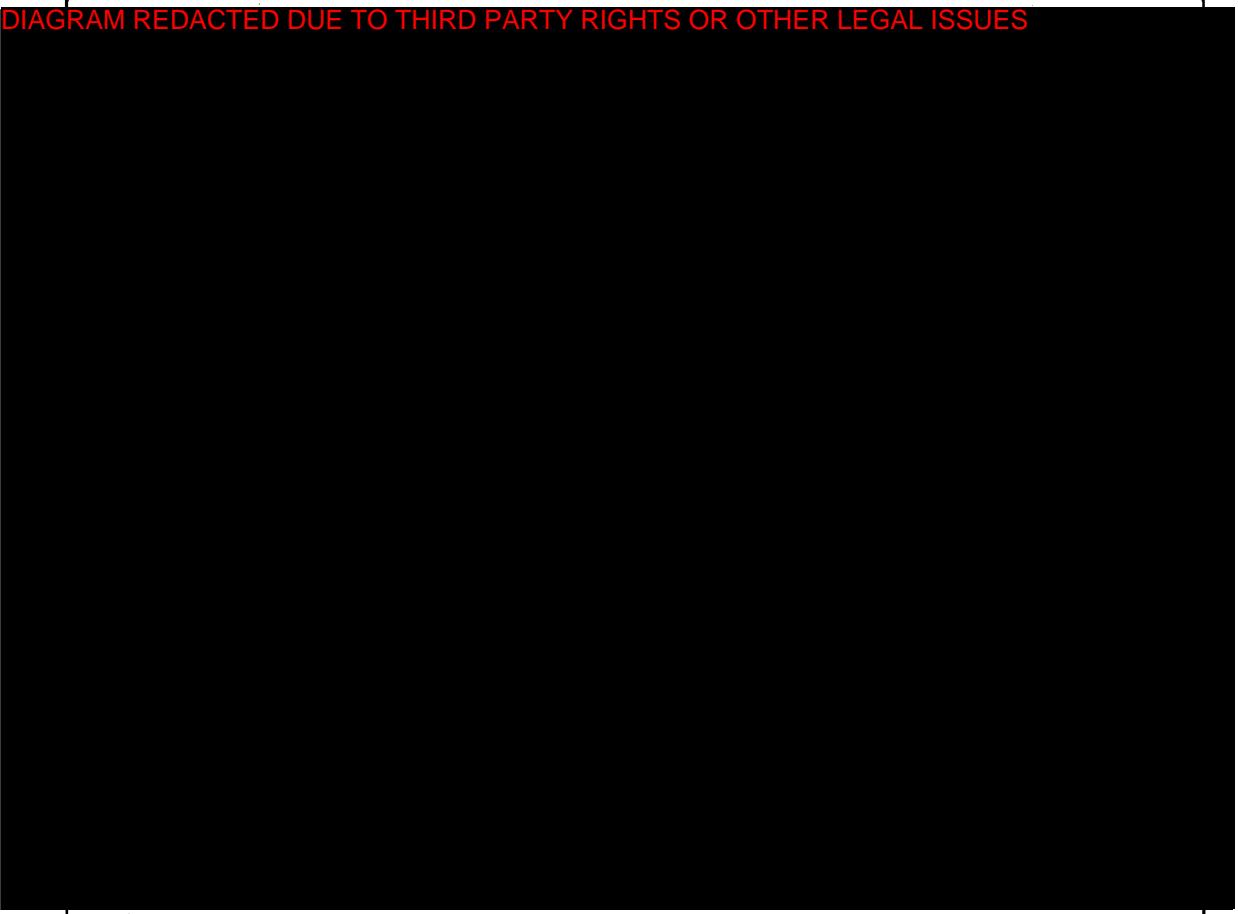
Source:BOYNARD, ALUIZIO PEIXOTO et al, A Reforma do Ensino, São Paulo LISA, 1971, p. 28.

DIAGRAM(4:5)

PROGRESS OF PUPILS THROUGH THE BRAZILIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM 1964

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source : BOYNARD, ALUIZIO PEIXOTO, op.cit. p.318.
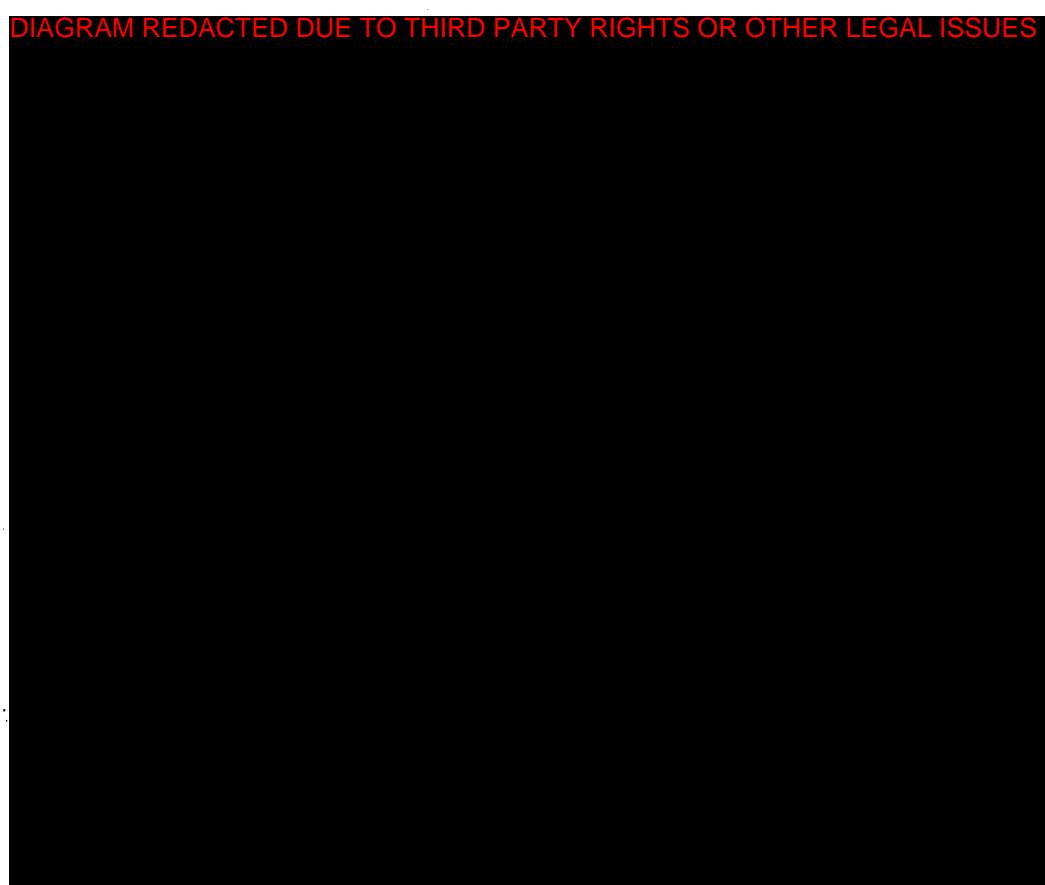
TABLE (4:1)

GROWTH OF STATE AND MUNICIPAL PRIMARY SCHOOL UNITS (BRAZIL)

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

TABLE (4:2)

ALLOCATION OF FEDERAL FUNDS TO EDUCATION, BY LEVELS

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: Sintese – table XXX and MEC, in Helio Pontes, p.94.

TABLE (4:3)

ALLOCATION OF NATIONAL FUNDS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION BY STATES

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: Educational National Plan, 1962, p.46.

TABLE (4:4)

GROWTH OF ENROLMENTS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: M.E.C.

TABLE (4:5)

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHING PERSONNEL AT PRIMARY
SCHOOL LEVEL - BRAZIL 1968

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
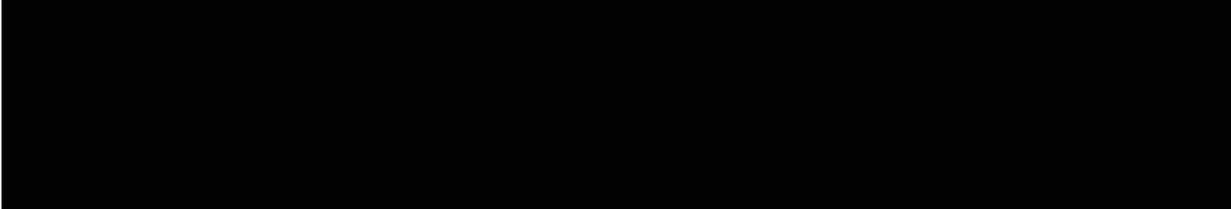
Source: SEEC

TABLE (4:6)

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHING PERSONNEL AT SECONDARY
(GINASIO) LEVEL - BRAZIL 1968

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
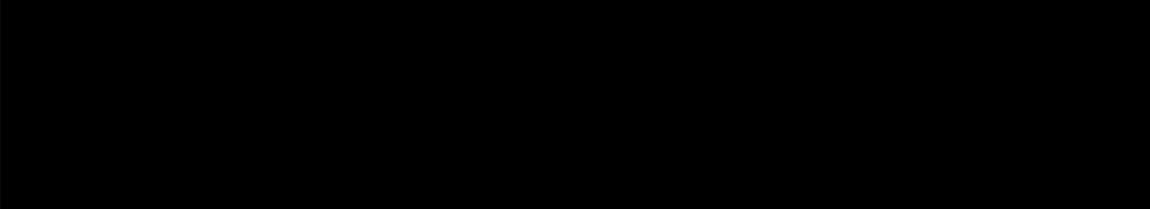
Source: SEEC

CHAPTER 5

EDUCATION IN ITAPIPOCA[1]

The economy is based on agriculture and cattle raising and people therefore live mostly in the rural areas of the eleven districts.[2] Overall 84 percent of the population is located in rural or remote areas. While in the district of Cruxati for example as much as 98.5 percent of population lived in remote areas, in the district of Itapipoca (Municipality headquarters) this proportion was 68.9 percent.[3] This fact has a profound importance as regards the provision of schools and in the absence of a map showing the location of schools and the distances between them, one can only speculate on the consistency of criteria for school distribution. The School Census of 1964 demonstrated that of the school children between 7 and 14 years of age in Itapipoca, 84.7 percent were living in remote areas and school places could only be provided for 39.9 percent of the children in the area. Conditions were better in the urban areas where 54.8 percent of the children in school age were attending school.[4]

In order to provide a minimum of education for the school-age population, where 41.8 percent[5] (including rural and urban) is still out of school, the education systems - State, Municipal and Private - should look for conditions to increase their capacities to be able to accelerate their pace of growth.[6] In 1970, only two of the eleven districts of Itapipoca had school units with more than one teacher in each.[7]

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[1] When not otherwise specified, Itapipoca stands for the Municipality of Itapipoca.

[2] See Chapter 3.   [3] See Table (3:1) op.cit.

[4] Statistical Agency of Itapipoca 1970, Quadro 2 in Plano Municipal de Educação 1970/1972, Itapipoca, Quadro 5, p.4.

[5] See Table (5:1).   [6] See Table (5:2).

[7] Anuário de Educação do Ceará 1970 SEC.

Although some single teacher schools (escolas isoladas) exist where

population is too small to permit of larger schools, there are also

some localities in which schools are very close together, each one with

35 to 40 children and of different ages and levels of abilities.

Teachers in this sort of school instruct the children for two or three

years, teaching them everything they know. If the student has a

relative in the town he may move there and continue his studies, otherwise,

he leaves school for good. Sometimes the authority decides to form a

consolidated school (escolas reunidas) joining two to four of these

single teacher schools. One of the teachers is chosen to supervise the

school but she continues teaching and without any increase in salary.

The decision to group several single teacher schools into one usually

improves the quality of education provided since pupils can be grouped.

This new arrangement however does not always please the teachers, as

in the former situation they have been accustomed to feeling more

independent, free and comfortable, running the school in their own house

most of the time. Very seldom will they receive any kind of supervision.

Of the existing 206 schools[1] 196 were single teacher schools, of which 178

were located in remote areas.

The third type of school for the initial first level pupils is the

"Grupo Escolar". Usually such schools have five or more teachers operating

a morning and an afternoon shift with a change of teacher force and pupil

force and boys only attend in the mornings and girls in the afternoons or

vice versa as co-education is avoided. Children go to school for three or

four hours daily. There is a headmistress for the school and at least one

deputy head. They usually do not have classroom duties but are responsible

for supervising the whole establishment.

Up to the present, headmistresses in Itapipoca and in the majority of

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[1] Anuário de Educação do Ceará, ibid.

Municipalities in Ceará State do not have much freedom to decide and act for themselves. The reason is that they are not sufficiently trained or competent enough to choose by themselves what is best for the school. Each administrative system has, for the purpose of co-ordinating activities, a small group of teaching specialists who make the bulk of the decisions required in respect of a number of schools which the heads may subsequently put into effect. Of course some supervision is necessary, but the lack of initiative is also a result of the submissive attitude generated by the centralised concept of running schools. At the same time the school units expect everything from above whereas the administrative set up is in fact incapable of providing assistance and follow-up for every individual school.

According to the Law, the post of headmaster or headmistress should be occupied by those who have undergone a specialised course in educational administration. In practice however, this has not been fully followed in regions other than the capital of the State.

School units receive financial support technical and administrative instructions from different sources, depending on which administrative system they belong to. At the present time, 8 percent of the schools in Itapipoca belong to the State, 85 percent to the Municipality, 1 percent to Federal Government and 6 percent to private initiative.[1] The number of qualified teachers is minimal. Usually they live in the urban area of the Municipality where they enjoy better facilities. Most of them in the urban area of the Municipality are employed by the State, which offers a higher salary than do the Municipalities and private schools. Of the total 184 primary teachers in 1964, 77.7 percent had only primary education and those located in remote areas - 64.1 percent, received the minimum training, without any supervision.[2]

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[1] See Table (5:3).   [2] See Table (5:4).

52.2 percent of teachers[1] were supported by the Municipality.[2]

According to an undertaking in 1968,[3] 88.8 percent of the former so-called Municipal primary school teachers in Itapipoca had only five years education, 10.2 percent had eight to nine years and only 1 percent had 11 or 12 years education, of which the last three years comprised professional training.[4] Of the 108 teachers questioned, 107 were teaching children of two, three or four different levels of ability. The problem of unqualified teachers in the region is indeed crucial. Local authorities are faced with the alternatives of seeking to meet the population's needs with education of low standard or none at all. They usually choose the first alternative, hoping to find later a better solution to raise the standard through in-service training for teachers, raising salaries, supplying supervision and new and well equipped buildings. Although sometimes sporadic action takes place it is more often postponed and many generations of school children have left the system, frustrated by not having received during their schooling adequate knowledge and guidance for their adult lives; quality of life remains the same or deteriorates from generation to generation.

Teachers employed by the State Government, with more years of schooling behind them, professionally trained and earning higher salaries, are expected to show better results through their students. If they belong to a grupo escolar they receive more support from their headmistresses, and therefore more stimulus to work. This situation occurs even with unqualified teachers. However, if the normalista (qualified teacher) is sent to a remote area, her work little by little will deteriorate

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[1] Statistical data collected from the Municipality office in 1969 presented the number of 297 existing teachers; the "Anuário de Educaçao" indicates for the same year the number of 269. The former number has been retained because it presents a specified table, useful for our analysis here.

[2] See Table (5:5).   [3] See Table (5:6).

[4] Questionnaire undertaken by Ancar-Ceará and distributed to 108 Municipal teachers, 1968.

probably because of the lack of the above mentioned conditions.

Provision of supervision has brought good results; supervisory visits though, are continuously interrupted because of insufficient personnel and financial resources to cope with travel expenses. A co-ordinated effort by the State and Municipality together, would make supervisory services much more effective.

Differences in educational and living standards can be observed between Fortaleza (capital city of Ceará State) and Itapipoca district (headquarters of Itapipoca Municipality). One can also notice the differences between the latter and other districts of the same Municipality. Itapipoca district is quite well supplied with schools, not only for the initial years of schooling but with secondary schools and "colegio", providing initial training for primary teachers and personnel preparing for posts in commerce. Out of a population of 4,740 in 1970, only 370 children were not attending school. The number of teachers in Itapipoca district was three times as high as that of Amontada district, the best served by schools.[1]

In contrast, Assunçao district, which in 1970 had 15 teachers, will need more than 41 and an additional 18 new classrooms to the existing 15, in 1974.

The provision of maintenance for school buildings is equally lacking at State and Municipal level. To administer any service from Fortaleza in Itapipoca it is very costly because of the distance; but on the other hand there are cost-factors operating against any transfer of responsibility, local or administrative:- First, the complex and expensive bureaucracy, second, attachment to power at State level and third, risk of corruption at the Municipal level. Private firms are not interested in entering into contracts with the government for building maintenance, since it is not

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[1] See Table (5:7).

profitable for them to do so. In Itapipoca in 1970, there were only

18 public[1] school buildings, 13 of which belonged to the State Government

and 5 to the Municipality.[2] All the other schools were located in private

houses, generally those of the teachers. Although from one point of view

it may seem convenient for the women teachers to take care of their

domestic affairs while teaching, from another point of view, this

situation allows teaching to be provided in a very unprofessional way,

and the children are the ones who suffer as a result of the divided

attention of the teacher. State and Municipal schools are free. However,

children are pressed to contribute a small amount for school funds,

monthly. This money is used by the headmistress partly to provide for

needy children and partly to buy snacks to add to the milk served

during the children's break.

A new public Municipal library has been opened in the district of

Itapipoca which has been of great help to pupils and teachers; the

Secretary of Education (chief officer) has his office in the same building.

The new building is located in the centre of the town; it is modest in

style and adapted to the climate and to the type of work. It was designed

as the educational headquarters of the entire Municipality.

Medical care for pupils is provided thanks to special agreements

with FSESP[3] and with the Federal University of Ceará, through CRUTAC[4]

and ANCAR.[5]

Itapipoca Municipality has agreements with MOBRAL[6] and "Ginasio

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[1] Public, meaning built with public revenues.   [2] See Table (5:8).

[3] FSESP - Federal foundation provides for the population's medical and
odontological care.

[4] CRUTAC - University Centre for Rural Training and Community Development.
There are parallel agreements among these organisations for joint co-
operation.

[5] ANCAR - Northeast Association for Credit and Rural Assistance.

[6] MOBRAL - Brazilian Movement against Illiteracy. Federal foundation which
operates through a system of devolution at a local level. Each course
lasts for five months. There has been much enthusiasm for this programme;
since its initiation the percentage of illiterate people has fallen
rapidly to such an extent that by the end of the decade this national
problem will be practically solved.

Madureza"[1] in order to prepare adults to re-enter the educational system
or to provide them with certificates. Usually the districts deriving
most benefit from these programmes are those which are more densely
populated where one can more easily find interested candidates and be
provided with suitable facilities, monitors and/or teachers.

Private associations have played an important role, contributing
much to the educational sector of Itapipoca's Municipality. There exists
a widely spread organisation, with which any worker can be associated,
upon payment of a small monthly sum, receiving in exchange, medical care
and education for his children. The Association is called Workers'
Circle (Circulo Operário) and is led by a committee composed of
representatives of the Municipality's main public institutions, with
the archbishop acting as president.

The National Campaign for the Education of the Community - CNEC
is a nation-wide school network, regarded as a private enterprise and
non-profit making. Thanks to this it is subsidised a great deal by the
Union, the State and the Municipality. Parents pay a monthly fee for
each child but at a much lower rate than for the average private school.
Some of these schools offer a reasonable standard of education and this
sometimes constitutes a problem for other private schools, who see their
success threatened by the strong competition of CNEC, and a loss of their
own pupils to the other systems. These schools are multiplying fast in
Northeast Brazil and provide the last years of First Level and Second Level
of Education.

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[1] "Ginásio Madureza" - National programme with regional supervision and
financial support from SUDENE (Northeast Superintendency for Development).
The lessons are transmitted on commercial TV and printed material is
available to the pupils, who are led by a monitor (with 11 years
education). Pupils are prepared for exams in four subjects: Language,
Maths, Science and Social Studies, leading to the "ginasial" certificate.

[2] Anuário de Educação do Ceará, 1970, op.cit.

In the district of Itapipoca there is one school of this type,
offering pupils a certificate of commerce. This is the second largest
school unit in the Municipality. The published statistical data gives
no indication whether any particular school belongs to a religious faith
or not; however confessional schools undoubtedly provide for a large
number of places.

One particular Roman Catholic boarding school, run by nuns for
orphans and abandoned children, helps not only to meet an educational need,
but also a social problem; in 1970 the school had 231 children and provided
free education for the majority of them.[1]

The largest school in Itapipoca however is a State school. It is
called "Colegio Estadual Joaquim Magalhaes" and is located in the municipal
headquarters. In 1970 it had 1,336 pupils and a staff of 49 teachers. It
provides places for pupils of First and Second Level of Education.
The Second Level of Education is regarded as being completely vocational.
It qualifies teachers for the initial grades of First Level of Education.
Although teachers at that level of qualification are very much needed in
the region, Itapipoca does not constitute a very good market for them and
the teachers find work more easily in the neighbouring Municipalities.

Itapipoca and Other Municipalities in Ceará

At the present time Itapipoca occupies fifth place in total population
among the 141 existing Municipalities in Ceará.[2] There is however a
disproportionate discrepancy in the way provisions are made for schooling.
While the deficit of enrolment in Fortaleza reaches 7.08 percent, Sobral
20 percent, Quixada 22.96 percent, Juazeiro 0.85 percent, the deficit in
Itapipoca is 41.8 percent in the 7 to 14 age group, when education is free
and compulsory. Demographic density and the fact that the population is
mostly located in the rural areas, accounts for much of this, but Quixada

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[1] Anuário de Educação do Ceará, 1970, op.cit.

[2] Programa nacional de carta escolar. MEC. SG/SINOPSE DO Projeto Carta
Escolar do Ceará 1973.

is more rural and less densely populated than Itapipoca, yet the deficit there is far lower.[1]

The rate of deficit is not solely related to differences in economic resources. There are no up-to-date data on the economic resources of those five Municipalities. The purchasing power of the respective Municipalities however, may be taken as a rough and ready indicator of the number of private schools in the region where they are located.

Judging by recent statistical data, the number of private schools has been mainly significant in the capital city (Fortaleza) followed by Sobral and Juazeiro; in fact, in those areas the number of private schools exceeds the number of state public schools. But again, Quixada is in a disadvantageous position, as compared to Itapipoca, so this situation is not shown to be the main cause for such a discrepancy in the school deficit.[2]

Educational interests by Itapipoca, it seems, have not been carried out as successfully by its political leaders, as in other above mentioned Municipalities. This really is an important factor in order to have an effective State and Municipal provision for a school network at the Municipal level, since it is not yet possible to rely on any other means or criteria in the provision of regional and local policies to equalise educational opportunity.

Despite its disadvantage among the first five most populated Municipalities of the State, between 1960 and 1970 the number of public elementary school units, in Itapipoca, increased from 166 to 206 and the number of enrolments from 7182 to 9982. Since the setting up of a school involves a political decision of some importance in the Municipal administration, the extent of the expansion gives one some idea of the degree of prestige that the promoters hold. Furthermore, the appointment of teachers is made by political leaders. This reinforces their prestige

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[1]See Table (5:1), op.cit.

[2]See Table (5:3), op.cit.

and sometimes their family earnings for they often appoint daughters or
relatives to the position. Teachers are chosen on the basis of their
political loyalty. Hence, the quality of teaching is very poor. On the
whole even considering the expansion in the education system, schools are
merely rudimentary educational institutions whose only objective is that
of teaching the skills of reading, writing and counting. Similar
conditions are found among rural areas of different states. G.M. Dias
describing schools in a certain Municipality of the State of Bahia brings
his testimony by saying that

> they lack the most elementary equipment such as blackboards
> and even chairs. Teaching methods are restricted to
> memorising the letters of the alphabet, vowels and
> consonants, and thereafter the students concentrate on
> monosyllabic combinations of consonant and vowels until
> they reach the point of forming simple words. In doing
> so teachers assign students exercises which are taken
> from the cartilha, the most elementary textbook available.
>
> The method seems to be a very poor one, since it takes not
> less than two and sometimes four years to teach a student the
> basic skills of reading and writing. The same holds for
> arithmetic where a similar pattern of memorising techniques
> is used.
>
> As explained by one of the rural teachers, the basic
> function of the rural school is to provide students with the
> necessary skills to read, write and count. If one requires
> more than that, one must go to the town. However, the
> teacher admitted that even this goal is not often attained,
> since students usually drop out of school after one or two
> years. In fact she claimed that most parents were satisfied
> if their sons and daughters managed to learn how to sign (or
> draw) their names. . .[1]

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[1] G.M. Dias, Roceiros and Townsmen in Brazil Emerging Patterns of
Relations in Valença, Bahia, University of Sussex Ph.D. thesis,
1973 (unpublished).

TABLE (5:1)

TOTAL POPULATION, DEMOGRAPHIC DENSITY, ENROLMENT ON THE FIRST LEVEL SCHOOL AND NON-ENROLMENT FOR THE 7 TO 14

AGE GROUP IN THE FIVE MOST POPULATED MUNICIPALITIES OF CEARÁ STATE
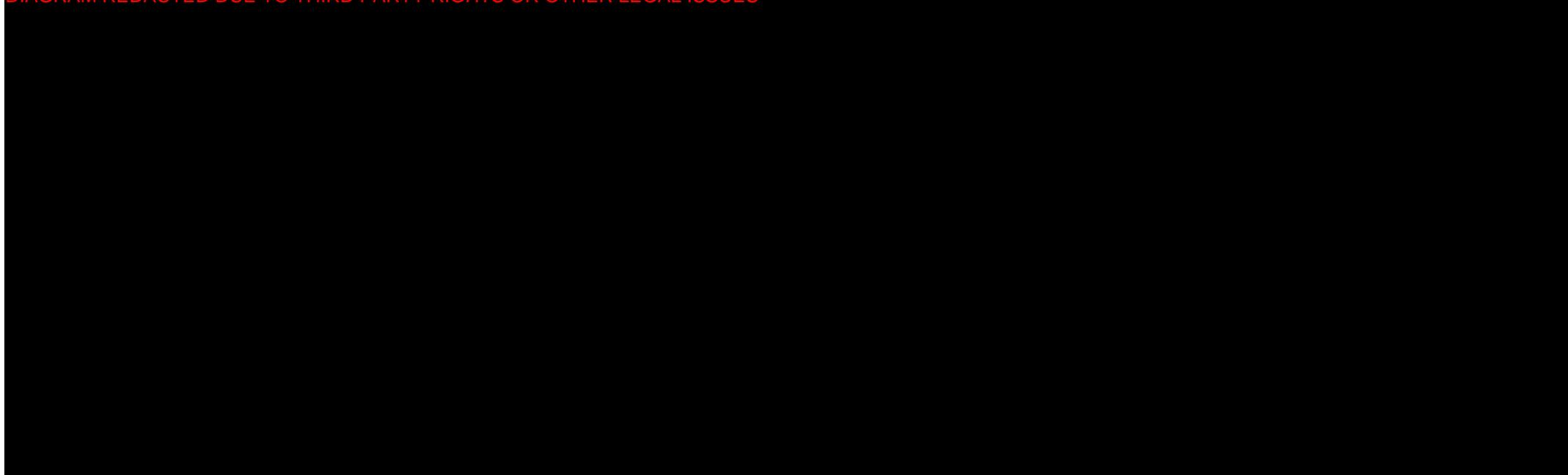
Source: Programa Nacional da Carta Escolar - Estado do Ceará 1973

*The discrepancy of this figure with those in other tables, originated from the use of different sources and
 years considered; this had to be done sometimes, because some data were given in more detail than in others,
 hence facilitating the analysis.

TABLE (5:2)

HISTORICAL SERIES OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ITAPIPOCA - 1960-1970

Source: Anuário de Educação de Ceará, Secretaria de Educação do Ceará, Fortaleza, 1970.

TABLE (5:3)

RELATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL UNITS FOR FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL

EDUCATION BY ZONE AND BY ADMINISTRATIVE SPHERE, IN THE FIVE MOST

POPULATED MUNICIPALITIES OF CEARÁ STATE

Source: Programa Nacional da Carta Escolar, Estado do Ceara 1973.

TABLE (5:4)

ITAPIPOCA
QUALIFICATION OF TEACHERS AND THEIR LOCATION IN 1964

SOURCE: School Census 1964; in Plano Municipal de Educação, Município de
          Itapipoca, 1970/1972.

*There is a discrepancy between the figure of 184 quoted here and that
 of 302 in table (5:2).

TABLE (5:5)

ITAPIPOCA

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS (PRIMARY) BY DISTRICTS AND THEIR MAINTAINING
BODIES

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: Plano Municipal de Educação, Itapipoca, p.5. Quadro VII -
         1970/1972.

TABLE (5:6)

IŢAPIPOCA

LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL OF ITAPIPOCA AND BY DISTRICT

Municipal Teachers Qualification

ed.)

Source: Questionnaire undertaken by ANCAR-CEARÁ, for 108 Municipal teachers 1968 in Plano Municipal de Educação, Itapipoca 1970/1972

TABLE (5:7)
ITAPIPOCA

SUPPLY AND NEED OF SCHOOLS IN 1970 AND DEMOGRAPHIC EVOLUTION OF SCHOOL POPULATION DURING THE YEARS 1971 TO 1974

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: Anuário de Educaçao do Ceará 1970

* There is a discrepancy with Table (3:1) figures, but not significant.

** It is doubtful whether Bela Vista is legally considered as a district since it does not appear in all reports as such.

TABLE (5:8)

ITAPIPOCA

LOCATION OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS, ACCORDING TO THEIR MAINTAINING ADMINISTRATION

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: IBGE - 1969, Table 9, in Plano Municipal de Educação, 1970/1972, p.6.

SECTION IV

PROJECTS OF DEVELOPMENT - SOME ATTEMPTED SOLUTIONS

This section has two purposes:- First, it is an account of current projects in the Northeast Region of Brazil. They are identified as: Project Piaui, Project Rondon and CRUTAC. The information collected on each includes:

a)   Objectives.

b)   Geographic coverage and number of participants actually served, compared to the total potential clientele.

c)   How the project is structured and managed, staffed and financed.

d)   Other main features, including the instructional methods used, the extent and quality of the media used, its relationships to educational and other development activities.

e)   Any available and other evidence on the actual accomplishment and impact of the project.

The purpose of this section is also to examine whether the models on which the above projects are based are adequate in effecting necessary educational changes, as part of the whole process of development in a chosen region.

MAP(6:1)

STATE OF PIAUI

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
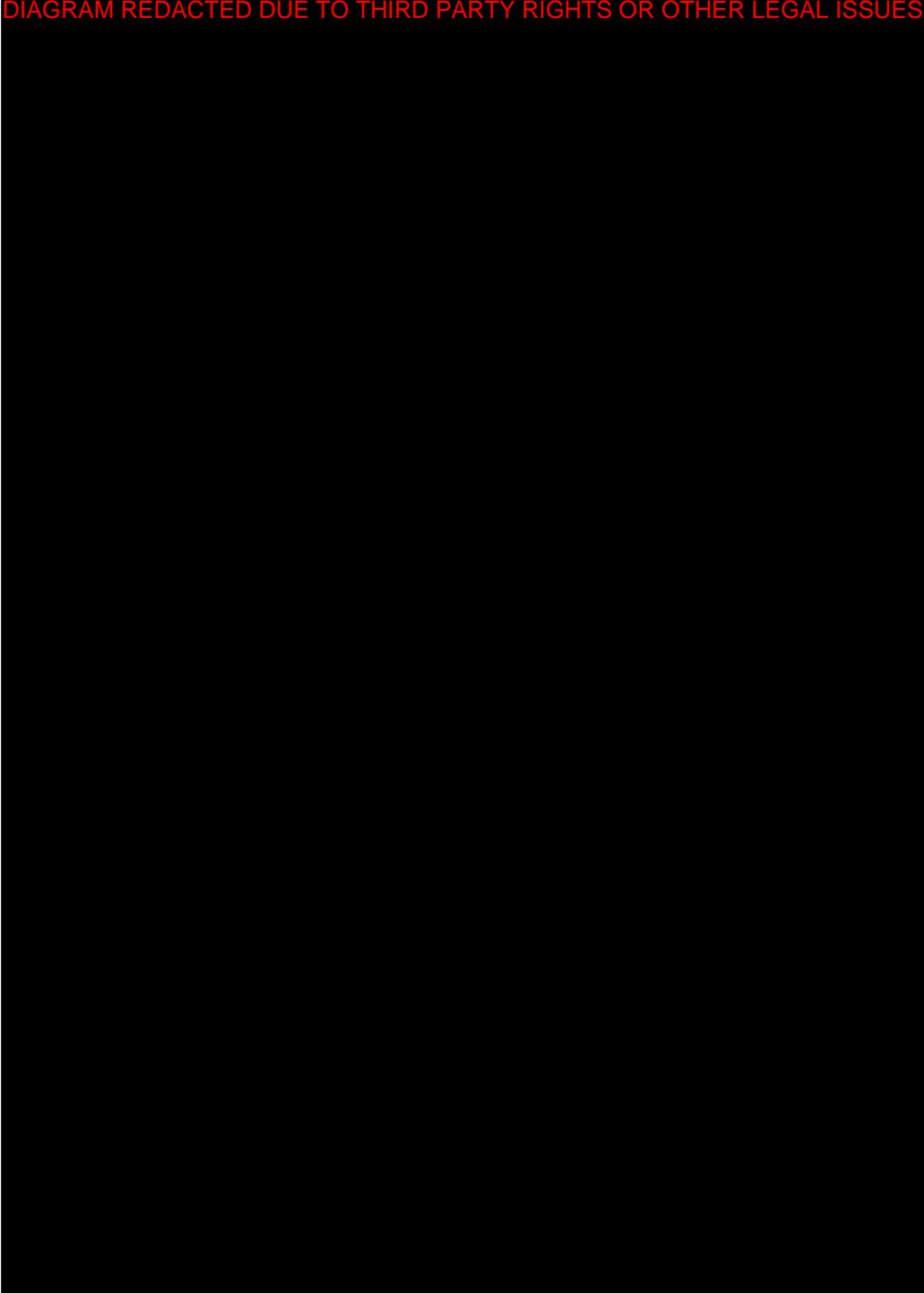
Source: FIBGE, II Plano Nacional de Desenvolvimento (1975-1979)

CHAPTER 6

PROJECT PIAUI

Background

The idea of this project emerged in 1970, when members of the
ministry staff of the Brazilian Federal Government became aware of the
anthropologist Joao Ribeiro de Oliveira e Souza's model for Integral
and Participative Development and, challenged him to put it into practice.
This model of development was the theme of a Doctoral thesis, which
Professor Oliveira e Souza agreed to experiment with before defending it
at Harvard University. Two years later in September 1972, this project
was transformed by law into a foundation. This new legal status made it
eligible for an increase of its finances, not only from national but also
from international sources. If there is any merit in this project being
accepted by the people and by the authorities in all spheres, as we are
going to analyse, the greater merit lies in its author, who with much
ability, was able to alert and persuade through personal contact the key
men of the government. It involved directly, the Ministry of Planning,
of Education and the Government of the State of Piaui, who provided the
project with authority, finance and a legal basis for its implementation.
This project has also earned the respect of the Inter-American Foundation
which agreed to contribute half its budget quite unconditionally, from
both a political and economic point of view.

Objective

Project Piaui is an integral and participative plan of development
in the State of Piaui and operates under the authority of the Piaui Project
Foundation. An integral and participative plan of development means
that it is more than an economic one which has the tendency to be influenced
by models followed by developed countries, where, one thinks of adopting
the progress of technology, accumulating capital and training the manpower

needed for economic development. The economic system is very important but is not the only system of the social universe.[1] The basic focus of any social universe and human group to be developed is the human individual, who, as part of this universe, is also the chief beneficiary of any gains resulting from his development.

For the Project Piaui, respect for man is fundamental, but it must be an active respect which helps him to be more developed. The opposite of misery is not necessarily abundance but the value of it because it is not worthwhile only to produce wealth, but also to value man, humanity, the entire world. Development is not only global growth but also all social change in order that the individual members of a group may be developed, progressively, reach a level, each time nearer to equality of opportunity. When development is integral and participative government and people join their efforts to build the common welfare. When one talks about people in Project Piaui, it includes all the population, its elite and its basis, in each social universe. In this sense, everybody is important and deserves similar equality of opportunity.

Geographic coverage

To its author, it is impossible to exist with only one model for integral participative development for all Brazil, since each region differs so much from the others. As the Northeast Region occupies 18.2 percent of the national territory holding 30 percent of its population, accumulating serious structural problems (the State of Piaui, considered the synthesis of this regional characteristic) it was chosen as the starting point for the Project. It is assumed though, that the people from this area have a large creative potential and that natural resources also exist.

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[1] For social universe is understood the unity taken to be studied. It might be considered a State, a microregion, a Municipality, a district or a village.

Structure and Staff

The Project's intention involves in its structure the elected
representative of the people or officials in all spheres and sectors of
government. In the diagram shown,[1] the president of the Deliberative
Board and its Director is the Secretary of Planning who is also the
Executive Director of the Foundation; the Secretary of Education is the
Executive Vice-Director of the Foundation. Officers and private individuals
interested in co-operating, particularly, with the integral and participative
development, are members of the Consultative Board. The Fiscal Board
consists of three effective members and three substitutes; they are
responsible for the supervision of the money used by the Foundation. The
State Co-ordination co-ordinates, technically, the planning and the
implementation of the plan. It comprises a State Co-ordinator and an
Executive Joint Co-ordinator. A Special Assistant for Planning and
Evaluation assists the State Co-ordination in the Planning. The Special
Assistant of Operations assists and represents the State Co-ordination in
its relations with individuals and institutions. The Institute for Integral
and Participative Development groups five centres in charge of research -
cultural and natural resources, manpower training, planning, and analysis
of systems and social communication. The Centre of Cultural Research for
Development is responsible for research into culture in Piaui in order to
know its aspirations, beliefs, values, and to preserve what must be
respected, and prepare the way for cultural and social change to form a
basis for the process of integral and participative development. The
Centre for Natural Resources assists government on research and in
estimating the State's natural resources.

The Centre of Education for Integral Development enables human
resources for the development, research and tests of new operational systems
of education to be fitted to this development.

[1] See p.155.

The Centre of Analysis and System Design organises, analyses and improves the operational network of the Foundation Project Piaui and assists in all aspects the organisations, members of the Deliberative Board. It formulates projects and makes contact with resource agencies - regional, national and international - in order to supplement the State resources for the Integral and Participative Development.

The Centre of Information and Social Communication collects data, organises and administers the documents and is in charge of the publicity for the Project.

Support Co-ordination is responsible for two sectors: administration and finances of the Foundation.

The Sector of the Administrative support comprises the communication media (vehicles, radio, telephone etc.) and the clerical activities.

The Sector for Finances comprises the Internal Foundation, accounting, programme budget and audit.

The Microregional[1] Co-ordination condenses Municipal plans through the Microregional Board, under the presidency of the mayor (prefeito) of the Microregion represented, and is composed of the mayor plus two representatives of each Municipality, nominated by the Municipal group leadership. The mayor of the Municipality in which the microregion has its headquarters is also the microregional co-ordinator and the joint co-ordinator is the co-ordinator of the interdisciplinary technical group located in this microregion's headquarters.

The Technical Sector implements the development project for the Microregion through an interdisciplinary group and through other development institutions and members of the Deliberative Board.

The Social Communication Sector publicises extensively, the objectives

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[1] A Microregion comprises an addition of neighbour municipalities more or less independent selected by their homogeneity in different aspects. The headquarters is located in the most important municipality.

and results of Microregional integral and participative development.

The Administrative Support Sector for the Microregion has the task of supporting activities with the technical, social communication, finance sectors and to the Microregional co-ordination.

The Finance Sector is responsible for the programmed budget, accounting and internal Microregional auditorship.

At the Municipal level the project is organised as follows:- the Municipal Board composed of the mayor and two leaders of each Municipal nucleus[1] who have been elected to represent it on this board. The Municipal co-ordinator is always the mayor.

The Joint Co-ordinator is a technician trained by the Project to operate at the Municipality level. The various sectors - technical, social communications, administrative support and finance, have the same responsibilities as the ones at the Microregion, adjusted to the Municipal level.

At the nucleus level there are the following components:

The Representative Board, with two volunteer leaders of each division of a nucleus.

The Community Board comprising fifteen voluntary leaders, elected by the Representative Board, each one having responsibility for a social system.[2] The members are responsible for the supervision of development plans, at the nucleus of the social system. From this board will emerge the nucleus representative for the Municipal Board.

The above structure is being used according to the priority of each component and according to the possibilities of the Foundation.

In order to make the process viable, the headquarters of the Foundation

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[1] A nucleus is a division of a Municipality: it can be a district - urban or rural - and a borough.

[2] A social system consists of eleven distinct parts which are interrelated and complement each other on a social universe. These parts are the different aspects of life of human individual relations as it is explained in more detail on pages 143-146.

was settled in the capital city of the State - Teresina. In each Micro-region which implements the Project, there is an interdisciplinary group led by the Joint Co-ordinator. As soon as it accepts the Project each Municipality engages an expert in Integral and Participative Development, as Joint Co-ordinator in the Municipal Co-ordination to assist the rural and urban areas.

Methodology

The Development Plan in which the State interdisciplinary group initiates action for the nucleus as the basis for integral development, comprises 30 different phases. The starting point is at the Municipality centre of a chosen Microregion. In these 30 phases or steps, one starts by researching the region, establishing agreements with authorities, choosing leaders, defining goals, conciliating interests from different systems of the social universe and co-ordinating plans of different social universe, according to their priority and viability, until reaching the whole state. This process is like putting a new machine into action; hence, to implement and to maintain it in all eleven Microregions is what the Project Piaui wishes to accomplish.

If all phases have their special characteristics and importance, the 24th phase - Elaboration of Projects and their grouping in programmes and sub-programmes and organised according to their priority and viability constitutes an essential part. The conscious and active elaboration of projects by nucleus and Municipal leaders is of high significance. So the leaders having the general knowledge of the systems go deeper into their respective sectorial needs and come back with projects to conciliate within the group for the different projects, taking into consideration their specific priority and viability for this particular universe. Depending on the system and its complexity, a project needs more or less guidance and supervision from the Microregional and Municipal inter-disciplinary and technical group.

The outline for a sophisticated project must follow the structure below:

I	0	Social Planning
I	1	Objectives
I	2	Goals
I	3	Justifications
II	0	Operational Planning
II	1	Administrative Support
II	2	Finances
III	0	Planning of Resources
III	1	Human Resources
III	2	Finance Resources
IV	0	Physical Planning
IV	1	Location
IV	2	Equipment and Premises
V	0	Programme
V	1	Technical
V	2	Administrative
V	3	Programme - Budget

PERT and NEOPERT systems and the use of precedence diagrams are recommended for programme control.

The grouping of projects into programmes or sub-programmes allows for a wide vision and rational evaluation in the social universe.

The Institute for Integral and Participative Development is the organisation which will assist all areas in the different phases of development. This Institute also collaborates with the State Government, indicating the necessary action for development, improving structures and integrating resources.

In order to think about development of human individuals, human groups, of the social universe, it is essential according to the Project Piaui, to know the individuals who are part of it, their aspirations, how they behave in their community life. It is necessary to know their culture, the social universe through their history, analysed as a function of the present, of the past and the trends of the social universe for the future. For that purpose, Project Piaui has adopted an outline of research, analysis, diagnosis and prognosis for each social universe, integrated into eleven distinct parts, which are interrelated and complement each other. The social systems of the social universe consist of these 11 parts or aspects of life of human individual relations.[1]

They can be subdivided and are called subsystems. The Economic system, for example, is divided into four subsystems: production, maintenance, property and infra-structural. Like the biological universe, the social universe is a whole completely interdependent and as a consequence, there is a deep interdependence among the various social systems which should not be analysed in isolation but put into focus as inseparable parts of the whole.

In order to have integral development of any social universe, there must exist development in all aspects, and in all the social systems in it. It is proper here to have some explanation of each system.

Family Relation System means the relationship of individuals inside their families and with other families, groups and communities. The basic institution of this system is the house. It includes phenomena such as population growth, its distribution, migratory movements. Individuals in this system exercise the roles of fathers, mothers, sons, daughters, grandchildren, nephews, etc.

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[1] See Diagrams (6:1) and (6:2).

Health System involves relations of man with all aspects of health.
The roles are exercised by doctors, dentists, nurses, midwives, sanitarists
and others. The beneficiaries of their activities are sick people, the
ones receiving preventive vaccinations, and the population supplied by
treated waters, by sewage service, etc.

Loyalty System. Individuals and groups with sentiments of
solidarity, friendship, companionship, have a high capacity for co-operative
efforts. These sentiments, if not cultivated, generate conflicts which
provoke tensions and personal conflicts; and generally contribute to world
tensions. From this system emerge co-operatives, unions, clubs and other
associations for the common welfare.

Leisure System comprises the relations of individuals concentrated
in recreation. Its importance is becoming more recognised by all.

Religious System. People's behaviour and aspirations towards any
religious manifestation in this social system produces a strong influence
for development. For Integral and Participative Development it is extremely
important to note the influence of aspirations and behaviour of those who
exercise the roles in these religious systems because among their beliefs,
values and sanctions, are situated on the one hand taboos and prejudices
which delay development, and on the other hand the purest and most
expressive forms of participation.

Education System comprises education in all spheres and social
systems. Cultural education or acculturation starts with parents,
relatives and continues through human groups, where individuals live and
make relations, transmitting among themselves aspirations and behaviour
practices, customs, symbols, beliefs, values and sanctions, which
characterise culture of a social universe.

Security System involves the life relations of people, referring
to individual, group, community and national security. Security and
development are closely related, since without security it is impossible

to promote integral and participative development and without integral

and participative development, security can suffer seriously. Security

is not only the absence of subversive movements or repression by

responsible institutions. It is not only a sense of order and respect

for the country's institutions. It is much more. It represents a

psychological system, for example, the guarantee for a small farmer in

which his harvest will have a market, with a minimum price ensured by the

government. Security is a progressive decrease of unemployment and under-

employment. It is programmes of housing and public health. It is a

social providence working efficiently. When development is integral and

participative, however, it generates an increase of feeling of security

because the communication channels between people and government become,

gradually, cleared from obstruction, through global education which, at

the same time, allows for a wide and deep look at national policy taking

into consideration its positive and negative aspects for the development

of a common welfare system.

Social Value System. In this system the focus is on the living

relationship of the people with reference to their cultural value

hierarchy in each social system. Going through the reality of each

social universe, using this anthropological model, one can know in depth

what one intends to develop.

Political System. It is here people's aspirations and their

behaviour towards the administration of common welfare are located. On

the other hand, it is the channel of the relations of power which the other

social systems manifest. In its analysis it is very important to observe

a people's culture and give special attention to the manifestations of

power in whose name it is exercised and whose forces ensure its exercise.

Economic System. From a wide look at all aspects of the social

universe, the economic one would be the best use of scarce resources of

social systems.   People's aspirations and behaviour can be observed in

the four subsystems which the economic social system comprises.

a) Production subsystem which comprises human production

activities, including here farming, industrial, scientific,

literary, artistic, service productions etc.   Further evidence

of the complete interrelationship and systemic interdependency

is the fact of more easily locating production in all other

systems.   Leadership is given by industrialists, farmers,

scientists, technicians, artists, etc.

b) Maintenance subsystem.   In this subsystem, the ideology and

behaviour of its members concentrate in the relationship of

subsistence and commerce.   The leadership roles are exercised

by all who maintain themselves, their families and/or dedicate

themselves to business.

c) Patrimony subsystem comprises the behaviour and preference

of social universe members in relation to their property owner-

ship.   Leadership roles are exercised by owners in general and,

historically, by the ones consciously lacking wealth for owning

property.

d) Infra-structural system.   This comprises the behaviour and

attitudes of people of a certain social universe and everything

which refers to transport, energy and communication.

The Diagram[1] shows how one should consider each social universe

and their respective social systems and subsystems.   One should analyse

each social system in its cultural, ecological, historical reality, through

means of research, by direct observations, by consulting documents and by

interviewing leaders of such a system.   A partial study is not enough but

a synthesis of the whole is always necessary for the integral and

participation development. The first study is always done by an anthropologist.

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[1]
See Diagram (6:2) ibid.

Accomplishment and Impact of the Project

During the first two years of its existence, Project Piaui

reached parts of three Microregion areas of the eleven, which constitute

the State.

The starting point of the process has been in the educational system,

since any development departs from the existing potentialities of each

individual, according to the philosophy of the Project Piaui. CENEDI -

the Educational Centre for Integral Development, has been responsible

for the large number of courses not only to reveal the project to all

kinds of people - upper, middle and the lower in occupational classification.

During that period 1,800 individuals attended short courses on leadership,

human relations, administrative principles, official composition,

simplification of tasks, accounting, rural economy, group dynamics,

tourism guidance, communication and audiovisual aids, memorization,

archivist, co-operative management, librarian, midwifery, elaboration and

evaluation of projects, educational planning etc., all these synthetized

the course's capacity for services. At the same time that courses have

been held, teams of the Project, supervising the already trained leaders

of different nuclei, initiated in their communities different activities.

The elaboration of projects was a consequence of the needs felt by the

community leaders. Priority and viable projects fell mainly in areas of

health, education, production and housing. Acquisition of filters for

drinking water, vaccination, installation of sanitary equipment in houses,

public water distribution, public laundries, casualty facilities, anti-

vermin campaigns were alternated with educational projects for equipping

a kindergarten, elaboration of rules and regulations for student clubs,

libraries, etc. On the productive and economic social systems, operating

in co-operatives has been promoted in order to increase production and to

maintain a good price for merchandise and to search for markets. Projects

of fishing industry, manufacture of clothes, shoe co-operatives.
Houses were improved by the addition of proper floors, tile roofs and
other improvements were introduced such as toilets and bathrooms.
Streets were repaired. This type of work was done by the community's
private initiatives. The public telephone line was re-installed,
Municipal administrations were assisted by public administrators,
through special agreements, in order to improve their bureaucracy and to
control the economic growth of the Municipality. Initiatives were taken
to finance individuals in order to regulate their positions of citizenship,
through registration in the military service, as electors, with registration
of birth.

Besides using the educational system as the starting point in the
process of integral and participative development, Project Piaui in some
areas is experimenting with community horticulture. The product resulted
from the work of trained horticulture technicians and was sent to a
distribution centre. Each of these horticultural projects involved 30
families and all the methodology of the Project Piaui adopted - considering
man and community in their totality.

The above projects considered in isolation are meaningless.
According to the General Co-ordinator the important aspect is that each
project is the result of needs, surveys, done by the community itself and
fulfils community needs, helping to bring people together to reach
community goals. This allows each member to grow as a whole and to consider
himself an agent and at the same time a beneficiary of the development.

It is true that often groups in the nucleus were discouraged. It was
difficult to make the population enthusiastic about joining the leaders
already involved. People in this part of the world are accustomed to
being too dependent upon public and private entities, without participating
in the struggle for better conditions and a higher quality of life.

Different organisations like clubs were willing to collaborate. The main task for the Project Piaui was and has been to conciliate their isolated activities as part of a whole and united process. Also to integrate human and economic resources to reach their goal more effectively. Project Piaui brought a philosophy of work for the community which discovered that united they could enjoy greater benefits than if they worked alone.

The Centre of Analysis and Engineering of System - CANES - was structured for the whole State; its activities were divided into distinct categories: 1) analysis of community projects; 2) elaboration of special projects; 3) assisting projects of microregional level and at special centres. Assistance to the microregion commences when the idea of a project emerges until its conclusion. CANES is also the centre which analyses the process and its adequacy, related to the methodology adopted by Foundation Project Piaui, in its technical viability. Besides community projects, there are special projects as was mentioned above. Although these projects were not conceived by the districts, they are nevertheless answers to their needs. Examples of these kinds include the fishing plan in Luiz Correira district, which was transformed to a large co-operative, as an ambitious type of enterprise; the horticulture plan; the colonial nucleus - "aliança do Gurgueia" comprising an area of 5,374 ha. This last project of colonisation is by itself a complete integral participative development of an area, involving also 12 basic programmes: territorial distribution, administration, credit, commerce, agricultural and industrial production, co-operative enterprise, rural housing, education, research on culture, welfare and infrastructure.

According to the report of October 1973, published by the Foundation Project Piaui, although Piaui State is on the right lines, it needs to make greater effort in order to keep pace with Brazil's development. They say that one cannot expect that the new process described

will succeed overnight. Integral and Participative Development, based on changing aspirations, beliefs and cultural values (through integral education), on the incorporation of marginal human resources, on a yet unexplored natural resource of the State, and on the adaptation of technology to the Piaui reality, is a process that operates in depth. It implies above all, the development of authentic leadership, which expresses the aspirations of the people in a genuine way. Development is not a fast process in the integral and participative way, it requires much unity, detachment and feeling of brotherhood. There has been insufficient time to demonstrate whether concrete and satisfying change will occur for a more decisive pronouncement about the Project Piaui. One has to wait to test the validity and strength of the process when changes of government take place and the new project continues its progress, with the same enthusiasm. It is obvious that a system will operate better when it is understood, has collaboration from the government, people involved, and good leadership, but to be an effective system, it must have some devices to make it work properly, besides any eventual modification.

From the results already reported, communities have started awakening successfully taking their own initiatives. What usually happens is that the greater the State's degree of underdevelopment, the larger is the degree of marginalisation of decisions and benefit of development. A small minority controls the economic and political power, being at the same time the bridge between the majority of the population and the government. The intention of the Project is exactly to help individuals to realise that together they can change their conditions, working together with government and not expecting everything to be done for them and to come from government itself. Following the methodology and philosophy of the Project new leaders will emerge from the people and with more representation of their aspirations.

Another merit of the Project is to put together economic, human resources from private and public sources, making them work together and not in isolation for the same goal. Since the co-ordinators of the different geographical areas into which the State is divided, are also the elected authorities of the area, there is from top to bottom an identity of thought between the Project and government. The philosophy and spirit of the Project, however, will be kept through the joint co-ordination, highly qualified and specially trained for this purpose.

The interesting aspect of the Project is that the technicians who guide different nuclei, in their projects, adopt mostly the non-directive approach.[1] Priority and viability are the two fundamental elements which determine the choice of projects; there is no imposition by the technicians on the ground that they know best. The important aspect is to make individuals believe in their potential to develop on their own initiatives, and finally in their role within the group, to aim at a better quality of life for themselves and for their neighbour.

Project Piaui may still be too young to offer specific structural models for different institutions of other social systems. My particular concern is with the educational system. Although Project Piaui mainly adopted this system to start the development process, so far it has not felt the need to create a special structure especially for education capable of coping with the increased obligations caused by the growth of the number of students and the quality of teaching, differentiated or not.

If one said they adopted the non-directive approach in their guidance, as Dr. Batten[2] has pointed out, one approach cannot be exclusive. There will be circumstances in which direction has to be given, taught, shown, and suggested with their consequences.

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[1] T.R. Batten, The Non-Directive Approach in Group and Community Work, O.U.P. 1967, pp.49-70.

[2] Ibid.

Education has become one of the largest responsibilities of government. Of course the community must be involved for the common solutions to problems, and be interested in what affects both the government and private institutions on one side and parents and children on the other. However, it will require very specific acquaintance with the problems of educational systems, in order to be able to devise sound solutions. There is no evidence that Project Piaui has tackled this instrumental aspect. Because of the large number of school units of different types, teachers and students, the State or community must experiment with a sort of organisational and administrative device which at the same time fixes the positions and responsibilities of the professionals at different levels, ensures participation of government, and delegates also some decision making and control to the community in order to keep the balance of power and goals.

CENEDI and CANES eventually might adopt, create or suggest a sort of structural model. So far, the methodology adopted if it did not actually suggest, did not prevent either any special device from emerging. Simple solutions and initiatives like equipping a kindergarten, can be handled by communication but when more complex problems on a State basis are felt and need to be dealt with as for example the training of teachers, building of schools on a large scale, a sophisticated administrative framework supporting needs for expansion of the service will be and are already needed, at the Municipal level. Hence, it is sound thinking to find within or without Project Piaui a specific model for the school system at the Municipal level, at least to fulfil the least obligation emanating from the Brazilian Constitution - eight years compulsory and free schooling.

The Foundation Project Piaui is, undoubtedly, new blood running in Piaui State's veins, bringing new inspiration, encouraging people to

operate in order to get the best from their resources. Its initial

structural organisation intends to provide the means to evolve in order

to respond progressively, to the next phases of the Integral and

Participative Development in Piaui. Imaginative and creative devices

will for a long time be needed to keep Piaui State integrated within

Brazilian development as a whole.[1]

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[1] The above detailed information about Project Piaui was taken from
Projeto Piaui, a publication from the Centre of Information and Social
Communication of "Fundacao Projeto Piaui", Issue no. I, Year I,
Teresina, October 1973.

DIAGRAM(6:1)
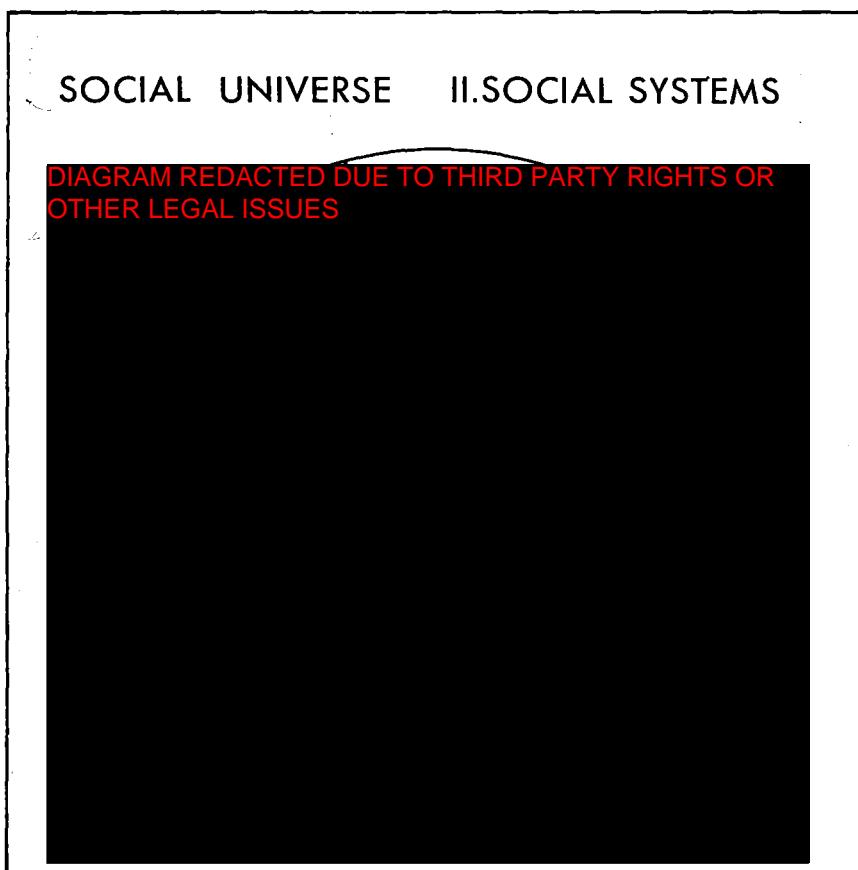
SOCIAL UNIVERSE   II.SOCIAL SYSTEMS

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

DIAGRAM(6:2)

STRUCTURAL COMPONENTS OF SOCIAL SYSTEMS

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: Centro de Informação e Comunicação Social da Fundação Projeto Piaui,Projeto Piaui, Teresina.1971,p.20.

DIAGRAM(6:3)

FOUNDATION PROJECT PIAUI
ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source: Centro de Informacão op.cit.
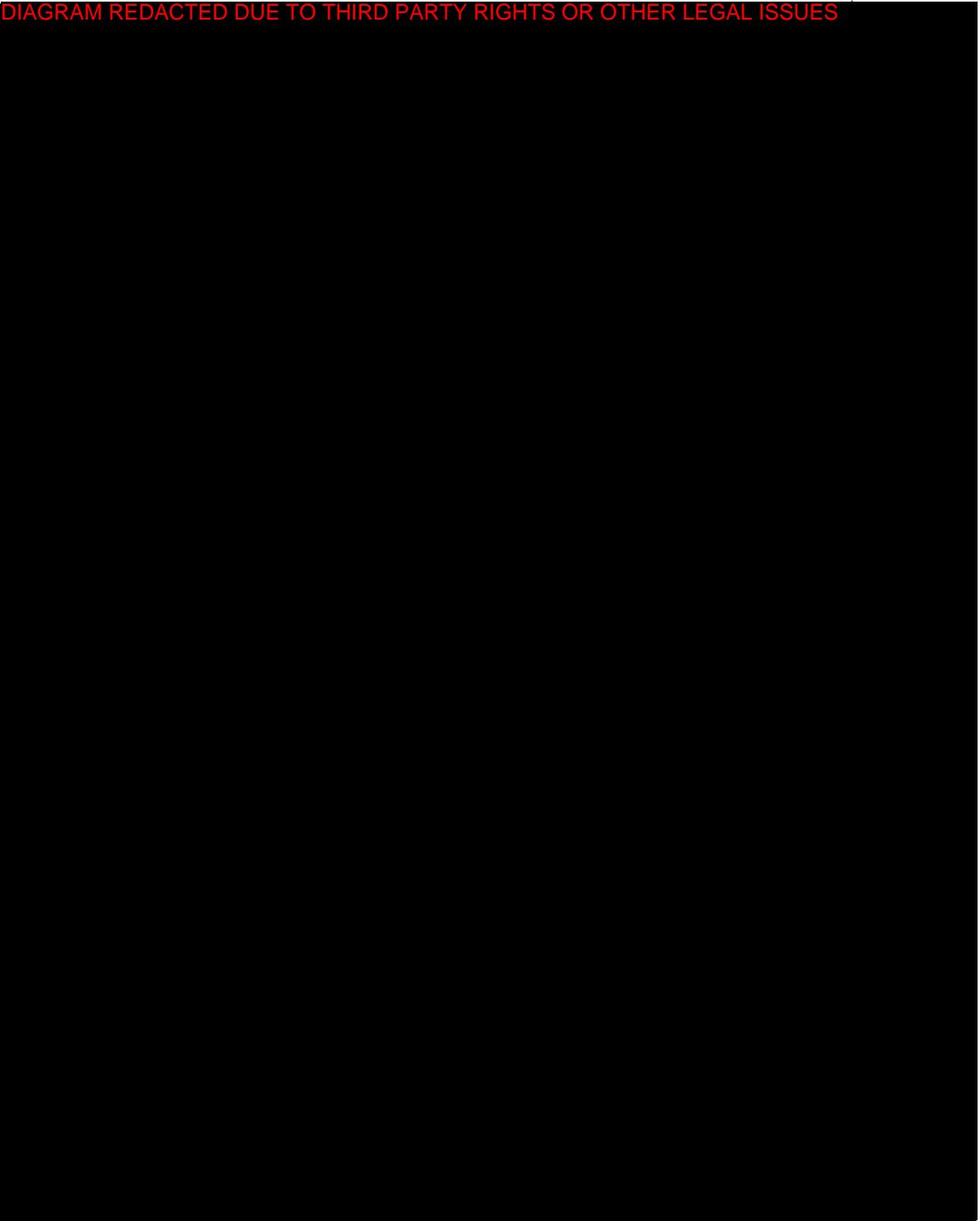
MAP (7:1)

ADVANCED CAMPUSES PROGRAMME

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source : Reporter Rondon,op.cit. p. 9
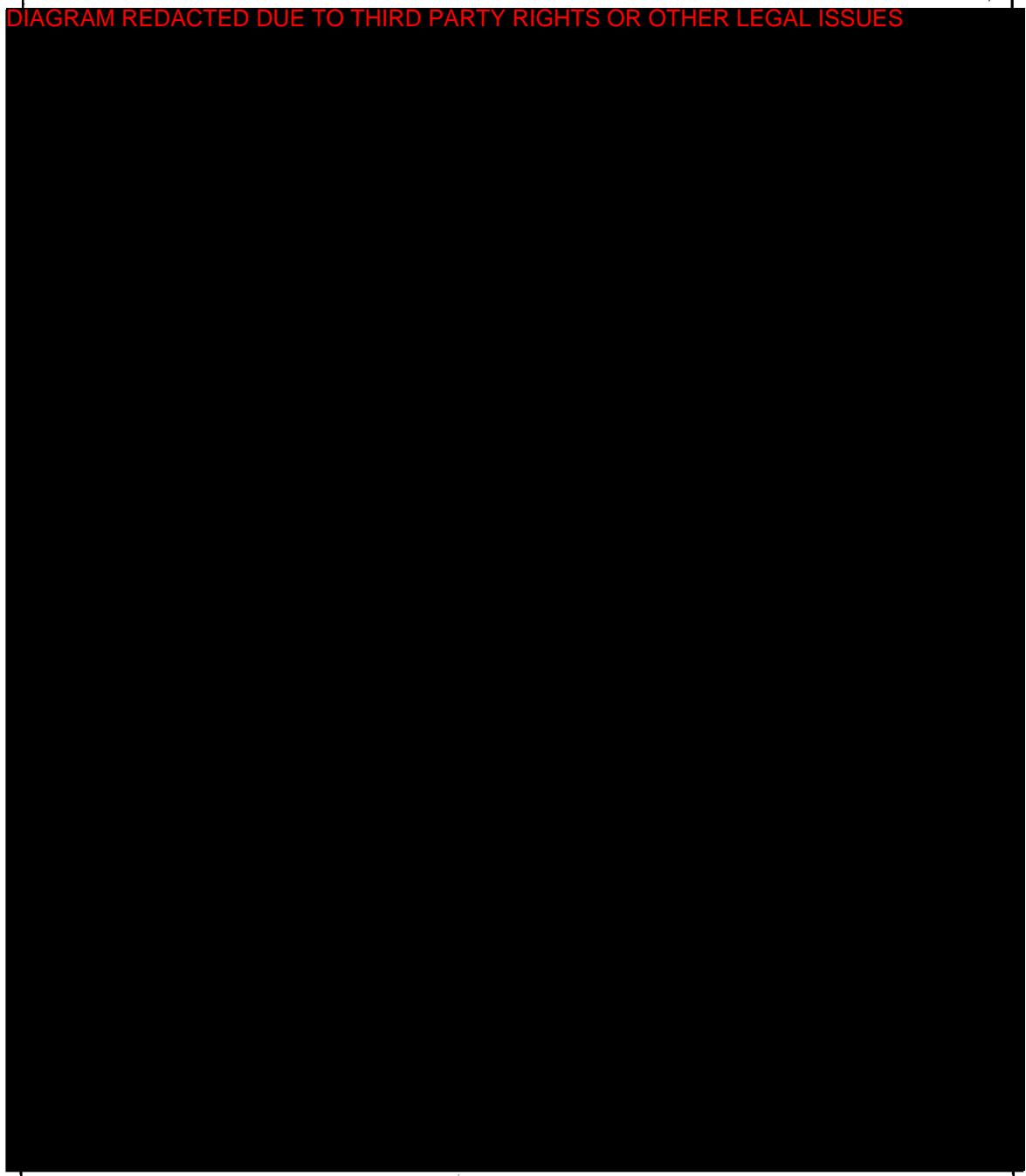
CHAPTER 7

PROJECT RONDON

Background

Project Rondon first emerged in July 1967. Thanks to the initiative

of several university professors and students, as a partial reaction against

the university lack of positive involvement into the national social and

economic problems, in a phase in which society was undergoing a profound

transformation. The issue of the internationalisation of the Amazon

Region also shook the students' sensibility, provoking them to take

some constructive action.

With the support of certain institutions and private individuals,

27 students left the University of Guanabara State in an airplane provided

by the Ministry of the Interior, led by a professor acting as co-ordinator.

Their destination was the territory of Rondonia, and they spent 30 days

in the capital, and in six other municipalities. The students who were

specialised in various subjects, were to take different activities on

their arrival in the region. The engineering students worked on a small

reservoir project and the opening of new roads. The activities of the

medical students covered a radius of 480 kilometers. They improvised

with the instruments in their possession, and provided an emergency first-

aid service, saving incidentally, the life of a child who had met with a

serious accident. Geo-science students studied the soil for agricultural

settlements and made an economic survey for the region. Documentation

and communication students recorded the activities of the groups on film,

which would later serve as a valuable record.

The enthusiasm of the students after such a rich experience,

supported by positive public opinion, encouraged the Ministries involved

to provide the Project with the means to continue.

Project Rondon acquired permanent status in July 1968, through Decree No. 62927. Through the creation of FUNRONDON (FUND created specifically for this Project) in 1970, more autonomy - administrative and economic - was given to it; in 1971 the Minister of the Interior, created the Representative Board in addition to Regional and State Co-ordinations as a support to university activities and to maintain their philosophies. In 1973 the definitive text of Project Rondon's internal regulations was approved giving it its definitive organic structure.

The origin of its name - Rondon - is in acknowledgement to Marshal Candido Mariano da Silva Rondon, the pioneer of national integration in Brazil.

Objective

Its objective is the planned development of the Brazilian interior through the university. University students are regarded as the main means of social transformation, since it is expected that they will gain a feeling of national unity necessary for Brazil's future leaders.

Gradually, with experience, some principles were adopted to guide these national activities. Among them were: 1. volunteer membership; 2. the use of the university recess to intensify activities; 3. absence of political party; 4. indirect training through service (on-the-job training).

More specifically, one could place Project Rondon's objectives in three main categories:- basic, complementary and manpower supply. The basics are those which act in the field of development and national integration aiming for the following:

a) The organisation, implementation and co-ordination of student training in activities requiring university and technical knowledge.

b) The co-operation, through agreements, with private and governmental organisations, in order to fulfil the policy of integral development between

both types of organisations, and to supply specialised technical

assistance needed for the Municipal public administrations.

c) The promotion of community development programmes for micro-

regions considered to be of prior importance.

d) The promotion of training in the big cities for university

students from less developed areas to the future benefit of those

areas when they return.

The complementary objectives refer more directly to learning, and

are in close collaboration with the Ministry of Education and Culture,

in order to promote the following:

a) Practical professional training in ecological areas other than

that of the university for two reasons: to provide students with actual

practice in a specific branch of knowledge and with a factual acquaintance

of the more extensive anthropological characteristics of Brazil.

b) To establish and implement Advanced Campuses[1] as a permanent

extension of one or several university headquarters in the interior of the

country.

c) To promote and co-ordinate programmes for manpower qualification,

as a complementary programme of "Advanced Campuses".

d) To relate university learning and activities with the problems of

local development.

With respect to the labour market and manpower supply, the objectives

are as follows:

a) Knowledge of the wide range of conditions in Brazil as a whole,

creating possibilities (through Advanced Campuses and University training)

for the establishment of technical professionals in the interior.

b) Training for intermediary occupations for the population in the

interior, stimulating the labour market and providing the existing workforce

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[1] Advanced Campuses are described in more detail on page 161 within
Geographical Coverage.

with qualifications.

c) Create the opening of new job opportunities, through common efforts with specialised organisations and through formal agreements.[1]

Geographical Coverage

If the interior of Brazil could be excluded the country would be reduced to an insignificant area, incapable of self-sufficiency. Its potential in cereal reserves is located in the interior and so it is up to the great urban centres to give the interior maximum support, to keep it at a reasonable stage of development. The interior as referred to here, includes not only the hinterland but also the areas that border the seashore, not being a centre of any state or federal government. Higher education supply in the interior was needed very much as a result of the demand for schooling at lower levels and to supply the communities with a qualified labour force. Project Rondon emerged to fulfil these needs in the remote areas.

The Project expects to involve university students throughout the country, maintaining however, its principle of voluntary participation. Its expansion will depend upon the response of students towards the Project, upon the co-operation of the Universities and Municipalities, and on financial resources.

Almost half a million students will be involved during the next five years (1975-1979) representing 7.5 percent of the university student population in Brazil.

Project Rondon has organised its activities into several different operations. The national operation is characterised by an exchange of students from differing regions enabling them to become acquainted with conditions throughout Brazil. The national operation takes place annually, during the long academic recess of January and February.

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[1] Projeto Rondon, história, filosofia, objetivos, estrutura, Funrondon, atuação, pp.8-9 in A Universidade Brasileira e o Projeto Rondon, Brasília, Projeto Rondon 1974, p.10.

In the regional operations, the exchange of university students takes place among states within the same region. This operation takes place during the academic recess in July. Like the national operation the regional one evolves by concentrating on chosen micro-regions of the interior, to provide the locality with more continuous and effective co-operation.

Classified as special operations are the programmes which occur at any time during the academic year. They emerged from the special need for a qualified labour force to cope with programmes of research, cultural activities and implementation in private or public organisations in any given community.

The above-mentioned operations have been of a temporary nature. In order to give to the Project Rondon a more permanent character "Advanced Campuses" have been set up.

Advanced Campus is defined as being a university training centre located in less developed regions, and under the supervision of a university established in an urban area, usually from another region of Brazil. Each Advanced Campus is designed to accommodate university students and a number of staff, on a permanent basis. Students and staff alternate periodically and their activities are considered part of the university curriculum. In this way, students and staff work together to bring education and service to the microregion in which the Advanced Campus is situated.

The choice of microregion for the implementation of an Advanced Campus is made by the Project Rondon, according to directives received from the Ministry of the Interior, based on the national policy of development. Two important elements must be taken into consideration: the greater socio-economic influence of a particular locality on the neighbouring Municipalities, and the receptiveness of local authorities

towards the Project as shown in specially drawn up plans. It is the

Project's responsibility to select the university best fitted to house,

manage and direct an Advanced Campus, and to supply the premises with

necessary equipment.

In 1973 26,200 students were involved in various operations.[1]

This shows an immense growth since the first 27 pioneers in 1967. It

was intended that 30 Advanced Campuses (21 in 1973) would be established

by 1976, in 30 microregions, comprising 150 Municipalities. By 1985,

according to the Pluri-annual Plan, 100 microregions will be covered by

Project Rondon's activities, involving 1,200 Municipalities. One of its

important operations although by no means the most extensive, has been to

establish a highly qualified labour force in the interior. This is its

most recent operation. In 1975 it was supposed to receive 300 professionals,

so that by 1979 the number of professionals in the interior will total

5,000. Although this programme of establishing professional personnel

started on a small scale, it so far seems to have solved the need for an

efficient labour force in the interior. At the same time, new job

opportunities have been created, justifying economically the investment

in education.

Structure and Staff

The Project has concentrated its activities on communities with a

population between 0 and 15,000 inhabitants.[2]

In order to cover the entire country, its general headquarters was

based in Brasilia, and the country was divided into eight separate

regions with the headquarters of those regions located in the main capital

cities of the country. It created 15 State co-ordination headquarters,

one situated in the Federal District, and 31 headquarters for geographical

area co-ordinations. These different co-ordination headquarters provide

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[1] Reporter Rondon, special edition; Projeto Rondon Informations, p.21,
Brasilia, 8th March 1974.

[2] See Diagram (7:1).

the real backbone support necessary for the successful realisation of the activities of the universities and their students, especially during the period of transfer away from their regions of origin.

The following are the main components which provide the basic structure for the Project Rondon.[1]

The Deliberative Board is a collegiate board, which guides the policy, co-ordinates it and gives support at national level to the Project's activities. Support is essential to the students' projects since they involve almost all aspects of responsibility in the Public Service. The Collegiate Board is composed of 12 representatives from the various ministries, plus the representatives of the University Board of Rectors. Although decision-making involves them all, each of these institutions has its own particular responsibilities in the Project. The representative of the Ministry of the Interior is always the President of the Board and acts as General Co-ordinator. This Ministry provides the Project with a budget, and the premises in which to operate. It has been customary for the regional, state and area co-ordinators to be chosen from the university staff or from the Army; the prestige of the latter and their past experience in assisting people to move from place to place, has led to the adoption of this custom. The provision of air transport is the responsibility of the Air Force. The communications network enabling the various operations to take place smoothly throughout the country, falls upon the Navy. The Ministry of Planning gives its support to special projects in "Advanced Campuses" and to the programme for establishing professional people in the interior.

Visits of foreign delegations and newsmen, and the transfer of students from special areas to "Advanced Campuses" are all arranged by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

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[1] See Diagrams (7:2) and (7:3).

The main responsibilities of the Ministry of Education is helping the Federal Universities to become involved in the programmes of the "Advanced Campuses". Many of the existing national health institutions are involved in the Project, providing the supervision required by the students, and benefiting from the valuable services in the interior. This is possible thanks to the direct collaboration of the Ministry of Health. The assistance of students in the construction of roads and bridges in the interior receives the full co-operation of the Ministry of Transport. The Ministry of Mining and Energy provides the students with the opportunity to gain experience in mineral research, either during the academic recess, or on a permanent basis. Full support is given by the Ministry of Agriculture to involve students in agrarian planning.

Students receive grants when undergoing "on-the-job" training in certain programmes, mainly those which envisage their remaining in the training area. Such grants are controlled and distributed through the Ministry of Labour.

Besides the Deliberative Board which constitutes the top of the hierarchy, Project Rondon is also supported by the following bodies: General Co-ordination, Universities, Boards of Representatives, Planning and Operation Centres and Centres or Sectors of Administration and Finance.

The General Co-ordination body directs, co-ordinates and controls all Project Rondon's activities, giving full support to the regional, state and area headquarter co-ordinations, under its control.

Universities. Most of the activities in an "Advanced Campus" are the responsibility of a particular university, which maintains a constant programme of activities outside its geographical area.

Boards of Representatives. The members are the representatives of their respective community groups, and their objectives are directed towards

propagating Project Rondon's activities, collaborating in fund-raising
schemes, suggesting programmes and organising priority plans and
projects for the development of a particular geographical area. This
is always done in co-operation with the policy of the regional, state
and area headquarter co-ordinations to which they are linked.

Planning and Operation Centre. This centre is concerned with the
planning of operations, submitting them to the general co-ordination
headquarter. These centres in the state sphere are called sectors.

Centre or Sector of Administration and Finance, as the title
suggests, this is the responsible body for the administration and
finance of a regional or state subdivisional area.

While the Minister of the Interior designates the members of the
Deliberative Board indicated by their respective organisations, it is up
to the General Co-ordinator to designate or discuss his staff, regional,
state co-ordinators and heads of operational units at central level. The
terms of contract of administrative personnel are contained in the
procedure notices regulated by the Labour Laws.

Provision for Project Rondon's financial needs is made in the
national Budget. Other provision comes from private donations and
subventions all of which are administered through FUNRONDON.[1]

Methodology

The method adopted can be summed up as follows:- integrated action.
Integrated action is meant to describe a work team composed of a group of
students and members of a specific community, collaborating in a joint
effort to solve the problems with which they are faced, more quickly and
effectively. This method requires that the work team possess a previous
knowledge of the conditions of the locality so as to draw up a plan of
action, making use of the diversity of specialities possessed by the

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[1]See page 158.

students trained for this kind of programme. The community activities
must be of an interdisciplinary nature, affecting, simultaneously,
various social systems. In this way, the integrated action becomes
effective with the participation of each member of the work team who
attempts to solve the same problem from the point of view of his/her
specialisation, supported by or pushing the community involvement.

Selection and Knowledge of the Area. Selection of areas where the
Project will function is made by some twenty criteria established by the
General Co-ordinator. The interest and support of local and regional
authorities towards the Project constitute one of the most important
items. Subsequent to the selection, is the study of the area which
provides the elements to make the programmes, indicating also the
composition of the specialisations necessary to form the group of students.
Acquaintance with the area is made by surveying secondary sources,
analysis, interpretation of data and by previous visits to the locality
by a representative of the Project, in order to become more familiar with
the attitudes and aspirations of the people.

Plan of activity comprises a set of documents with information
which guarantees a good performance in the field. The list is the
following:

1. Information about the geographical aspects; 2. map of the state
and of the Municipality involved; 3. composition of the group of students
with their specialisations; 4. descriptions of the projects which will be
developed through the period; 5. a copy of the agreement and a document
of the institution which will support the project in the Municipality;
6. a plan for the provision of transport and communication for the group
work in the area. Obviously this list must be complete prior to any
move to the locality.

Multiprofessional group of students. . Each multiprofessional team

has on average six students. Interaction among the members constitutes

a rich experience for them. Coming from different backgrounds, they

learn how to work together and to understand other professions better.

This system facilitates also the team's understanding of the complex

situations and problems found in the reality of a small or large

community.

Training. Each student engaged in the Project Rondon must undergo

a period of preparation before, and during, the field work. Hence, there

is a basic training taken in two steps. In the first step, the student

becomes familiar with the different national or regional aspects of the

country, and with the Project Rondon - its goals, objectives, directives

and activities. In the second step, the student learns by doing his small

projects, the dynamics and methods for approaching the community.

The head of a team is a student specially trained for this function,

and with an itinerant supervisor, provides the necessary orientation for

the group during their activity. This systematic guidance is known as

regular training.

For the special operations, the students have both basic and special

training, since the objectives are very specific and might require

special working techniques.

Systematic Evaluation Procedure. In order to avoid any bottleneck at

any phase of the Project, and to make it each time more efficient, a system

of evaluation was nationally adopted and processed electronically, in the

form of questionnaires filled in by co-ordinators, students, participants

and supervisors.

The results of this data analysis has been very helpful in planning

future programmes, as it is stated in the report.

Impact and Accomplishment of the Project Rondon

The response of the university students demonstrated by the increasing

number of volunteers enrolled in the Project from 1967 on, is of itself an

indication of the value of its experimental activities.

From 27 members in 1967, the eight national operations have grown quickly and steadily, reaching 4,811 members enrolled in 1974.[1] This repeated experience has really made an impact on the students, one of whom has stated: "In fact, literature, books, movies and news are insufficient to express this reality. Only by going and seeing and feeling and living does one obtain the real notion of the entire reality - in the positive and negative aspects."[2]

In the evolution of this operation there were some oscillations in the enrolments, which were however solved later by the national system of training. The cost of national operation was very high because of the logistic support necessary before and during the operation. This is the reason why its expansion was frozen at about five thousand students and it was decided for a larger expansion of regional operations and of advanced campuses.

Following the approach of the national operation, the regional one initiated its programme in 1969 with 1,524 students and in 1973 was the largest with 6,658 enrolments all over the country. In 1974 provision was made for an increase to 8,000 students,[3] consisting of 0.8 percent of the Brazilian university population. This operation makes a smaller impact on students, since the experiences are more restricted. Conditions among states in the same region do not differ that much. However, it seems the students' attitudes are more acceptable to the community visited because of a lesser cultural difference. The possibility of these students of today acting as professionals of tomorrow in these areas, also became less remote.

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[1] See Diagram (7:4).

[2] Reporter Rondon, Hernani Orifice's witness, p.10, Brasília D.F. 8th March 1974.

[3] See Diagram (7:5).

The implementation and expansion of the two above operations, did not prevent Project Rondon from opening new fronts of supply for the demands of communities for new kinds of operations. For example the special operation emerged from the need for continuing activities in some communities. Created to reach the same aims of national integration, it has more flexibility, can occur at any time during the year, and has flexible period of duration. About one hundred special operations were initiated in 1973, with 3,563 students reaching 746 municipalities. This operation tends to expand more rapidly. There are plans for involving 92 thousand students in it, from 1975 to 1979.

A significant picture of the multiplication of the Advanced Campuses in the Brazilian interior during the period between 1969 and 1974 can be seen in the diagrams[1] and map which also illustrate the relationship of the Campuses with their respective universities.[2]

A trend of urban concentration has a double negative effect in Brazil, since it puts pressure on the cities and empties the interior. The interior with a sparse population does not offer attractive conditions for professionals such as doctors, teachers, agriculture technicians and lawyers, all of whom are needed to promote progress. As a result, life becomes without prospects. In these deprived communities the problems of health and education increase because there is no socio-economic assistance, and a low productivity is inevitable. On the other hand, the graduate student, from the beginning of his career has to cope with strong professional competition, since the demographic concentration in the big urban centres corresponds with the concentration of specialists at all levels.

Before 1972, 50 professionals decided to live in the Federal territory of Roraima, in the northern part of the country, as soon as

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[1] See Diagrams (7:6) and (7:7).

[2] For increase in the number of students participating in Advanced Campuses activities, see distribution on the map (7:1).

they graduated in a southern University. This decision was due to their

pioneer attitude to development and to the potentialities of the region.

This induced Project Rondon to open another front to encourage and to

support young professionals going to live in the interior. By 1974,

42 other technicians made their residence in the interior of the

northern region.

The latest responsibility Project Rondon has undertaken is the

administrative burden of a part-time remunerated on-the-job training

programme which will continue to expand widely. Absorbing in 1975, 20,000

students, it intends to increase to 25,000 in 1976, 30,000 in 1977, 45,000

in 1978 and 60,000 students in 1979. In this programme, students do not

necessarily have to work in the interior themselves as on the previous

programmes. Since the ultimate aim of the Project Rondon is development.

the justification for remunerated on-the-job training programme was that

students could benefit from their acquaintance with the dynamics of

development in some local public organisations. It was also an

opportunity to familiarise them with agencies which might absorb them

later.

Project Rondon's accomplishment has been demonstrated through its

large and continuous expansion of programmes, and the adherence of the

university students. What is impossible to determine is the degree to

which changes in the attitudes of the new professionals with such

experiences have taken place. It seems that there are more reasons to

believe they have taken place than that they have not. As a participant

in his report stated categorically: "No student will be totally ready

and mature to exercise a profession and his civic duties unless he

participates in the Project Rondon."[1]

The effect of the Project on the community can be observed through the

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[1] Op.cit., p.10.

individual report each student has to present to the Project co-ordination at the end of his or her programmes. In these reports are details of their experiences of several aspects of the social universe. Access to these documents is limited to the co-ordinator who uses them as sources of imformation and to improve the operations that follow.

In order to reveal to the general public the activities of the students in their areas of action and to spread information about the interior of Brazil, annual prizes were established for the best work on: 1. a report of aspects of the Project Rondon; 2. photography; 3. regional research; 4. mapping; 5. studies on Advanced Campuses. The successful pieces of work are also published and the information can be used by the universities and by the communities, for further research and action.

I was able to read a prize-winning study of the system of education in the Municipality of Maraba.[1] This study contains an objective analysis of the system and if the authorities decide to use it they will find good recommendations for directing their decisions. Hence, these types of study can be just as relevant in precipitating important changes as in influencing the community leaders.

Reports about the Project Rondon do not make evident how integrated these operations have been, as a co-operative work between the community members and students. I would suggest its method of operation has been mostly of service assistance. There is no evidence that the community engaged in the work has continued its involvement and its desire to work together, after the group of students has left the area at the end of the period. This continuation is exactly what is required to promote development in the area.

It would be an overstatement to assert that Project Rondon, with its six different fronts at present (national operation, regional operation,

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[1] Andrello, Rubens and Tartaglia, Clotilde. Características de um município. Projeto Rondon, Estudos Regionais 2.

special operation, advanced campuses, settlement of professionals in the

interior and remunerated on-the-job training programme) has been the

complete answer to the process of development in the country. It does

not claim to be an institution capable of solving national problems.

Limited by conditions of work, mainly the intermittent periods of

activities, it would be impossible in a short period of time to change

the socio-economic structure of the communities in the interior. Its

aim is only to work on a volunteer basis with official organisations

or other enterprises which have the same goals of national integration.[1]

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[1] "Tamos Integrando"- Projeto Rondon, VII, p.3.

DIAGRAM(7:1)

POPULATION OF THE MUNICIPALITIES BENEFITED BY
PROJECT RONDON
FROM 1969 to 1973

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
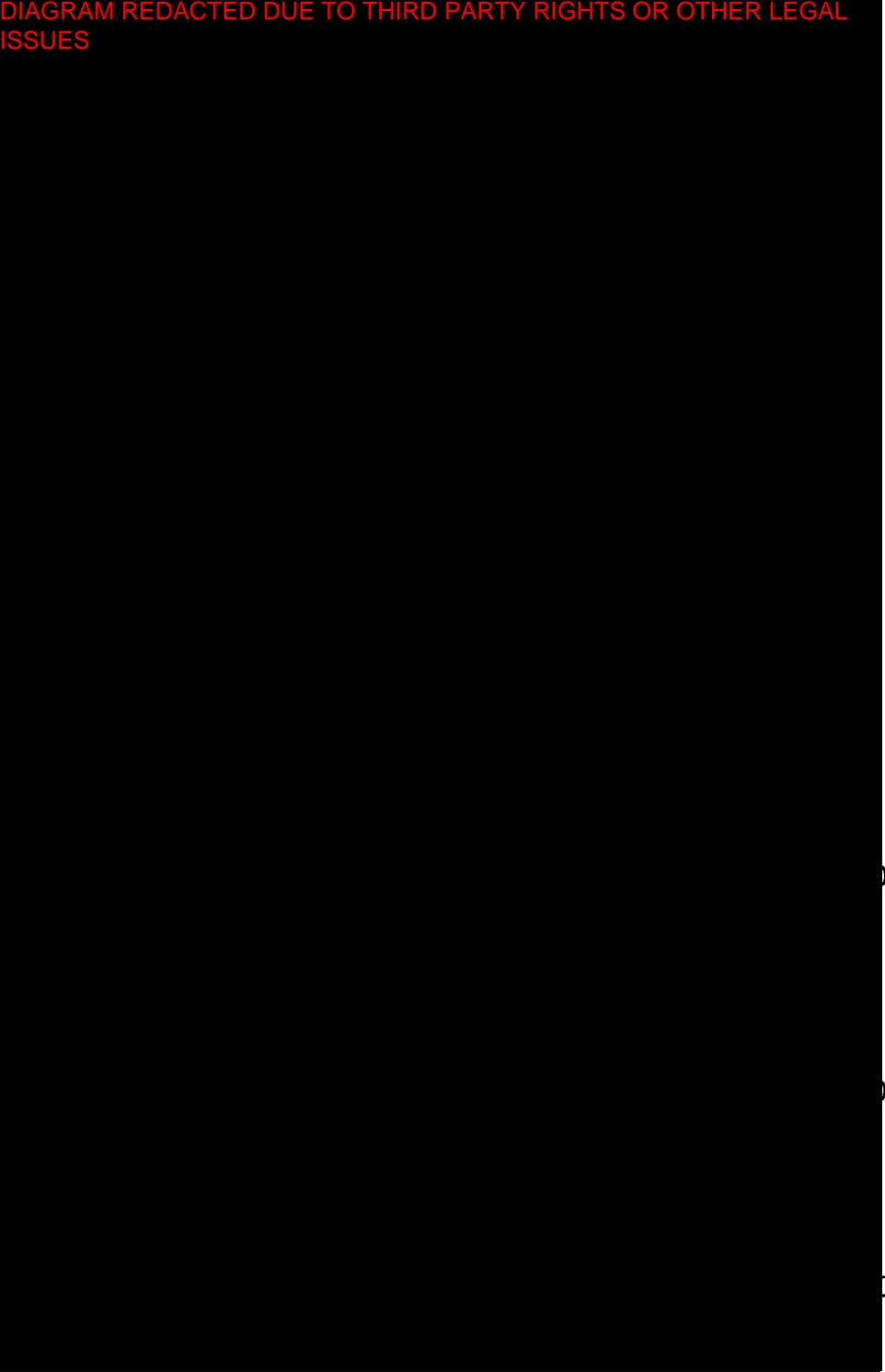
Source: ORGÃO NACIONAL DE INFORMAÇÃO DO PROJETO RONDON, Reporter Rondon, Brasilia: 8 de março de 1974, p. 3.

DIAGRAM(7:2)

GENERAL STRUCTURE OF PROJECT RONDON

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
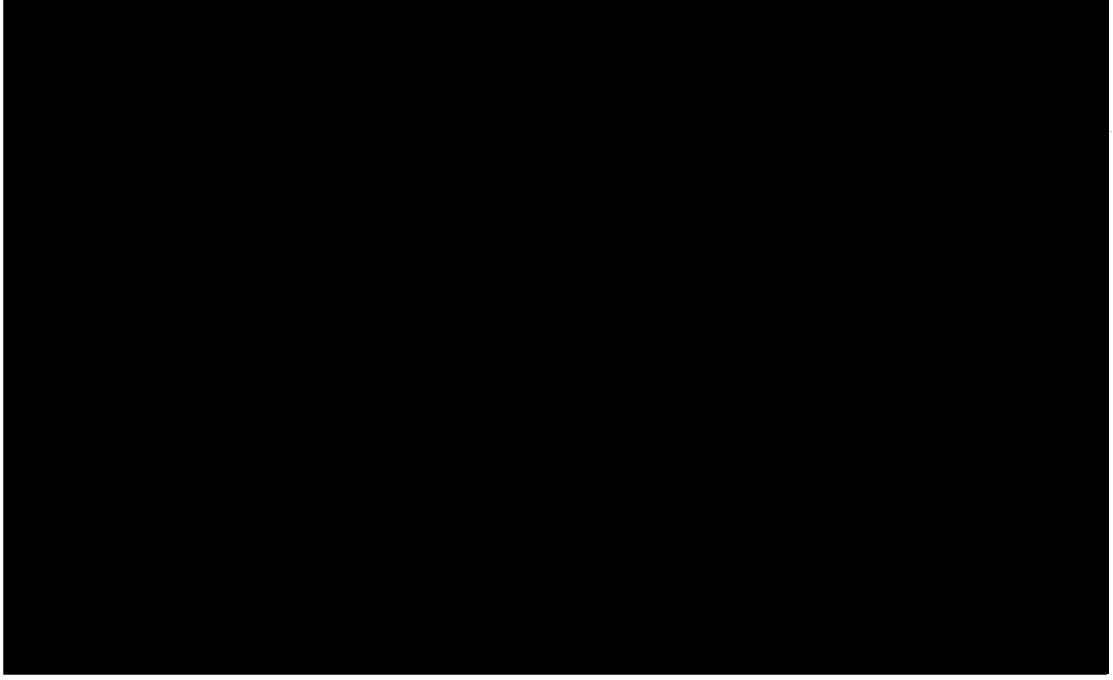
Source: Reporter Rondon,op. cit.,pp 12-13.

DIAGRAM(7:3)

STRUCTURE OF REGIONAL & STATE COORDINATION HEADQUARTERS

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
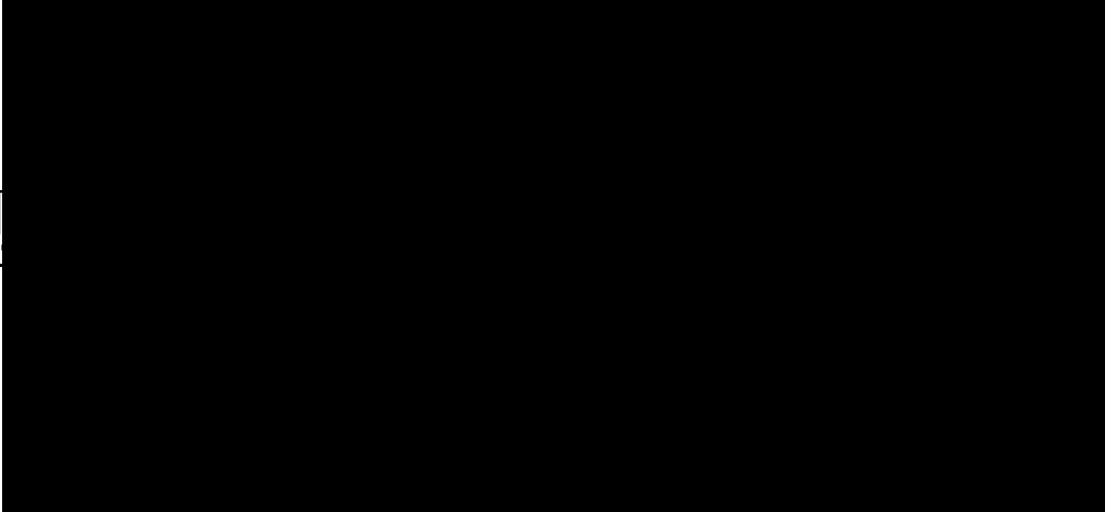
Source: Reporter Rondon:,op.cit.,12,13.

DIAGRAM(7:4)

EVOLUTION OF THE NATIONAL OPERATION

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
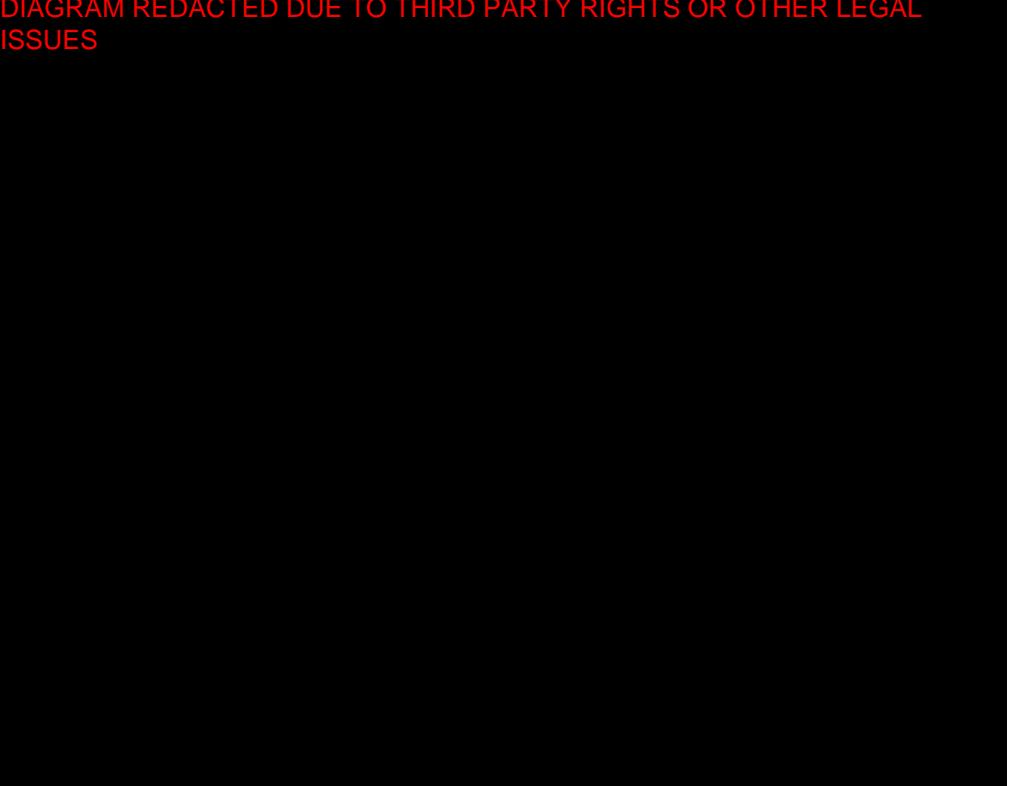
Source : Reporter Rondon,op.cit.,p.5

DIAGRAM(7:5)

EVOLUTION OF THE REGIONAL OPERATION

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
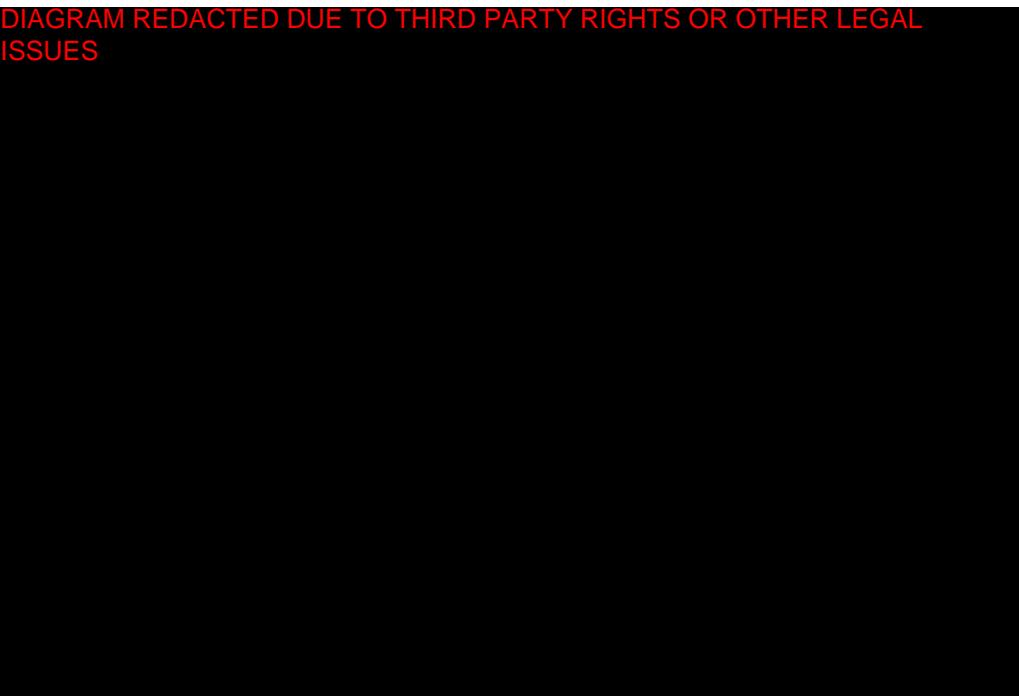
Source : Reporter Rondon,op.cit.,p.7.

DIAGRAM(7:6)

EVOLUTION OF THE ADVANCED CAMPUSES

1969 to 1974

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER
LEGAL ISSUES

Source:Reporter Rondon,op.cit.,p14
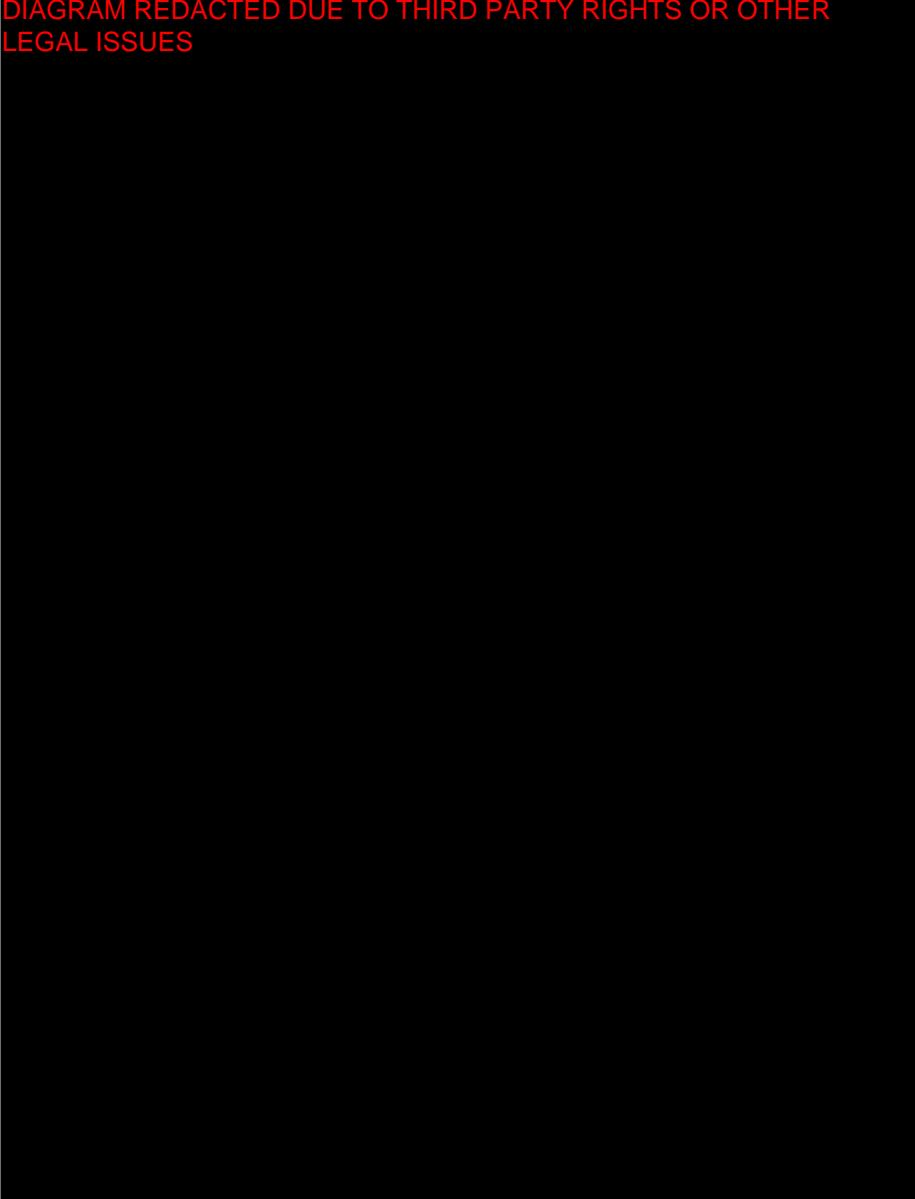
DIAGRAM(7:7)

STUDENT PARTICIPATION GROWTH ON
ADVANCED CAMPUSES

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source:Reporter Rondon, op.cit.,p.9
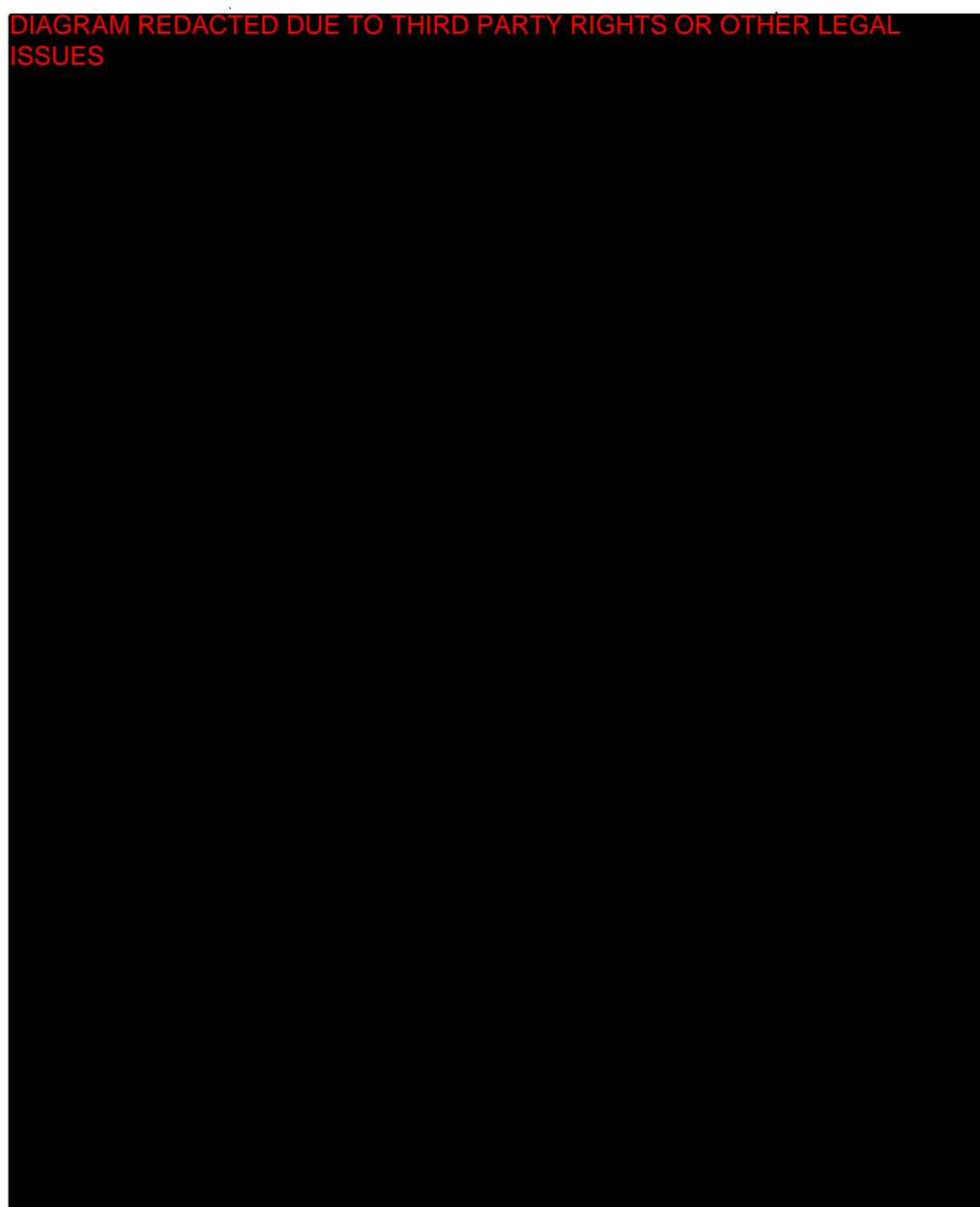
MAP(8:1)

MICROREGION OF URUBURETAMA — ▲ MR3

(STATE OF CEARA)

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source:I PLANO QUINQUENAL DE DESENVOLVIMENTO DO ESTADO DO CEARÁ
FORTALEZA:1975
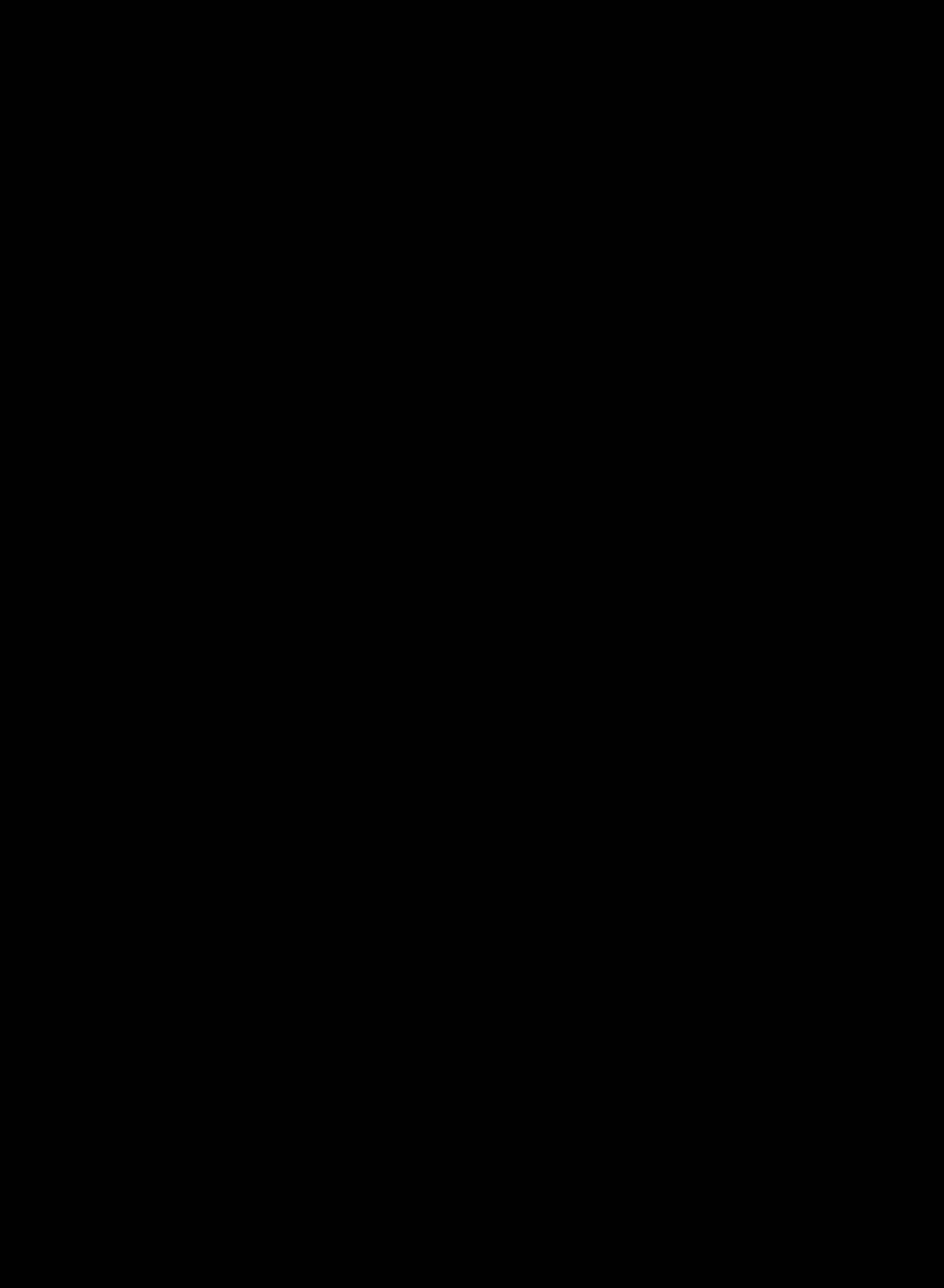
CHAPTER 8

C.R. U.T.A.C.

(UNIVERSITY CENTRE FOR RURAL TRAINING AND COMMUNITY ACTION)

Background

The purpose of this programme[1] was to prepare students for the environmental conditions where they were going to perform their professional activities and to meet fundamental cultural needs of the development process. It was first developed in the University of Rio Grande do Norte (Northeast Brazil) under the inspiration of the University rector, Dr. Orofre Lopes, and it conveyed a desire to apply higher teaching adequately to rural reality. Two main objectives were established:

1. adequate training for future professional staff considering the conditions of the large areas of the interior;

2. education for the rural population, integrating large numbers of people into the process of development of the region and of the country.

From Rio Grande do Norte University the programme spread to other states. They maintained the above principles but were free to adapt approaches and methodology to the conditions of each particular State and university. Maranhão, Pernambuco, Sergipe, Ceará, Paraiba and the regional University of Mossoró created their own CRUTAC. At present several other universities are also establishing their own programmes.[2]

Objective

CRUTAC-CE (Ceará CRUTAC) was founded in December 1971 as a programme of the Extra-Mural Department of the Federal University of Ceará. The

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[1] Programme and project are terms which can sometimes be used synonymously.

[2] Onofre Lopes, CRUTAC AND CINCRUTAC (Universitarian Rural Training Service Rendered to the Community), Natal: University Press, 1973.

ceremony took place in Itapipoca, the seat of the geographical microregion

3, which was chosen as the operational area for the programme.

At that time their objectives were stated as:

1.   To provide supervised rural training for final year undergraduates

     (probationaries).

2.   To take steps leading to the promotion and development of the

     communities.

Geographical Coverage

Coast, hills, and the hinterland are the main features which

characterise the physical and geographical aspects of the State of Ceará,

dictating somehow the type of economy the State can develop.

Microregion 3 has in a smaller proportion same type of geographical

features. This was one of the reasons why it was chosen to initiate the

programme of CRUTAC-CE. It has a good representation of the population

spread in a significant area. Its average density corresponds

approximately to that existing in the Northeast Region of Brazil as a

whole. It had already been identified by the National Plan for

Development as one of the development centres; hence, it constitutes the

58th national centre for development. It has an easy access to the

capital city and local population was not reckoned as antipositive

towards innovation.

The operational area encompasses 1,717 square kilometres and a

population of 302,506 inhabitants. It has 10 Municipalities consisting of

their respective 10 urban district headquarters and their constituent

rural districts.

This microregion is located near the state capital within a radius

of about 100 kilometres. Its 10 Municipalities are linked with the

capital city and among themselves by roads, mostly made of asphalt. Most

of this microregion is covered by electrical power generated from Paulo

Afonso Falls, the hydroelectric source of energy for all northeast Brazil.

The Uruburetama Microregion as it is called, with its three

different ecological zones, cultivates among the main products in the

coastal zones: manioc, coconut, cashew, subsistence crops - beans and

corn - and fishing. The hilly zone is the main banana producer for the

state. Subsistence farming on the slopes contributes to the continuous

erosion of the soil. In the hinterland (sertao) cotton and livestock are

the main products and resources of the economy which is basically

agricultural.

In terms of economy this microregion is of low productivity due

mainly to the inappropriate technology. Farm properties are of small

and medium size (2 to 10 ha) cultivated in a very traditional way,

usually by the family. Financial resources are insufficient and limit

the agricultural development of the area. The cultural stage of the

population is not advanced enough for the undertaking of credit

arrangements besides, it is too risky for their already low productivity

to introduce new techniques since they are not so sure whether the results

will be sufficient to cover the expenses and credit obligations.

Population density is around 28 inhabitants per square kilometre.

This varies according to the physical geographical conditions, being

more concentrated on the hills and valleys, while in the hinterland and the

coastal zone it is more sparse. The biggest population concentrations

are found in the Itapipoca Municipality, holding 95,590 inhabitants,

followed by Itapajé and Uruburetama with 30 and 35 thousand, respectively.

The Microregion of Uruburetama is predominantly rural, 77.1 percent

of its population being in the rural areas. Urban population is

concentrated mainly in the district seats of each administrative

Municipality. Itapipoca and Itapajé districts are the largest urban

centres of the region with 12,196 and 8,249 inhabitants respectively.

There has been a continuous decrease in the rate of population growth;

while in the decade 1940/1950 the growth rate was 3 percent yearly, in

1970 it presented only 1.8 percent growth, contrasting with the growth

rate for the whole state which was of 3 percent. The reason for this

exodus is that the capital city with all its facilities, is very easy

to reach and it represents always a temptation to escape from rural

economic hardship.

Structure and Staff

        The Ministry of Education and Culture, after assessing very highly

the experience, value and effects of CRUTAC programme initiated in the

University of Rio Grande do Norte, decided to include it among the 33

national priority projects within the three-year period 1972-1974.

The programme implementation started by the Federal universities from the

north and northeast areas of the country formed a committee at the national

level: CINCRUTAC - under the jurisdiction of the Department of University

Affairs of the Ministry of Education and Culture. This committee -

CINCRUTAC - is responsible for drawing the broad directive for the

programme and works for each university as a source of information and

resources allocation. Although this committee existing at national level,

each university has its own autonomy to make its own programme, adopting

the methodology and processes which mostly suit the regional circumstances

and each particular university. So, CRUTAC programme can be part of

different departments, depending on the structure of each university.

        In the Federal University of Ceará, this programme is part of the

Extra-Mural Department. It has a co-ordinator nominated by the university

rector in consultation with the vice-rector (head of the Extra-Mural

Department) and is chosen among the members of the University academic

staff.[1]

        At the head of the hierarchical structure for the programme, there

is a committee formed by a representative from each of the university

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[1]CRUTAC-CE, published report, 1972.

centres: Applied Social Sciences, Health, Sciences, Technology and Humanity. This committee under the vice rector extra-mural department presidency and the co-ordinator as executive secretary, decides on the main directives, activities and procedures the programme must adopt to carry out its aims. In addition, each university department has nominated a member of its academic staff to be the link between that department and CRUTAC-CE. These members' roles are very important in selecting students, publishing CRUTAC-CE projects and very often, supervising projects of their area of study in the field. If the microregion offers conditions and is in need of a permanent project, usually the representative of the respective department puts part-time or even full-time supervising students to work on that special project.

CRUTAC-CE's academic programmes are supported by an administrative staff, seated at the university headquarters, in the capital city. At microregional level, based on the headquarters district (Itapipoca) there is a local co-ordinator, whose main function is to co-ordinate CRUTAC-CE's projects in the area, offering physical conditions and facilitating contacts between university and the community, between students and the professionals of the area. The co-ordinator is a professional himself and besides his administrative tasks, he is also a supervisor for the students of his own profession. His job ranges from solving accommodation and food problems for the students to professional relations and activities in the area of activities.

The co-ordinator does not belong to the university staff, although he receives from the programme payment for his/her extra responsibility. The selection of the local co-ordinator is made through a careful local survey among local leaders and professionals, who are influential and belong to an influential institution at the local level and who are not too politically involved to be able in good will to work with the different sides.

Methodology

Having defined the programme objectives, its criteria for geographical coverage, its staff, twelve main principles direct the methodological procedures.

1. To stimulate community self reliance avoiding any form of patronage.

2. Activities to be developed should be in proportion to the needs and conditions offered by the rural population or created from a mutual effort - university and community together.

3. Values, customs, habits of the rural population should be respected.

4. Any change should be a consequence of effective co-operative work demonstrated and induced to the population or groups by democratic practice.

5. All governmental or private institutions should be involved in the co-operative programme carried out with CRUTAC-CE.

6. Community human resources should be the main target to implement rural development through means of training personnel and supervision on the job.

7. CRUTAC-CE programmes should attempt the involvement of the university as a whole and not only of particular departments.

8. During the professional training in the rural environment, students from different sectors should develop co-operative activities, integrating them to a better understanding of each other's professions and enriching each other's programmes with their effective participation and contribution.

9. To expose students to activities in order to develop their observations and research potentialities, adopting scientific precision as far as possible in their tasks.

10. To approximate the community and its professionals to the university academic staff in order to decrease the human relation distance and at the same time, their theoretical knowledge to the practical use of it.

11.   To test innovations in administrative and academic procedures and new systems of evaluating results.

12.   To publish the research in order to up-date university curricula and to accumulate knowledge for the public and private institutions' use.

With these 12 principles stated, the committee decided to implement the whole project in four districts of Itapipoca Municipality but with different physical and geographical characteristics. They were: in coastal area - Icarai District; in the hilly area: Assuncao District; in the hinterland: Sao Bento de Amontada and Itapipoca's Districts.

CRUTAC-CE organised its activities into a master project and three other main elements. The master project is divided into two phases: a) a geo-socio-economic survey, aiming at the identification of the more pressing problems and b) the setting of community and social work to be carried out according to the results of the first phase. Supervision of the students for those activities was provided by the centres of Social Science and Humanities.

It has been recognised that health, education and economy are the areas where co-operation is mostly needed. Hence, these areas are the ones which have had priority when organising programmes. Health has been offering field training for the probationaries of medicine, biological studies, through a plan of integrated activities with the organisms and services already existing in the locality. It provides a programme of public health, also permits inter-school activities. Economy sector co-operates with the economic agencies, especially with those which operate in agriculture and livestock. It aims at the improvement of the new techniques adopted, the study and use of the existing natural resources, and the better utilisation of credit. It is also concerned with the study of plans, the participation in rural campaigns, exhibitions, agricultural education etc., and it offers training conditions for

probationaries in agronomy, engineering, economics, geo-sciences and
veterinary sciences. The educational groups work with the local
educational institutions within the municipal education system, state
and private institutions and provide training and refresher courses for
local teachers, help with the organisation of libraries, the gathering
and systematisation of statistical school data and the organisation of
Municipal education committees. It provides field training for under-
graduates and probationaries in Education, Letters and Library Science.

All projects in the area chosen are first discussed with community
leaders and after assessing their feasibility, co-ordinators start
planning in detail the activities with individual faculty members.
Students (probationaries) are expected to give at least 200 hours work
or 30 working days in the rural community. For that purpose, they are
freed from any other attachment at the university and by special law of
the Federal Government, if they are public servants.

Before this law was passed, most students did their field work
during the weekends. Activities in the field are arranged in such a way
that there will be students in the area permanently. Thus the projects
will have continuity although students keep changing constantly. Each
group of students before going to the field is trained by CRUTAC-CE training
centre, at its headquarters. It consists of a series of meetings where
the students become acquainted with the projects already taking place
in the field. They receive instructions from specialists in "community
action", in how to operate in the field in order that their activities
will produce any positive effects among the people they are going to work
with. The means of "community", "development", "community action" are
discussed and the ways of dealing with situations where customs, beliefs,
cultures differ from their own. Usually on such occasions students who
have previously worked with CRUTAC-CE are invited to join the meetings and

pass on their observations and findings to the new intake. This procedure has been successful because it has helped the understanding of the projects and familiarised new students with the field community beforehand.

During the first year's experience, CRUTAC-CE searched the problematic aspects of the microregion through a deep knowledge of the representative physiogeographic areas; from the second year onwards it extended its action covering now six Municipalities.

Students are divided into two groups. The first is called permanent because it is supposed to operate only in a district area. Probationaries of this group come from different schools and programme their activities in an interdisciplinary way with the focus on the three basic problematic aspects of the area: educational, agricultural and health conditions of the population. Initially, they organise groups of the community by age and interests and secondly, they organise courses, seminars, activities, lesson demonstrations accordingly; probationaries thus alternate their contributions according to their own special knowledge. They also prepare the population to receive the specific group to take the lead in the activities. Usually, the specific group is formed by students of the same area of study and they are also mobile because when their operation is finished, they immediately go to another district area. The operation programmed by specific groups consists of intensive courses or operations, directed to a special sector on health, education or agriculture.

Thanks to the collaboration of both groups, the population can be prepared and stimulated to involve themselves also in the projects.

Specific groups in the sector of health have been involved in the work of vaccination, first aid courses, laboratory exams, dentistry services, conferences about hygiene, nutrition, combating parasites, etc. In the educational sector, short courses on teaching methods for unqualified teachers have been their main project, supervised by their

own faculty lecturers. In agriculture, how to combat animal diseases,

crop diseases and the use of efficient tools are introduced through

organised demonstrations, when visiting the farms, during meetings,

using slides. These activities are done with groups or with individuals.

Also in agriculture, courses have been organised on soil maintenance,

rural accounting, elaboration of small projects in order to get bank

credits.

School children are also reached directly by those programmes

because the probationaries are invited to deliver talks in the schools.

Accomplishment and Impact

The aim of CRUTAC-CE is to spread itself in as many microregions as

necessary in order to absorb all probationaries of the Federal University

(Ceará State is divided into 23 microregions). However, its aim has not

been reached yet because not only is it expensive but mainly because a

programme with such an objective must expand slowly and steadily, learning

the method from its own experience in the field. It is a slow process

of initial human contacts in order to get from the beginning a good

response on the part of the population. The setting-up of a CRUTAC

infrastructure and the search for local leaders to assume the programme,

is not an easy job. On the other hand, it is not only difficult to secure

acceptance of the programme at the rural areas level but also at the

university level. The introduction of new patterns of student probation,

in the last year of undergraduate studies has been difficult for the

students. Some are already engaged on jobs at the capital city or looking

for work very intensively. From the lecturer's point of view the

temporary moving to rural areas is inconvenient for many because of the

difficulty in combining their numerous activities with one more, seeing

the travelling as being a waste of time when they could be at their

office working for their private benefit.

In Brazil as a whole, each professional is engaged in more than one

job. Since the CRUTAC-CE programme has a double objective - of promoting community self-reliance[1] and professional training for the probationary undergraduate - its accomplishment must be examined through both these aspects.

Looking at the numbers from 1972 and 1973 final reports, one realizes they have increased a great deal; quantity is not the only important aspect, but it means a lot. When the programme eventually wished to supply a sufficient basis for all the probationaries, from 80 who participated during the first year of CRUTAC-CE, the numbers were raised to 148, representing an increase of 85 percent in 1973. The aim, in the long run, is to supply training projects to hold an average of 1,500 probationaries yearly. In 1974 the students' input was only 9.5 percent and in 1975 22.2 percent of the year before.

The geographical area basis has been extended. From four districts in 1972, its range of action in 1975 had reached twenty five districts, comprising six Municipalities in two different microregions.[2] During this time there have been efforts towards finding the proper method to co-operate with districts,most of them still at a stage where conditions are not sufficient to absorb most of the professional labour force. With the exception of the districts headquarters, the interdisciplinary and permanent probationary groups have developed global projects in the main priority sectors of: education, agriculture and health. Techniques of campaigns, demonstrations, group dynamics were most used.

The 1973 report mentioned the existence of _focus groups_ (_equipes focais_) with members of the community to support and give continuity to different programmes previously initiated by other probationary groups. This might be the first structural cell at a rural district level

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[1] Standing on their own feet, taking their own initiative, not expecting all from State or Federal Government.

[2] CRUTAC-CE, unpublished reports, 1973, 1974, 1975.

facilitating the rationality of student services and co-operation with the people of a certain locality. It is remarkable that the need for community group representatives (equipe focal) was felt only in the less served districts.

In the district headquarters, the probationer groups were organised mainly envisaging their professional service at the existing institutions. Hence, less interdisciplinary integration took place and no "equipe focal" were formed. Usually, headquarters districts are better provided with formal institutions for different sectors of public services like hospitals, larger schools, in which probationers could much more easily be incorporated, in order to receive training and increase the institutions output and effectiveness.

Although not on a large scale, CRUTAC-CE succeeded in offering activities for students of the sixteen different areas of study, including: social science, economics, accounting sciences, education, statistics, music, pharmacy, geology, geo-sciences, medicine, letters, engineering, law, dentistry, social welfare services. However, agronomy, nursing, pharmacy, medicine and dentistry were the sectors which provided the largest number of trained students. Two reasons can explain this: first the organisation of courses of studies in these sectors was prepared in such a way as to make students available to remain for one month in a rural district. This arrangement has been a common practice for both sectors - health and agronomy - for a long time. Secondly, it is relatively easy to find a bigger market in the rural area for those occupational activities. Clientele for medical probationers are not found only in hospitals but also in schools, in clubs, where they are invited to conduct courses for different groups of the community.

Having quantified CRUTAC-CE expansion and direction towards its target, it is also necessary to analyse its accomplishment on the part

of community action, second objective of the programme. Community action

is understood as a set of processes which envisage social benefit in all

aspects - political, social, family, religious, of leisure etc. at the

community level. In order that this action takes place, the main step is

to get the population participation in this process. The awareness of

the population towards its need for self-reliance requires time and no

assessment is possible in a short term. All the campaigns, courses,

services, activities launched by CRUTAC-CE will help population

achievements and awareness of their own potentialities.

On assessing the programme supporting statistical data it is

important to prove its "raison d'être" to the university departments.

However, community action, which is the "raison d'être" for the communities

or Municipalities - where the programme is based on them - can be

overlooked, and this always constitutes a big mistake, unless projects

can be made not for short term results but mainly envisaging medium

and long term ones.

To give assistance is acceptable as long as one can also provide

local population with the means necessary for them to cope with their own

needs in the long run.[1] This is one of the important conditions for

development as far as self-reliance attitudes are concerned. CRUTAC-CE,

although a continuous programme, is an internal agency in the local

community; its role is to prepare the community to live independently,

since this programme has the flexibility to move its base from one

microregion to another, according to the actual needs and political

circumstances of both sides.

Institutional organisations have not yet received the due attention

of CRUTAC and this perhaps, could provide some important improvements

on the structural side of the several sectors of the Municipalities.

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[1] Everett Roger, op.cit., pp.323-328.

Results from the Educational Sector: Since 1960 much has been done to

improve the quality of teaching, as the main tool to improve also the

quality of learning in schools.   International aid, national, regional

and state agencies have poured their money into primary education.

Since the number of unqualified teachers is enormous, much of this money

has been directed towards programmes of in-service training for teachers.

The social pressure to increase the number of schools has been great and

the building of school premises has been the second main pool where

agencies have agreed to invest their money.   These programmes have

resulted in more children enrolled at schools.   However, quality of

learning has not improved and the buildings soon deteriorated.   Teachers

after being trained go back to their classrooms; supervisors who are

not sufficient in number and without the minimal conditions to visit

teachers fail to bring them, regularly, a renewed stimulus and soon

teaching practice goes back to the same previous routine practices.

Heads of schools could act as supervisors but they do not assume this

role, reduced to endless administrative operations.   Most of the teachers

teach in a one-teacher school.   In Sao Paulo State, each teacher from a

one-teacher school used to be subordinated to the nearest grouped

school, which made supervision easier but in Ceará State this link has

never been established and one of the reasons is that the majority of

these one-teacher schools is supported by Municipalities' budgets,

whereas schools having different forms are supported by the state; they

simply do not have any link and obligation towards each other.   Programmes

of buildings have expanded but maintenance constitutes a big problem

for the state and Municipality to cope with, having at least three shifts

of children to hold every day.

CRUTAC-CE's activities for schools have been in the form of short

courses to up-date teachers' knowledge and performance on their everyday

job with children; these courses included subjects such as child psychology,

school planning and teaching methods. In fact, these programmes have been repeated without carrying much of innovation on the objectives and means. One does not have much basis yet to measure the effects of these activities on the everyday teaching process or in the increase of teachers' effectiveness performing their duties. Dr. Alfred Bisset's[1] research, evaluating in-service courses in another similar geographical area in the northeast of Brazil, came to the conclusion that those courses were of no considerable effect. He evaluated the results of in-service training, examining pupils of the same grade level who had been taught by: 1) unqualified teachers who had not attended the courses and 2) unqualified teachers who had attended the courses. There were no significant differences on the pupils' examination results between these two different categories of teachers. One arrives at the conclusion that repetition of in-service courses on the basis adopted, does not per se alter pupils' learning and it is an enormous waste of money.

In the early unpublished record of CRUTAC-CE on education,[2] there were outlines for short, medium and long term programmes to follow in order to reach the envisaged educational goals of self-reliance at Municipal levels.

Since innovations come very much from prepared opinion leaders to fully assuming their role,[3] from the beginning, CRUTAC-CE's first job was to look for steps to innovate and to decide which sort of teachers or educators would have more influence over the system, in order to give them priority on the projects. A special course was planned and put into

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[1] Alfred Bisset: _Efeitos de um Programa de Treinamento, Professores Primários nao Titulados_, Maceió (Brasil) 1969.

[2] Unpublished report, CRUTAC-CE, 1972.

[3] Lytton Guimaraes, _Comunicação de Novas Ideias, Edições Financeiras s/a_, Rio, 1969, and Everett Rogers, _op.cit._, p.223.

effect as the first main activity of the educational sector. It

envisaged a long term objective, initiating the preparation of a group

of educational leaders from and for the locality. The account of this

course project is worth describing because it is an example of the

development of an intentional innovative situation. The course was

named Structure and Functioning of First and Second Levels of Education,

and emerged from the situations described below, following the steps:[1]

1. Building a Relationship. The CRUTAC-CE co-ordinator for educational

purposes visited the district of Itapipoca where activities were supposed

to be initiated. She met the educational leaders of the locality, where

different schools were provided for 3,500 students ranging from 7 to 18

years of age. As the district was not too large, when the schools were

being visited, meetings were held with representatives of public and

private schools to discuss CRUTAC-CE's objectives in the region, the way

it was expected to operate and finding out about the educational needs of

the local population. Educational weaknesses were the main topic to

discuss also with all educational authorities, the bishop and the mayor.

A very good relationship has begun between the educational co-ordinator

and these representatives who expressed much trust and hope in CRUTAC-CE's

educational programme.

2. Diagnosis. The sequence of visits started in March 1972 and for two

months the suggestions of the representative groups were studied in

respect of their viability. Probationers also visited schools filling

out a questionnaire to assess the data which schools used to record

for their own control or to send to local or state department for their

control and planning needs. The objective of that exercise was to

implement a controlling data process system in each school in order to

facilitate future planning; however, organisation of data was a good idea

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[1] Data for this description were taken from unpublished reports of 1972
and 1973.

but not a priority according to their interest. Hence this was put

aside and postponed. In the year before, December 1971, new legislation

had come into effect in the form of the Federal Law of Education.

Teachers and heads of schools had heard about it but they wanted to know

in detail all the implications for them and for their schools. In the

capital city studies and seminars had been held for the new law's

interpretation, but in the other municipalities it was completely

unknown. They were also anxious to put this law into practice.

It was obvious that in any programme the new law had to be

considered with great importance throughout. Any project had also to

aim at raising aspirations for the teachers to improve their qualifications

which were very low by the State minimum standards. Yet, the new law

had opened possibilities of promotion with a progressive acquisition of

further qualification, at the university level.

3. Acquiring Relevant Resources: The possibility of CRUTAC-CE finding

university lecturers to spend the weekends in Itapipoca District in

order to provide the teachers with credits courses offered by that

institution was taken into consideration. The course designed was a

compulsory subject for any graduate teacher; it was about educational

administration, heavily based on the aspects of the new law in its

implications and its trends for the future. Teacher candidates had all

their primary school teacher qualifications but most of them did not

have a regular course (university degree) which would qualify them as

secondary school teachers.

If teachers were successful on this new possible credit course,

there would be a strong possibility for them to be motivated and prepare

themselves for the entry examination to enrol at the university. Many

arrangements could be made later on for students' attendance in part-

time courses in the capital city or in the next Municipality of Sobral

where there was a regional university.

In the initial course, CRUTAC-CE could only find an available lecturer in the State University, hence had to involve another institution on this project. Since CRUTAC-CE could provide transport and accommodation for this lecturer, the expenses of the course with material and lecturer payment had to be found.

4 - 5. Choosing Solution and Gaining Acceptance: At that stage, local teachers were highly motivated, the mayor and educational secretary were also interested in the new course which involved the best educational leaders of the area and neighbouring districts. The participants, however, should have at least completed secondary school, and priority was given to the heads, deputies and more experienced teachers. The distribution of vacancies was made by a quota system, proportional to the number of pupils in each school. Now candidates were selected - 40 from 80 who fulfilled the requirements, lecturer, probationers as monitors, transport, accommodation were arranged. Two dollars were charged to each candidate or 0.50 U.S. dollars for each credit of the course. Both the Municipal government and the State contributed financially, but the latter's contribution was much larger. This willing contribution demonstrated the enthusiasm the authorities had towards this project. Moreover, the participation of all administrative levels - university (Federal), State, Municipality and private individuals (students) as well, was of special significance in this respect. The whole course developed as it was programmed and the 40 students reached the satisfactory standard for a passing grade, based on partial and final assessments, regulated by the State University, under which the course had been sponsored.

6. Stages - Stabilisation and Self Renewal: Before the course ended the CRUTAC-CE educational co-ordination was replaced for personal reasons. The repetition of this course for the 40 other candidates never

took place. Financial support already released for that purpose was

allocated for other short courses on teaching methods, more in need

for the region, according to subsequent reports; although authorities

found this project interesting, they did not object to its termination.

There were obvious differences of views on the direction educational

projects should take and the discontinuity of this course was a proof.

In Brazil, a change in leadership positions means frequently a change of

policy, even when this new leadership carries the same political party.

However, the course made an impact on the students, and its effects

were partially evident when in the next academic year more than 50 percent

of them submitted successfully to the university entry examination and

since then they have been attending on a part time basis, evening lectures

at the University of Sobral. Teachers and the local population in general

had been used to expect always the benefit from authorities. Hence, a

great change of attitude took place among this group of teachers, recently

trained, and this was a great accomplishment. It was anticipated that

by the end of 1976 Itapipoca would have a large group of graduate

teachers who would be ready to assume their role of leadership over the

region more effectively.

Another positive result of the course - Structure and Functioning of

First and Second Levels of Education - was again the local educational

leaders' initiative of opening in the district seat a branch of the

teachers' training unit of the university. In August 1975, they invited

the State Governor and the Federal University Rector[1] to visit the area

in order to make a study of the possibility of establishing such an

institution in Itapipoca District. The visit was preceded by a meeting

of the community leaders, where twenty seven members were present,

including four top educational leaders who had attended the above

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[1]The highest university authority.

mentioned CRUTAC-CE first course.[1] The University Rector appointed a small group to study the viability of such undertaking and in two months the report was ready although not much in favour, due to many circumstances such as: lack of sufficient demand on the region, which could justify it, otherwise this undertaking would harm the one already providing service in Sobral. Another problem was the qualified staff needed to maintain the course in good standard. These problems were discussed in a second meeting with only seven members present, two of them, from the educational group. No decision has been taken so far and another alternative idea might occur to fulfil the aspirations of many teachers who now look for promotions and better economic conditions in accordance with the terms of the new law.[2]

Follow-up

The enrolment of many participants for a university degree immediately after the course and the effort to create a branch of the university for teachers' training in Itapipoca has constituted the two important advances for the implementation of its educational development.

After three years I prepared a simple questionnaire[3] which a supervisor was kind enough to apply to the group of teachers (40), who had successfully concluded the initial CRUTAC-CE course. The objective was to find out about the professional directions each participant had taken during this time, attempting to determine some common characteristics.

Of the 40 participants, 13 did not fill in because of different reasons: two had got married and left, eight teachers had been transferred because their own convenience required it, and the remaining three were still living in Itapipoca but were travelling, when the questionnaire was

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[1] Data taken from the minutes of the meeting.

[2] The above account was given by local educational authorities, personally interviewed by the writer.

[3] See Appendix A.

sent out. A teacher from the locality who knew them all said that four of them were enrolled for a university degree. For the purpose of our analysis from the results, instead of 40, we were limited to 27 completed questionnaires which we are going to consider as the totality for our conclusions. For the purpose of analysis, the questionnaire's answers were divided into Group A and B; the first, belonging to the 15 participants who decided immediately after CRUTAC's course to study for a degree and the second belonging to the 12 who did not.

There were only two men teachers who participated on CRUTAC's course; one was a Catholic priest who had been transferred and the other was one of the three participants who were absent during the application of the questionnaire. Hence, the 27 informants were all women. The predominance of women teachers is a characteristic of the Brazilian school system; where the large majority of teachers and heads of schools are occupied by women in both levels of public schools. Many factors contribute to this. In rural areas it happens women usually have a longer period at school while boys start working in the fields earlier. Because boys start making money earlier, they also get married young and their responsibility grows when they have a family to support, since man as the head of the family is the main provider. In urban areas men have the chance to look for jobs which pay better salaries than teaching. Teaching activities are part-time jobs which for married women is ideal, having to divide their attention between their children and their home. These are the reasons for the teaching profession being mostly filled by women in Itapipoca as elsewhere.

Teachers' average age was 39 years and the majority fell between 35 and 49 years of age. The younger teacher was from Group B with 23 years and the older from Group A, with 52 years of age.[1]

The 27 participants were all born in rural areas[2] and, except one

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[1] See Table (8:1).   [2] See Table (8:2).

teacher of Group A and two of Group B, they all came from Itapipoca

Municipality where they were living at the present. This can be a

limitation in terms of experience and exchange of ideas with a wider

source of stimulus and information about a more progressive urban

centre. On the other hand it makes the teachers more adaptable to their

own environment. If this is a major factor in terms of satisfaction and

gives their professional activity stability and understanding of their

own surroundings, it has also the negative aspect of accommodation with

situations and a certain lack of criticism which would anticipate a

situation of change. However, that attitude of both groups deciding to

join the first course is an indication of enthusiasm for change, at

least for their professional status and promotion sake.

In both groups, the majority were married,[1] eight of each group

and, one of group B was a widow. Husbands carrying certain activities can

exercise much influence on the teaching career of their wives. In this

particular case, the husbands of the 16 married teachers had the following

job distribution: civil servant - 5, businessmen - 6, teacher - 1,

driver - 2, agriculture - 1, small industry - 1.[2] As a civil servant,

a person is more exposed to external contacts from supervision in the

administrative machine through frequent correspondence, visit inspection

and with the public to whom he directs his services. Businessmen, teachers,

drivers are all activities which demand much personal exchange with other

people and environment[3] and, of course, the married teachers of both groups

might have gained the positive influence from them when, first of all, they

decided to participate in 1972 in the CRUTAC-CE course (of Structure and

Functioning for the First and Second Levels of Education).

Group A married teachers had an average of three children while Group

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[1]See Table (8:3).   [2]See Table (8:4).
[3]Roger Everett, op.cit., p.154.

B had four.[1] All school age children attended school. The only four

children from Group B teachers of more than 18 years of age were involved

in the following activities: one in fourth year medicine, one a teacher

and two seeking admission to university.[2]

Group A and B were mainly educated locally, in fact, four teachers

of Group B completed their final year of training in the capital city,

against only two of Group A.[3] The number increased a little for Group A

when in-service training in the capital city was considered. Group A

had more opportunity to go temporarily to Fortaleza for short courses

than Group B. Of in-service training, 52 out of 122 taken by Group A

were in Fortaleza, while Group B had only 40 courses out of 137 there,

being the other 97 courses in the locality. Group B showed more interest

however in non-related professional activities than Group A, attending

in-service training of that kind locally, or in the capital city. Group

B attended a total of 26 courses while 11 courses were attended by Group

A.[4]

Professional journals are widely used to measure the degree of

professional interest among teachers. Only one teacher from Group A was

subscribing to two professional journals.[5] Many reasons can explain this.

Economics is always one of the causes, but there are others, as for

example the uncertainty of receiving issues, because of the unreliability

of the post-office. The supposed lack of interest for written sources of

information reinforces the importance of face-to-face information as the

most effective means of producing an impact, not only on the population

in general, but on teachers as well. They all felt the need for more

direct supervision, as a continuous incentive for their everyday work.

All Group B declared that written pedagogical guidance, mainly through text-

books was not sufficient, while in Group A, eight made similar statements.[6]

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[1] See Table (8:5).

[2] See Table (8:6).

[3] See Table (8:7).

[4] See Table (8:8).

[5] See Table (8:9).

[6] See Table (8:10).

The different reactions of both groups might indicate that the use of independent guidance depends on the degree of professional advancement of the teachers concerned, in order that the individual be willing to search by himself for written material to develop his/her professional performance and competency.

Another source for professional betterment is involvement in some sort of professional association. These associations usually have a double objective: one is to provide the members with activities which enable them to develop their professional performance, the other is to join efforts to improve their working conditions. Four and three members of Groups A and B respectively were associated or had heard about the existence of such institutions;[1] they also doubted the capacity of these associations to do anything positive in reaching their objective.[2] Rather a vicious circle exists where associations do not gain sufficient members and because of the lack of interest do not receive the necessary stimulus for expansion and effective results.

An important item for cultural and professional sources of information in Brazil is the mastering of a modern language, most commonly French or English. Only one teacher in Group A said she had any knowledge of both languages.[3] This lack of interest is the result of poor modern language facilities during the school years, when those subjects were a compulsory part of the curriculum. Lack of interest in the outside world might also be to blame. Schools have not been able to integrate isolated rural groups into the outside world. Even with the development of modern means of communication, a cosmopolitan attitude towards world events is acquired very slowly.

All 27 teachers from Groups A and B worked in the urban area of the Municipality.[4] At this point it might be useful to define what is

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[1] See Table (8:9).

[2] This information was taken from informal personal interview.

[3] See Table (8:9).   [4] See Table (8:11).

considered urban and rural. Economists, geographers, politicians do

not share the same definition. For statisticians, urban areas are the

capital cities, the district headquarters of Municipalities, the districts

where people are more densely grouped. In economic terms, rural areas

differ from urban areas; the former being characterised by large

numbers of small enterprises in which technical and managerial roles

are performed by the same small entrepreneur.[1] In political administration,

urban centres are supposed to have well structured and institutionalised

welfare facilities providing for the needs of the population. It might

happen that one computer will classify a regional area as urban while

another will classify as rural, therefore there are ambiguities when

these terms are used. Itapipoca District, for example, economically and

socially is much more rural than urban, while politically, statistically

and in its administration it is considered an urban set-up and, of course,

these two terminologies are very relative according to what one is

comparing. Hence, when both Groups A and B answer that they are in the

urban areas, they refer to the geographical area more densely populated

where the administrative institutions of the Municipality are located.

The schools where the participants worked are the best provided for in

the Municipality. Six of them are located in the urban centre of the

district seat, and two in a neighbouring district, but also within its

urban area. All public schools give free daily milk to the pupils and

provide textbooks. Schools are supplied with electricity, water and

adequate equipment. Since teaching is on a part-time basis, half the

participants (Groups A and B) teach in two different administrations:

State, Municipal and/or Private.[2]

The quota of teachers which each school affords for the course of

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[1] Philip H. Coombs, Attacking Rural Poverty, op.cit., p.139.

[2] See Table (8:12).

Structure and Functioning, was proportional to the number of its pupil

enrolment. Obviously the majority belonged to the State schools since

they are the largest in size and number of pupils, followed by two Private

schools and one Municipal school.

Second Level of Education is provided by a State school - Colegio

Joaquim Magalhaes, and by a community school, Centro Educacional Pio X.[1]

Most participants in Group A, at least 13, were teaching in secondary

schools as against only three in Group B.[2] Levels of teaching seem to

exercise much influence on the desire for higher qualifications. If

it is desirable for teachers of the First Level of Education to upgrade

their qualifications, it is understandable that teachers from secondary

schools feel under a moral obligation to do so, since expectation of job

satisfaction has been traditionally higher.

Although nominally public (State and Municipal) schools are free,

the government allows them to receive, on a voluntary basis, contributions

to supply the needs of certain students and of the school. The administration

of these funds varies much according to the decision making system

accepted by the staff of each school. Nine participants from Group A

worked in schools where the administration of the funds was organised by

the representatives of the students, parents, teachers and heads, whereas

four of Group B belonged to schools where decisions for the use of the

funds were made only by the directorship.[3] The lack of more participation

in these cases could be caused by: Firstly, the heads feel they know best

and there is no need for consultation with the rest of staff, parents and

students who also accept their decisions as the best ones. Secondly, the

fund is not big enough to justify the trouble of forming a group of all

those representatives; a third hypothesis is that authority is too

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[1] It is a private organisation supported by student fee, subsidised by
the government, running without any profit; it belongs to CNEC.

[2] See Table (8:13).   [3] See Table (8:14).

determined for one to go against it, and the best policy is to conform.

One might conclude at this point that more participation in the schools'

activities and in its administration also produces more professional

awareness and stimulates the career aspirations of the participants and

that teachers of Secondary Level of Education are more involved in the

decision making process than the teacher of First Level of Education.[1]

Group A as a whole had a heavier timetable than Group B, the

average being 34 hours of weekly lessons for Group A and 26.9 for Group B;

the amount of work was remunerated since the average monthly salary for

Group A was higher than that of Group B, representing respectively

US$131.30 and US$96.90.[2]

Taking the characteristics of both groups into account, some of both

groups' reactions to the possibilities of improving their own professional

careers must be examined:- how they saw the needy conditions compared

with what they have, how much they felt they could bring some influence

to bear in bringing about educational improvements within the region; what

sort of action they have taken and what suggestions they have made.

Groups A and B unanimously see a progressive possibility of

improvement in their professional career and teachers mainly through

degree courses and in-service training. However, eight of Group B put

emphasis on the value of in-service training: this answer, partially, might

be a rationalisation, since they realize some of them are unable to get a

degree because of family or because of economic reasons. Among necessary

conditions which would facilitate the above mentioned improvement of

professional careers and teaching practice, better remuneration was the

most common in both groups, although other ones were mentioned such as

provisions of training during vacations and the foundation of a teachers'

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[1] G.A. Almond and S. Verber concluded that highly educated people tend to be more "participative" in The Civic Culture. Little, Brown, 1965.

[2] See Tables (8:15) and (8:16).

training unit of the university, in Itapipoca.[1] It is noticeable how

initiatives, according to the participants' feelings should always come

from external entities or agents. Only one teacher from Group A said

she could improve her teaching, putting into practice knowledge that she

had learned and two of each group stated they could improve if they

continued studying by themselves. This leads one to assume that the

limited scope of the structured teacher's training fails to eradicate

the common attitude of dependence on teachers. It also fails to develop

widely the attitude of experimentation and of permanent search for

knowledge in each teacher's everyday professional life which would

make him/her more effective.

About improving conditions in their schools and the physical

facilities of the building, eight out of twelve of which Group B

consists, suggested asking the authorities for help and four of Group A

thought the same way; the other four suggested the use of all didactic

resources and five others mentioned student guidance. The idea of

combined individual efforts to solve common problems seemed almost non-

existent in Group B whereas Group A put more emphasis on their initiative

and their guidance to the students, indicating a more self-reliant

attitude.[2]

In Group A one of the main tools for improving Municipal system of

schools were through in-service training, the foundation of the teachers'

training and through their own effort participating in educational

activities, in meetings, in influencing informally their colleagues.

Both groups considered the need to participate in meetings, in educational

activities, as an important tool to improve the educational system;

although teachers in rural and even in urban areas perceive that

professional performance and effectiveness of the system depends on the

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[1]See Table (8:17).   [2]See Table (8:18).

quality of teachers, what and how it is taught as a necessary condition,
they missed spelling out the equally important role of the administration
needed to maintain and provide the conditions. Actually they perceived
this role which must be exercised however by the authorities, initiatives,
ideas and any innovation coming from above.

Pedagogical meetings or meeting of teachers is a common practice to
plan school activities; with the exception of one participant of Group A
(who happens to be the headmistress of the largest State school -
primary and secondary school integrated), no one else mentioned about the
idea to promote a better link relationship among different education
networks - public: State and Municipal, and Private - in order to have
a joint effort to solve common problems of education for the locality.[1]

Group A seemed much happier with working conditions,[2] although
teachers were all satisfied with the age and type of students they used
to receive.[3] External factors, as the participants could see, were the
main causes for which they considered obstacles for the professional
development. Indeed, financial difficulties seemed to prevent teachers
from making further studies. Three participants of Group B who found that
the obstacle was the lack of a local university branch for teachers'
training, had their salary below US$36. Maybe the short term solution
would not be a local institution but to find allowances subsidy for fees,
transportation, leaving these degree courses to be run in a more economical
way in a neighbouring Municipality as it is now at the present.

One of the obstacles to professional growth mentioned by some members
of Group B, was political interference in schools affairs, by that meaning
that sometimes criteria for authority decisions were not always objective
and personal contact, family influence, party sympathy had some influence.
This problem however, does not seem to affect the majority of teachers as
they did not point this out.[4] Examining the present most influential

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[1] See Table (8:19). [2] See Table (8:20).
[3] See Table (8:21). [4] See Table (8:22).

political leaders in the Municipality and the family names the

participants, there were a representation of five in Group A and three

in Group B of similar names. These figures do not really prove the

lack of objective criteria in the selection for this referred course.

What is common in the rural areas is that politicians of a family

because of their wider experiences and broader view gained from

travelling often to metropolitan centres,[1] are better informed about

events and future trends on which development is based, they act usually

as counsellors for their families, they are also the sources of

communication for the region and mainly for their family and relatives.

In helping their relations, politicians expect to be helped when the

occasion arises. To stimulate the family and relatives towards the

need for good education, to supply them with physical facilities, for

example temporary accommodation in Fortaleza City during their education

is, in a sense, an investment for the politician who will later on need

their support during election campaigns. More highly qualified relatives

are likely to become accepted in good positions at government level

providing the population with job opportunities in the public service.

Since public service is never capable of supplying the needs of the

population adequately, people who have benefited with posts in public

service feel a sense of gratitude not to the organisation itself but to

the chiefs and heads who provided the posts. Even if people find a way

of expressing their gratitude through small gifts or some small favour,

they will always feel indebted and during elections they will be likely

to give their vote. It is not surprising to find that some of the most

ambitious teachers who have influential and powerful relatives exert

more influence over children's parents, who have a high regard for his/her

judgement, and politicians indirectly reward these teachers with

encouragement and facilitate communication between different levels of

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[1] Everett Rogers, op.cit., pp.146-167.

administration. Politicians can also channel money from the government budget to improve their standard of living, transfer them when they need to move from one locality to another, and put them forward for promotion to headship.

Having been asked how to help the professional standards of their colleagues, three members of Group B suggested forming a group to claim rights, while the remaining answers of A and B lay in helping their colleagues by continuous stimuli and encouraging them to enrol in service training.[1]

Participants' reaction towards CRUTAC-CE's activities and its influence in Itapipoca District and Municipality was on the whole positive. In Group B, two members claimed not to see any benefits resulting from it. One from Group B and two from Group A assessed average CRUTAC-CE influence, however twelve from Group A and nine from Group B declared its influence to be good in the area.[2] To produce this sort of feeling CRUTAC-CE should not have been disappointed. The ability to judge people's needs is a very important asset. Whatever importance might be given to the correct assessments of need, such assessments do not always coincide with the feelings of the people but it would be a mistake for those experts to fail to provide for and not take into consideration those feelings. They expressed CRUTAC-CE's influence in providing medical services. On the educational side, since the undertaking of in-service training is the solution aimed at, CRUTAC-CE has actually done a good job in providing them with these facilities.[3] How much benefit is gained with such training no one can successfully assess so far. What might be the case is that during training, teachers gather together to discuss academic and non-academic themes, related to

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[1]See Table (8:23). [2]See Table (8:24).
[3]See Table (8:25).

their activities. It is the only opportunity that teachers from different schools, different areas and organisations can get together to learn something new or to gain incentives of one type or another. What they call the "need for in-service training" includes partially the need to get together to discuss their own problems and find a better solution to them; they do not perceive this as two separate things and CRUTAC-CE might find a way to work out a system of providing for it in each district.

From the analysis of Groups A and B, it is possible with a stroke of a brush to summarise their characteristics as follows: Group A was composed of a smaller family unit, and a greater tendency to move towards the capital city for in-service training; more likely to have to take decisions at school, with a heavier working timetable, more highly paid, teaching older, secondary school students and with a more self-reliant attitude towards faculty, school and students' progress. Group B was more localised, with more non-professional interest, with higher expectation from government help towards educational interests. This result might lead to one thinking that the capacity of a group to develop self-reliance is proportional to the success of the group and the confidence resulting from these aspirations fulfilled. Group A according to the circumstances was more fortunate in having its aspirations fulfilled.

The building-up of such confidence and aspirations in people might develop faster however, when external conditions affecting the different sectors of a social universe are able to provide means for its development.

CRUTAC's course experience in Itapipoca (described above) was one of those external factors which have contributed towards a process of change among teachers. It has provided the teachers with initial incentives necessary for further studies, aiming at a university degree

and secondly, it has brought to the surface the need for local means

in order to develop programmes for upgrading teachers through a local

teacher training or other eventual alternatives which might emerge from

local consensus and interest. Also, all these attempts have grouped

teachers and local leaders to work together towards common goals for the

Municipality members.

TABLE (8:1)

AGE OF TEACHERS

Age	Group A (15)	Group B (12)	Total (27)
20-24	-	1	1
25-29	1	2	3
30-34	-	-	-
35-39	5	2	7
40-44	5	3	8
45-49	3	4	7
50-54	1	-	1
Average Age	41 years	38 years	39 years

TABLE (8:2)

PLACE OF BIRTH

Place of Birth	Group A	Group B	Total
Itapipoca (CE)	14	10	24
Acarau (CE)	1	-	1
Paracuru (CE)	-	1	1
Cajazeiras (PE)	-	1	1
TOTAL	15	12	27

The first three Municipalities are located within the State
of Ceará (CE) Territory, whereas Cajazeiras is part of the
State of Pernambuco (PE). However, all of them are economically
and socially considered to be rural.

TABLE (8:3)

STATUS OF TEACHERS

Status	Group A	Group B	Total
Single	7	3	10
Married	8	8	16
Widow	-	1	1
Total	15	12	27

The informants were all women, however two men took part in the
course: one of them was a priest who had been transferred to
another Municipality, and the other was travelling when the
questionnaire was filled in.

TABLE (8:4)

HUSBANDS' PROFESSION

Husbands' Profession	Group A	Group B	Total
Civil servant	3	2	5
Businessman	2	4	6
Teacher	1	-	1
Driver	1	1	2
Agriculture	1	-	1
Small industry	-	1	1
Total	8	8	16

TABLE(8:5)

NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN TEACHERS' FAMILY

No. of children	Group A	Group B	Total
8	-	1	1
6	-	2	2
5	1	1	2
4	-	2	2
3	5	-	5
2	1	1	2
1	-	2	2
NO.OF CHILDREN/MOTHER	3	4	-

TABLE (8:6)

CHILDREN'S AGE IN RELATION TO THE A AND B GROUPINGS OF TEACHERS

Age of children	Group A	Group B	Total
0 - 6	4	5	9
7 - 17 (school age)[1]	18	28	46
Above 18	-	4[2]	4
TOTAL	22	37	59

[1] They were all enrolled in school.

[2] The four children above 18 years of age were involved in the following activities: one was a primary school teacher; two were seeking admission to university and the fourth was in his fourth year of medicine.

TABLE (8:7)

PLACES WHERE TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS WERE TAKEN

Place of Qualification	Group A	Group B	Total
Fortaleza (State capital)	2	4	6
Itapipoca	13	8	21
TOTAL	15	12	27

TABLE (8:8)

PLACE OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Place of In-Service Training	Group A			Group B			Total
	Professional	Non Professional	S.T.	Professional	Non Professional	S.T.	
Fortaleza	50	2	52	30	10	40	92
Itapipoca	61	9	70	81	16	97	167
TOTAL	111	11	122	111	26	137	259
No. of Course by Participant	7.4	0.7	8.1	9.2	2.1	11.4	9.6

S T. = Sub-total

TABLE (8:9)

TEACHERS' INTEREST IN SELF-PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Item	Participant's Own Initiative towards Professional Development	Group A	Group B	Total
1	Participation in any professional association or syndicate	4	3	7
2	Subscription in two professional journals	1	-	1
3	Knowledge of a modern language - French and English	1	-	-

TABLE (8:10)

TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT OF THEIR TEACHING RESOURCES

Item	Teaching Resources	Group A Adequate	Inadequate	No Answer	Group B Adequate	Inadequate
1	Supervision (face-to-face)	1	12	2	-	12
2	Textbooks and written material	3	8	4	-	12

TABLE (8:11)

TEACHERS' CONDITIONS OF WORK

Item	Name of School where Participants are Employed	Level	Source of Finance	District (Urban)	Provision of Facilities			
					For Students		For Buildings	
					Text Books	Snacks	Electricity	System of Water Distrib.
1	Colegio Estadual J. Magalhaes	1st & 2nd	State	Itapipoca	x	x	x	x
2	Centro Educacional Pio X	1st & 2nd	Private	Itapipoca	-	-	x	x
3	Escola de 1°Grau Monsenhor Tabosa	1st	State	Itapipoca	x	x	x	x
4	Grupo Escolar Anastacio Braga	1st	State	Itapipoca	x	x	x	x
5	Patronato Nossa Senhora das Mercês	1st	Private	Itapipoca	x	x	x	x
6	Instituto Moderno de Educação	1st	Private	Itapipoca	-	-	x	x
7	Escola de 1° Grau de Amontada	1st	State	Amontada	x	x	x	x
8	Ginásio Municipal de Amontada	1st	Municipal	Amontada	x	x	x	x
9	MOBRAL*	Adult Literacy	Federal	Itapipoca	x	-	x	x

*MOBRAL was represented only by chance, since its supervisor was selected from her main job, at the Grupo Escolar Monsenhor Tabosa.

TABLE (8:12)

NUMBER OF OCCUPATIONS FOR TEACHER

No. of Part-time jobs per teacher	GROUP A	GROUP B
One	8	6
Two	5	6
Three	2	-
TOTAL	15	12

CAPACITY AND TYPE OF INSTUTIONS WHICH MAINTAIN GROUPS A AND B

	Educational Establishment	No. Shift	Enrolment Boys	Enrolment Girls	Enrolment Total	Level of School	Distribution of Participants per Educational Establishment Group A	Distribution of Participants per Educational Establishment Group B	Distribution of Participants per Educational Establishment Total
1	Colegio Estadual Joaquim Magalhaes	3	605	840	1445	1st & 2nd	13	3	16
2	Centro Educational Pio X	3	--	--	520	1st & 2nd	3	--	3
3	Escola do 1$^{\text{o}}$Grau Monsenhor Tabosa	3	284	246	530	1st	5	1	6
4	Grupo Escolar Anastácio Braga	2	221	254	475	1st	--	3	3
5	Patronato Nossa Senhora des Mercês	2	80	120	200	1st	--	2	2
6	Instituto Moderno de Educação	1	--	--	80	1st	--	3	3
7	Escola do 1$^{\text{o}}$Grau de Amontada	1	150	236	386	1st	--	3	3
8	Ginasio Municipal de Amontada	1	65	100	165	1st	--	3	3
(1)9	MOBRAL (Municipal Network)	2	4230	3602	7832	ADULT LITER-ACY	1	--	1
*10	Secretaria Municipal de Educação	--	--	--	--	--	1	--	1
*11	Delegacia Regional de Itapipoca	--	--	--	--	--	1	--	1

* These positions have been occupied by the two participants posterior to CRUTAC's course.
(1)The participant was the supervisor of this organisation at Municipal level.

TABLE (8:14)

SCHOOL EXTRA FUNDS ADMINISTRATION

Type of Administration of School Extra Funds at Participant's Schools	Group A	Group B
1. Representatives and students, parents, teachers and directorship	9[3]	4
2. Directorship only	3	4
3. Headmistress only	-	3[1]
4. No answer	3	4[2]
TOTAL	15	15

(1) Those three teachers experimented with both kinds of administrative set-up, first and third alternatives.

(2) Instituto Moderno de Educação did not receive any special fees for extra fund purposes and, of course, their representatives did not answer the question either.

(3) All nine teachers taught in Colegio Estadual Joaquim Magalhães (First and Second Level of Education).

TABLE (8:15)

GROUPS A AND B MONTHLY SALARIES

Participants' Monthly Salary US$	Group A	Group B
Below 36	-	3
37 - 56	-	1
57 - 76	1	1
77 - 96	-	1
97 - 116	3	3
117 - 136	4	1
137 - 156	1	
157 - 176	1	-
177 - 196	2	-
197 - 216	-	-
217 - 236	-	-
237 - 256	-	-
257 - 276	-	-
277 - 296	-	1
	*12	*11

*Three participants of Group A and 1 of Group B did not state their salary.

TABLE (8:16)

AVERAGE REMUNERATION AND WEEKLY TIMETABLE

Remuneration and Working Time	Group A	Group B
Average monthly salary	US$131.30	US$96.90
*Average lesson period per week	34 hours	26.9 hours

*This calculation excludes the time consumed in meetings which varied from school to school, from one meeting each two months until two meetings weekly.

TABLE (8:17)

MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT

Means of Professional Improvement	Group A	Group B
1. Professional development is seen as a possible asset.	15	12
2. Suggested means of Professional Development		
a) in-service training	7	8
b) Degree courses (at University)	7	2
c) Application of acquired knowledge	1	–
d) Constant permanent individual study	2	2
e) *No answer	1	2
3. Suggested necessary conditions		
a) better remuneration	7	4
b) provision of in-service training during vacation period	1	2
c) foundation of a local teacher training institution as an extension of the University	2	1
d) encouragement towards research	2	1
e) provisions for more in-service training	–	1
f) time	–	1
*no answer	5	1

*Some participants presented more than one answer and some did not give any contribution.

TABLE (8:18)

TEACHERS' SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING CONDITIONS OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS
AND FOR TEACHING

Teachers' reaction to influence and improvement of teaching and physical conditions of the building	Group A	Group B
1. Turn to authorities for help	4	8
2. Make use of the available aids: audio-visual, written and local resources	4	1
3. Guiding the students	5	2
4. Promoting campaigns	-	1

TABLE (8:19)

TEACHERS' SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING MUNICIPAL EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Teachers' reaction on how to influence and improve the Municipal system of education in Itapipoca	Group A	Group B
1. Suggesting in-service training	5	2
2. Participating in any educational activity and meetings	6	5
3. Supervising learning in the remote areas	1	-
4. Motivating colleagues through informal means	2	-
5. Narrowing communication and benefit exchanges between Municipal, State and Private schools network	1	-
6. Have never taken any action	4	2

TABLE (8:20)

TEACHERS' IMPRESSIONS ABOUT GENERAL WORKING CONDITIONS

General Working Condition	Group A	Group B
1. Satisfactory	12	7
2. Unsatisfactory	2	5
3. No answer	1	-
4. Sometimes they thought of changing profession	2*	-

*One of these participants also declared the working conditions as being satisfactory and the other as unsatisfactory.

TABLE (8:21)

TEACHERS' PREFERENCES FOR TEACHING

Participants' preference and the type of students they teach	Group A	Group B
1. According to the sex	Only three participants declared the sex of the groups they taught - eleven declared they preferred to teach mixed groups, however there was not a declared discrepancy between what they taught and what they preferred.	No one declared the sex of the groups they taught - seven preferred to teach mixed groups and one preferred to teach girls.
2. According to the age group	Out of 13 answers, three preferred a younger group to teach.	The ten declared answers showed they were satisfied with the ages of their group of students.

TABLE (8:22)

TEACHERS' OPINION ABOUT FACTORS WHICH PREVENT GOOD WORKING CONDITIONS

Factors which prevent good working conditions	Group A	Group B
1. Inadequate remuneration	6	5
2. Political interference	-	3
3. Lack of incentive from colleagues	2	-
4. Absence of local university teachers' training	-	3*
5. No answer	7	4

* The three participants who made the fourth statement also made the first one and had the lowest remuneration of the 27 participants, being below US$36.00.

TABLE (8:23)

TEACHERS' SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING THE PROFESSIONAL STANDARD OF COLLEAGUES

Means of improving colleagues' professional standards	Group A	Group B
1. Forming associations or syndicate to claim rights	-	3
2. Encouraging their enrolment on in-service training	13	7
No answer	2	2
TOTAL	15	12

TABLE (8:24)

TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT OF CRUTAC'S INFLUENCE IN ITAPIPOCA

Assessing CRUTAC's influence in Itapipoca	Group A	Group B
Good	12	9
Average	2	1
Not significant	-	2
No answer	1	-
TOTAL	15	12

TABLE (8:25)

TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT OF CRUTAC'S AREAS OF INFLUENCE

CRUTAC's areas of influence	Group A	Group B
1. On promoting in-service training for teachers	10	8
2. Providing medical care	3	4
3. Bringing more information and knowledge to region	2	1
4. No answer	3	1
TOTAL	18*	14*

*Three members of Group A and two of Group B mentioned both
items: 1st and 2nd.

CHAPTER 9

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF PIAUI, RONDON AND CRUTAC PROJECTS

According to different conceptions and theories about rural

development, different approaches have been adopted in dealing with

methods and educational programmes, in the past and at the present.

P.H. Coombs,[1] in his survey, grouped the approaches in four which he

named as: (1) the extension approach, (2) the training approach,

(3) the co-operative self help approach, and (4) the integrated development

approach. He also explained that "these are not watertight, mutually

exclusive compartments, nor are they purely educational classifications".

They often share educational principles and methods. It is possible

to describe them as idealised models although actual programmes fitting

into these general categories differ considerably from the pure versions

outlined below:

1. The extension approach involves the use of extension methods

maintaining that an independent agricultural extension service can, by

itself, help transform a static subsistence family and community life, as

a self contained theory and strategy of rural development.

2. The training approach emphasizes more systematic and deeper

learning of specific basic skills and related knowledge, in contrast to the

extension approach which emphasizes the communication of information

about innovative technical practices. It operates mostly through

training centres, more closely allied to institutionalised schooling.

Its self contained view and strategy of development is based on the

premise that knowledge and skills by themselves can precipitate the

process of development.

According to Coombs, both the extension and training approaches seem

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[1] Coombs and Ahmed, Attacking Rural Poverty, op.cit., pp.24-26.

to operate on the assumption that useful knowledge flows mainly in one direction: from outside specialists to the rural population which is presumably unable to diagnose its needs and problems, much less to devise solutions to them.

3. The co-operative self-help approach assumes that the complex process of rural transformation must begin with changes in the rural people themselves - in their attitudes towards changes, in their aspirations for improvement, and above all in their perception of themselves and of their own inherent capacity, individually and collectively, to improve their condition. There is heavy emphasis in this approach on the building of local institutions for co-operative self-help and governance. Its advocates exaggerate what self-help and co-operation can accomplish by themselves, whereas considerable outside help is often needed to break important local strangleholds to rural development.

4. The integrated development approach, Coombs claims,

> is highly versatile and eclectic in its ideologies and
> educational methods. Its hallmark is its broader view of
> the rural development process and its co-ordination under
> a single 'management system' of the essential components
> (including education) required to get agricultural or rural
> development moving. The management system may be highly
> authoritarian or it may be designed to provide - at least
> eventually - an important role for local people in planning,
> decision-making and implementation. Its cardinal emphasis
> in all events is upon the rational deployment and co-
> ordination of all the principal factors required for
> agricultural and rural development. . . most programs
> deviate from the pure form, and many combine elements of
> more than one approach.[1]

However, the four idealised type approaches provide an outline for examining and classifying cases from reality.

My choice of Rondon, Piaui and Crutac projects of development makes evident my inclinations to consider the fourth approach as the one which offers the most complete view of development requirements, involving all

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[1] Attacking Rural Poverty, ibid., p.26.

sectprs of a social universe. The increase of production alone is not sufficient for development purposes when changes of attitude values are not considered as well. Neither is knowledge about techniques enough. Programmes in Brazil such as ANCAR, initially adopting one of the three approaches to activate development, are now trying to join efforts with other agencies which carry a broader view of the rural development process.

From the Piaui, Rondon and CRUTAC Project descriptions one might deduce that their individual intentions were to follow this line of integrated approach towards development in the particular geographical areas chosen. They all perceive development as a global process, depending on several factors which ought to be tackled at the same time, although with different emphases.

Project Piaui[1] perceives the social system with eleven component subsystems from which to start any sort of action. These subsystems interact and one ought to be aware of this process when attempting to maintain balance. Both Project Rondon and CRUTAC consider the social system as described above, they do not however, put much stress on the 11 subdivisions, preferring to initiate projects with the different branches which the university can provide in terms of human resources. Their main activities have been in the areas of health, education and agriculture.

Objectives

Although Project Piaui, Rondon and CRUTAC might be categorised as integrated projects, their objectives are quite different. Piaui's are the most ambitious, including not only the improvement of agricultural technology, productivity and income but also a fundamental transformation of the economic and agricultural structure, social institutions and human relationships in the area. Hence, a good portion of Piaui's efforts are

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[1] See pp.143-146.

directed at building new infrastructures, particularly farmer

co-operatives, an efficient marketing network and credit system.

Rondon's central objective is to provide to undergraduates from all

branches, knowledge of the whole country, particularly of the rural

areas and of less developed areas, providing them at the same time

opportunity to give some community assistance in those areas. Its

main goal is to benefit firstly, the undergraduates with experience

and secondly, the rural population, with a programme of intermittent

projects of activity.

CRUTAC's has stated longer-range objectives than Rondon's. Its

aims are to benefit a chosen regional area, using selected undergraduates

who operate within the same state. Although the probationaries'

individual activities are on a temporary basis, it provides a

permanent programme of co-operation in the chosen community field.

The clientele of the three projects, though they may seem similar,

are quite different. Piaui's project is interested in reaching the

population of all echelons of society; from the top to the lowest, since

it proposes to activate the whole system in the state.

Rondon's clientele consists of undergraduates and the villagers and

CRUTAC's also. The difference is that in CRUTAC's, the community needs

have priority i.e. the demands come from the community not from the

undergraduates; they are the ones who must fit into the community and not

the reverse.

Geographic Coverage

The choices of the regional areas for the different projects'

interventions are varied. Piaui's started from the assumption that if

the project were successful in an ecologically disadvantaged one which

had shown the least inclination to be "progressive" in adopting

innovations, then perhaps its lesson could benefit a vast number of

similar areas elsewhere in Brazil.

Rondon's is a national project in which one university from a region co-operates with other less developed regions, mostly rural. CRUTAC's pattern for its activities follows the Rondon methodology, i.e. guidance and support from urban university to peripheral village; the difference being that this Municipality ought to be located within the same state. Another difference from Rondon is that CRUTAC gives priority to microregions which provide the best conditions in terms of communication with headquarters at the capital city. Also its base must exercise more influence over its neighbours' Municipalities in order to put into effect more quickly the innovations required. Both of these projects can be found sometimes in operation in the same Municipalities. When this happens however, they usually work in co-operation.

Structure and Staff

Piaui's has been able to obtain good manpower from different universities of the country. It has been relatively well-off and with sufficient autonomy to hire outstanding staff on a fulltime basis, during all phases of the programmes. Rondon and CRUTAC are staffed mostly by students and university lecturers, already engaged in academic activities who consider this additional responsibility as secondary in relation to the main, academic concern. The amount of dedication, especially to the projects might make quite a difference to the required creative kind of activity. Piaui's structure is a detailed one and so rather inflexible. In situations where planning processes are not much exercised, as in the state of Piaui, a sudden change making structural procedures more complex, can affect the good progress of activities.

Rondon's and CRUTAC's structures, by the fact that they are not too preconceived in great detail, provide an easy adaptation to the actual conditions at a local level.

Methodology

Piaui's operates mostly with people grouped by interest and by locality. Groups are formed initially by borough leaders (elected or voluntarily represented) and, through a system of representation, their members will form the Municipal Committee led by the mayor. A representative of different Municipal Committees will form the microregional committee, etc.

The eleven social systems, components of a social universe (including all different aspects connected with human expression and needs) form the methodological basis where groups start making analysis and projects to improve conditions. The whole process is to implement vertically the project and requires 30 steps. People involved in this work of solving their particular and community difficulties are on a volunteer basis except the joint co-ordinators at each level, whose experts ensure that the ideals of the project are carried out with continuity.

Rondon's and CRUTAC's also concentrate their attention on groups and group leaders in the expectation of a built-in multiplier effect through their informal or formal influence. They also operate through face-to-face contact with individual farmers, teachers, sick people during their medical treatment, using these opportunities to deliver their messages about hygiene, nutrition and preventive practices.

Undergraduates and probationaries of Rondon and CRUTAC adopt the practice of operating in teams, according to the projects. Usually it is in very small communities that this method is used and the undergraduates give a good contribution, exercising each one their own speciality.

Modern communication technology, audio-visual aids or self-instructional materials were not used, except to a limited extent at the staff training centres. That the students are not permanent helpers in Rondon's and CRUTAC's projects makes development of different projects more difficult. Continuity of the projects is maintained by the co-

ordinators, who are appointed on a permanent basis.

Accomplishment, Benefits and Impact

It would be premature to pass any final judgement on the impact and benefits of these integrated projects - Piaui, Rondon and CRUTAC. The most important point is that these particular projects should not be judged solely by their immediate impact on production and income, but rather by their broader and longer term objectives. These are experimental projects to test out new approaches and to generate new knowledge that will be useful for the country.

All three of these integrated projects may yield important lessons, helpful in devising new and more effective ways to meet the needs of subsistence farmers. Good results have been achieved; it is difficult to quantity them and it will take a long time to notice the effects in the shape of attitudes, behaviour, new aspirations, political participation, spirit of intervention etc.

Piaui, Rondon and CRUTAC have brought to the communities improvements in health conditions, education, housing and increased production. After CRUTAC started its activities in Itapipoca, sixteen doctors were recruited to deal with existing ill health of the population in that area.[1] Apparently such co-operation given by the projects may seem of protectionism and there is always this danger unless participation of the individual and of groups is developed.

The initiative of individuals and groups can be developed to satisfy the aspirations resulting from a higher standard of living. Following this trend, campaigns for private acquisition of filters, sanitary equipment, water distribution, public laundry, compulsory vaccination and a campaign against parasites were launched, with quite successful results.

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[1] Information obtained from personal interview with local authorities.

Local groups formed in small districts by the name of "equipe focal"
(nuclei groups) have been important in developing qualities of leadership
in their members. Individual initial involvement in a group situation of
this kind is by itself good training for further involvement in broader
spheres of the community. The variety of roles one individual performs
will provide him with greater capacity to adapt when he fills other roles
in different situations. When he becomes confident enough he will be
willing to accept other roles. In his encounter with others, a
successful group leader or individual must take into account the feelings
of others. His ability to put himself in another's position (empathy)
is seen here as one result of communication with the world outside the
village. The resulting lack of role-taking ability later leads to a
psychological rejection of unfamiliar roles when these are encountered
(as in the mass media or when a peasant travels to the city) and a
distrust of people who are cast in these novel roles,[1] e.g. it is common
for a rural emigrant to look for a place in town where he will find a
group of people from the same background. His living style and outlook
will be the same as before, since he is unable to relate with people
whose interests differ from his, consequently he will not learn anything
new. Lack of empathy serves to insulate the traditional individual from
the outside world-wide communication messages that could develop higher
empathy in him.

The use of undergraduates from urban environments to rural ones
from the same or different states has also caused an impact on the rural
population and on the undergraduates as well. From the undergraduates'
point of view, there has been much effort to identify themselves with the
rural people; that way they have been successful (with exceptions) in
making themselves understood and accepted. A high degree of interaction
has been developed between the agents of change (undergraduates,

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[1] Stewart and Hoult 1959 in Rogers, op.cit., p.53.

probationaries) and the rural population. The effort to build a homophilous[1] relationship on the part of rural individuals has also been great. This sort of interaction means that ideas, attitudes and values are more easily accepted and adopted. With much confidence groups have been formed in order to apply new production techniques in the fishing industry, horticulture, and manufacture of clothing, co-operatives have been set up and housing has improved.

Bad feelings have sometimes been voiced about the acceptance of Piaui project. The fact that this project and its co-ordinator did not come from the same state has caused some difficulty in its acceptance by the top political leaders, considering it unrealistic in the regional circumstances. Favouritism prevails in this region; he who gets more votes to elect a politician is more powerful in getting more government concessions. Rules and regulations are sometimes made to satisfy individual interests. Scarcity of resources results in unequal treatment of large numbers of underprivileged people. It would be unrealistic to recruit the co-ordinator from the area concerned since it is unlikely that a local individual would be able to change the above mentioned political system; even if he/she were non-political, pressures would probably emerge through his/her family (usually a large one) involved in the system in one way or another. The truth is that the success obtained by small projects in different sectors has been an encouragement for the community's continuation of effort, working together in order to reach other levels of achievement.

In 1974 CRUTAC had reached more than 50 per cent of the population in one or more aspects, in all geographical areas in which it had expanded its activities.[2]

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[1] Homophily is the degree to which pairs of individuals who interact are similar in certain attributes. In Rogers, ibid., p.181.

[2] Unpublished 1974 CRUTAC report.

Rondon's figures do not express the population affected, but indirectly, one can reckon through the annual increase of undergraduates involved and by the quantity of created advanced campuses. Until 1973 the number of undergraduates had reached 26,200, while in 1974, 8,000 were involved only in regional operations. From 1969 to 1976 it was planned for there to be 30 advanced campuses in 30 microregions comprising 150 Municipalities, as was mentioned before.[1]

Piaui project in the first two years of its existence reached parts of three microregions out of eleven which constitute the State and 1,800 individuals were involved in their different courses offered to fulfil their needs.[2]

A cost benefit evaluation of these three projects would be difficult to make since the number of individuals indirectly benefited is unpredictable, and even when changes occur directly, the effects are not always shown immediately. Besides, programmes which are effective in helping subsistence families will almost certainly have unattractive economic benefit/cost ratios measured in the narrow conventional manner. Most will have to be heavily subsidized by more privileged areas and individuals in the country until they can get on their own feet. A broader sort of cost-benefit measure will have to be applied, one that is addressed to the real issue: whether the social costs of not subsidising these backward areas and subsistence families will be greater than the costs of subsidising them.[3]

For the moment, one might expect that from the psychological point of view Project Piaui, Rondon and CRUTAC have been able to act on their geographical coverage (dealing with interactions of many factors with

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[1] See pages 162, 168-172.

[2] See page 147.

[3] Attacking Rural Poverty, p.194.

variables such as innovativeness,[1] raising of aspirations, political participation, empathy, cosmopoliteness[2] and achievement motivation) emerging in the future, new structural features on the regional and municipal formal organisations, in order that the impulse towards modernisation[3] be sustained.

How does Man and Society Modernise ?

This sort of institutionalisation or structural features required to facilitate modernisation, and the psychological factors as well, were both confirmed and discussed by F. Lamond Tullis.[4] The first argument is that the psychological processes of modernisation (the development of inter-personal trust, empathy, faith in the future and the other modern psychological features already mentioned) are dependent variables explained by larger institutional and structural processes occurring in the society as a whole. From this point of view, the colonial powers themselves sowed the seeds of modernisation in Africa, Asia and Latin America by transferring to those areas the structural apparatus of a modern commercial city. Once colonial people became habituated to the transplanted structures and institutions, some of them began to acquire the ideas, values and attitudes necessary to sustain the transplants. All this suggests that man's attitudes and values are somehow "captives" of his environment, that values change only insofar as the environmental changes occur first - that modern psychology is preceded by differentiation or

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[1] Innovativeness denotes the degree to which an individual is earlier than others in his social system to adopt new ideas; in Rogers, Everett M., Diffusion of Innovations, New York: Free Press 1962, p.159.

[2] Cosmopoliteness is the degree to which an individual is oriented outside his social system. It is expected that cosmopolite villagers will be leaders in the modernisation process and serve as links with the larger society; in Rogers, Everett M., Modernization Among Peasants, p.52.

[3] Modernisation is the process by which individuals change from a traditional way of life to a more complex, technologically more advanced one and with a more rapid life style.

[4] Politics and Social Change in Third World Countries, London: Wiley, 1973, pp.32-41.

specialisation.[1]

Albert O. Hirschman[2] interpreting a theory of cognitive dissonance, illustrates this general relationship of attitudes to environment. The theory holds that a person who commits himself to some kind of modernising behaviour, contrary to his beliefs or values is a state of dissonance; as, for example, when a peasant is forced by drought to leave the land and take a menial city factory job.

> Such a state is unpleasant, and the person will attempt
> to reduce the dissonance. Since the 'discrepant behavior'
> has already taken place and cannot be undone, while the
> belief can be changed, reduction of dissonance can be
> achieved principally by changing one's beliefs in the
> direction of greater harmony with the action.[3]

The conclusion at this point is that if political leaders desire people's values and attitude to modernise so that economic development takes place, then they should set up structural or institutional mechanisms to encourage people to adopt socially advanced behaviour. It is argued that the appropriate modernising attitudes will have an automatic tendency to fall in line as the individuals attempt to reduce the dissonance between their values and their new roles.

The psychological argument about the source of modernisation maintains that massive changes in institutions and environment are simply another way of talking about the visible results of large aggregations of social psychological events that are now in process or have already taken place. Attitudes and values of large groups of people somehow modernise; the people organise themselves and then go about the task of modernising their environment. The result of the new modernising behaviour is to cause social and political structures to differentiate and to

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[1] Differentiation stands for the idea concerned with the formation of new structures whereas specialisation refers to the idea concerned with the dividing up of old roles into new and more specialised ones.

[2] In F. Lamond Tullis, *ibid.*, p.34.

[3] Albert O. Hirschman, "Obstacles to Development: A Classification and a Quasi-Vanishing Act", *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 13 No.4 (July 1966); reprinted in Harvey Kebschall, ed., *Politics in Transitional Societies* (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1968, p.375), in F. Lamond Tullis, *op.cit.*, p.34.

become more specialised, and to make the economy grow. According to
this position, the law functions because of the values of those people
in a position to enforce it. But the values themselves are not necessarily
created by the passing of the law.

To get at the basic dynamics behind modernisation, some authorities
have said that it is better to abandon the notion of institutions and
structures and to go directly, to the new attitudes and values of people.
In David McClelland's view,[1] there is a "mental virus" of some sort that
must first exist in the minds of the people, answering the question of how
men develop modern skills and attitudes and how a society, an economy, and
a government become modern. To the extent that people have that virus
they will be psychologically equipped to modernise, according to him.
In the existing conditions, the society will become activated, and people
will push ahead with the task of modernising their structures, their
institutions, and their general environment.

In the very beginning of the development of current symbols of
modernisation, some individuals had to be innovative and empathic for the
first time, and had to produce the psychological elements that allowed
them to create and develop environmental change. Hence, one might argue
that attitudes and values changed first and were followed thereafter by
the development of the structural symbols of modernisation, including those
related to economic development. But someone else might also argue that
the value change itself resulted from striking antecedent structural
events.

So the third position is a reconciliation between the two first
ones. This accepts many of the perspectives of the institution-first and
the psychology-first arguments. It maintains that the processes of
modernisation are too complex to allow rigid causal categories to be
established. It can derive sometimes from one or the other category.

[1] _Ibid._, p.37.

Most of the time there is a mutual reinforcement encouraging the
elaboration of modern replacements. Social disturbances can occur
where the process of institutional modernisation proceeds at a much
more rapid pace than does the development of modern values and attitudes
among groups in the society. It can also arise when attitudes and values
undergo modernising changes but the structures and institutions suffer
from archaic rigidity; in that case elitist groups feel threatened by
change and employ whatever means are at their disposal to prevent it.

Having analysed the integrated projects - Piaui, Rondon and
CRUTAC's objectives, structures, methodology and results, and having
discussed the dimensions which modernisation involves, one also realises
that much more needs to be done to keep the society balanced during
inevitable upheavals.

Changes occurring in the Local Educational Systems as a Result of Piaui,

    Rondon and CRUTAC's contribution

What has been said so far about accomplishment and benefit caused by
Piaui, Rondon and CRUTAC was an account of how the educational process
has taken place in these areas. Education in the broader sense and any
change in individual values, attitudes and behaviour, is always brought
about by educational processes, intentionally or not. Development and
modernisation processes involve education in inducing the individual
towards the assimilation of a social and ecological environment, adjusting
to it and controlling it at the same time. However, education in the
"strict sense" as the organised and institutionalised transmission of
fundamental, technical and scientific knowledge and skills in schools,
also requires a great deal of consideration as a means of sustaining the
whole process of development.

Schools and teachers have taken part in all educational subproject
activities, recently implemented. When a group of undergraduates and

probationers (from the educational sector in the university) decide to

enrol in Rondon and CRUTAC they first receive a list of suggestions on

the educational needs of the district where they are to be sent. As the

number of unqualified teachers is always high in those remote areas, and

also because undergraduate conditions, having academic activities limiting

travelling during the week, the most suitable type of activity is usually

short and refresher courses on methodology, training local teachers in

their specific educational subjects, aiming at adjusting the school

curricula to local needs.

Piaui's project in education has taken another shape. A group from

the community with co-ordinated guidance got together and equipped a

kindergarten with their own resources so increasing the number of places

for children in school. Another initiative mentioned in the report was

the organisation of rules and regulations for some school libraries, a

structural aspect in dealing with community problems.

On these integrated projects, the approach to initiate any

educational activity when the group - community, village or whatever unit

one takes - feels the needs for it has been stressed. In exaggerating

this however, the subprojects run the risk of becoming too localised and

national, regional development plans may have been forgotten. At certain

periods, agents of change need to induce some ideas to the community

thoughts, provoking or stimulating special type of subproject.[1] At more

advanced stages, more self directed activities might be applied. The role

of agents of change is to give or present alternatives towards the

solution of educational problems and also sometimes to persuade the group

to follow a certain path, as Batten points out:

> Hence although we believe very strongly in the value
> of the non-directive approach as a means of promoting
> development and growth in people, we also believe that

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[1] For example, the experience of other Municipalities in how they
solved similar problems.

> workers (agents of change) should be careful to avoid
> imposing on dependent groups of young, or immature, or
> inexperienced people responsibilities for autonomous
> decision making in excess of what they really are willing
> and able to bear. What the worker has to do with such
> people is to delineate initially only those areas of
> freedom and responsibility which he believes they will
> value and can learn to exercise with benefit and
> satisfaction to themselves. Then, as their confidence
> grows and as their competence increases, he will enlarge
> their area of freedom and responsibility accordingly.[1]

Nor is there a rigid rule where projects should have priority; in many instances, particular circumstances indicate whatever is most viable at the time. In circumstances one must consider the following factors: time, money, quality of the staff, political forces etc.

Perspectives on a real move towards modernisation coming from the educational sectors have apparently been manifested as a result of a particular subproject initiated by CRUTAC-CE. Following the principle that innovations should start with people with a wider range of influence over their area, some effort was put into identifying the potential on already acting educational leaders and group them together. This group stimulated and being aware of the educational needs for the Municipality, only with a little guidance eventually would continue independently active doing their own responsible work of improving their environment, with special emphasis on the educational sector which they were part of.

Awareness and competence (how to deal with the educational problems) were successfully provided, using as a tool an intensive course on the Structure and Functioning of First and Second Levels of Education. This course is graded as credit units for a degree in Education, as it was referred to before.[2] Since then, more than half the initial group have decided to join the university for a degree, on a part-time basis. Later on, its members thought of benefiting other able members of the community joining facilities to establish, perhaps, a branch of the

[1] T.R. Batten, Non-Directive Approach, op.cit., p.22.

[2] See pages 194-198.

university in the Municipality of Itapipoca. They already have made
some attempts to achieve that by getting the support of other institutions
such as the church leaders and the mayor of the Municipality, the
university rector of the Federal University and the State governor.

Hence, the initiative, the confidence in the future improvement,
the achieved motivation, the increase of aspiration, the innovative mind
created among these groups of education leaders (mostly heads of First
and Second Levels of Education, including the State and Municipal top
administrative heads of education systems in the locality eventually
appointed) has indeed been felt since then through their attitude and
new initiative.

In order to keep this group alive, increasing in number and on
their perception maturity, it might guarantee the continuation of
modernisation trends in that region. During the analysis of Piaui, Rondon
and CRUTAC-CE projects, no special advice on how to do it was given.
Perhaps they have not yet reached the stage of analysing the educational
needs in its specific structural aspects which developing and advanced
regions must face.

R. Havelock, in his elaborate study about the different stages an
innovation in education encompasses, refers to the need of an internal
change agency as a tool of requirement to generate the self-renewal
process. This is how he explains this kind of internal change agency:

> A group of people who were supposed to work on innovation
> as a full time job. . . Such an agency would give structural
> legitimacy and reality to the concept of self renewal. It
> should ideally incorporate a) full-time agents or consultants
> who understand the innovation process and can work easily
> with other members of the client system; b) built-in
> competence to train all members of the client system in the
> skills of diagnosis, retrieval, selection, and evaluation of
> innovations.[1]

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[1] Ronald G. Havelock, _A Guide to Innovation in Education_, Michigan:
The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1970, p.154.

He also suggests that, in order to ensure the continuance of a
particular innovation, a sort of structural integration within the
existing system is needed.

Hence, the next section will be an attempt to speculate on some
structural alternatives which might be useful when dealing with new
educational requirements, in areas where trends towards development
have been on the way and where there is a demand for expansion of the
educational facilities.

SECTION V

STRUCTURAL CHANGES WITHIN EDUCATIONAL ORGANISATION

CHAPTER 10

EMERGING STRUCTURAL ORGANISATION

At the National Level

Expansion and Diversification. In each of the last three decades, enrolments at schools has almost doubled in Brazil.[1] In order to adjust the system to the new demands of the population, an average of one education reform has taken place every ten years since Brazil became a republic in 1889. To cope with the fast expansion, primary schools reduced the number of years in the cycle and adopted systems of two or three shifts[2] but recently, the move has been in the opposite direction to increase the number of years in the cycle, in the interests of the country's economic development.

The expansion of secondary schools has not only been in number but also in kind. They emerged initially as a preparatory stage for university and evolved into a rigid diversified system to answer the new requirements of rapid industrialisation. The last educational reform, more sensitive to social pressures, eliminated the existing rigidity among different streams and the integrated secondary school was treated with important characteristics of flexibility, continuity and termination already described in Chapter 4.

Educational matters at the Federal level were the responsibility of different councils.[3] In 1930 the Federal Congress approved the creation of

[1] Enrolment at school:

	1953	1964	1975
(a) Primary (million)	5	9	16
(b) Secondary (million)	1	2	7
(c) Higher (thousand)	75	116	889

Sources: "Anuário Estatístico do Brasil" 1955, 1966, 1974. Análise 1975, and II Plan of National Development in The Times, May 3, 1976.

[2] Anísio S. Teixeira, Educação não e Privilégio, Livraria José Olympio ed., Rio, 1957, p.64.

[3] M.C. Tavares Miranda, Educação no Brasil, Imprensa Universitária, Recife, 1966, pp.60-69.

an executive Ministry of Education and Public Health, under the
leadership of the president of the republic. The intention in creating
the Ministry which would provide some guidance and philosophical support
for the different educational institutions was not new but its adoption
came only after a change in the political set-up. Since then, this
Ministry has been headed by a Minister, politically appointed by the
President. Several conferences took place at that time and the principles
on which to direct education in the country were freely discussed and
debated at large. Compulsory attendance of students and inspection in
public and private schools were established, and school programmes were
restructured. This organisation which would integrate education in the
country, very soon started to develop through its different branches,
according to the expansion and complexity evolved from the refinement of
services. As a result, in 1938 the National Institute for Pedagogic
Studies (Instituto Nacional de Estudos Pedagogicos - INEP) was created
as a centre for educational research, documentation, and financial and
technical support to the States and Municipalities as well as private
institutions for education. To communicate its findings, INEP has
maintained the educational journal Revista Brasileira de Estudos Pedagogicos.
It is very much respected and read in educational circles, reaching all
educational centres of Brazil. Cultural institutions, aiming at the
cultural and educational integration of the nation were founded under
the Ministry of Education. The National Institute of the Educative
Cinema in 1937 and the National Service for Radio-diffusion of Education
in 1939 were examples.

In 1942 the effect of new industrialisation started being reflected
in the educational organisations and as a result, the National Service for
Industrial Apprenticeship - SENAI emerged and in 1946 another similar
organisation for commerce, under the name of SENAC emerged, preparing
technicians, and skilled and semi-skilled workers.

In Brazil the fifties marked the era of specialisation at higher levels of learning and the Ministry of Education and Culture initiated new services, opening more facilities to prepare high level manpower all over Brazil. To cope with these new obligations more organisations were created under the Ministry such as: the National Council for Research which conducted special programmes for postgraduate students and exchange of technology; several organisations were founded: Institute of Agronomy, Technological Research and Aeronautical Technology; National Co-ordination for Postgraduate Studies (CAPES); Campaign to enlarge the Secondary School Network; Brazilian Centres for Educational Research and Regional Centres, the last two subordinated to I.N.E.P.

Through campaigns, committees, working parties and movements, the Ministry has been introducing new activities and constantly reshaping education and its services in the federal sphere of administration.

Efforts towards Integration. In the years when the Education Act of 1961 was being studied and elaborated, there was a movement towards restoring democracy in the country after fifteen years of dictatorship. The nation was experimenting with a new form of government, with a constitution rewritten in 1946. More emphasis was given to education which was supported by a budget, fixed in terms of a percentage of the total amount. The new policy in formulation showed a trend towards delegating more responsibilities and power to the states.

From the Education Act of 1961 emerged the Federal Council for Education as a statutory body, and a part of the Ministry, to act as an agent in integrating all the educational interests of the country. Its members were to be prominent educators and representative of all geographical regions, educational levels of schooling and different interests - private (secular and religious) and public.

The council was given power to make recommendations to the Ministry, to interpret educational laws and to allocate financial resources,

according to an educational plan also approved by the Ministry (this privilege was revoked by the Constitution of 1967[1]). There is not much critical literature about the Council's functions and performance in exercising them. L. Oliveira Lima however, made the following comment on them:

> Everywhere councils are consultative bodies; in Brazil however the councils[2] (where private schools are pre-dominantly represented) exercise executive functions. The result was a general anarchy. Without technical and administrative personnel to aid them, councils transformed themselves into academic debates and organs for approving school charters, a merely bureaucratic function which existed before under a small sector of an education department - the Sector for Building and School Equipment (Seccao de Predios e Aparelhamento Escolar - S.P.A.E.) It is a limited task which school inspectors got used to exercising for more than fifty years in their respective sectors, with much more efficiency and technical resources. To make the councillors move from their chairs and from their administrative posts in order to search out a particular school's documents and to make sure that everything was in order for the due approval was too expensive a task. . . A member of the Ministry of the Secretariat administrative staff could easily (as had been done before) accomplish this. To channel documentation through council for routine tasks is deeply regrettable when so many national educational problems required close attention.[3]

Although L. Oliveira Lima's criticisms deserve serious consideration, as he pointed out one cannot in fact deny that excessive administrative tasks exist. However, some important aspects for the whole educational organisation were taken into consideration by the new council. That professionals, representative of teachers and lecturers were the sole representatives was a positive feature as was also the selection of members from among educators of great expertise and experience at all levels of education; they were also to be representative of the regions,

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[1] The Ministry for Planning and Development has been in charge since 1967 of establishing the priorities and goals for the country's development, and Education is included there.

[2] Referring to both the Federal and State councils.

[3] L. Oliveira Lima, O Impasse da Educação, p.162, translated by the writer of this thesis.

private and public systems of education and all were appointed by the

President of the Republic. The intention was to have the balance of

educational interests at the Ministry level, avoiding conflicts of

systems and facilitating interaction and equal treatment for all levels

of education and for different types of education at the same level. It

is true that the Council is overloaded with administrative tasks but its

recommendations have contributed a great deal towards educational

innovations, in the course of Brazilian development. Among its prominent

members, some have particularly contributed and been the main authors of

the last Federal educational reform and educational decisions.[1]

At the State Level (State of Ceará)

Expansion and Diversification. In the State of Ceará the first

governmental administrative organisation to deal with educational

institutions emerged in 1945 under the name of the Secretariat of

Education and Health and sixteen years later these two different

activities were separated into two specialised secretariats: one for

education and culture and the other for health.

The volume of services grew with the increase in enrolments.[2] In

1963 the Secretariat of Education and Culture was completely reorganised by

State law, in order to prepare for new responsibilities delegated to it by

the National Education Act of 1961 and as a result of popular demands for

more and new kinds of schools. At that time seven regional superintendencies

were created in order to decentralise educational control and administration

within the state. Organisations ideally should allow for a process so

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[1] Professor Walnir Chagas, Professor Newton Sucupira, Pr.José de Vasconcellos
of the Federal University of Ceará; Federal University of Pernambuco, and
representative of Catholic Schools respectively.

[2] Enrolment at school

	1960	1964	1969
a) Primary (thousand)	275	335	421
b) Secondary (thousand)	31	51	91

Source: Departmento de Estudos e Pesquisas da Secretaria de Educação do
Estado do Ceará em Diagnóstico da Realidade Educacional, 1971.

changes might continuously take place according to political trends,

need for innovation and also according to changing concepts of

organisation.

However, this system although greatly expanded so far, has not been

able to provide enough schools to offer universal primary education. In

1974 for example, the enrolment of children between seven and fourteen

years reached 733,000, which is only 71 percent of the age cohort.[1]

However, statistical analysis has also shown that in the period 1967-1972,

of each one thousand students enrolled in the First Level, only seventy

arrived in the eighth grade. It can be said that the system has swollen

instead of grown and that the quality of learning has not accompanied the

increase in enrolment. One evidence of this is the high wastage rate.

This idea of superintendency was abolished in 1969 after six years

in operation. Not much improvement occurred because although on paper

many of the responsibilities should have been delegated to the superintend-

ency area for decision, they were not provided with facilities to exercise

the same responsibilities. Services were still being centralised in the

State headquarters at the capital city, because of the fear of losing their

direct influences and prestiges over different regions.

With a new governor in power, effort was made for greater

rationalisation in the executive area of administration and a renewed

attempt at decentralisation. Between 1971 and 1974 the State was again

divided into twelve administrative units. It seems that in an organisation

a structural change works only when it is accompanied by psychological

readiness.[2] That is why unless the component groups of an organisation

are prepared to accept an innovation, the results of the change might be

much waste of energy for the organisation. The pressure for expansion in

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[1] Plano Quinquenal. Estado do Ceará, 1975, pp.150-152.

[2] See page 238.

1963, with a new emphasis on education by the government, required a state-structural reform in education which was followed by a proliferation of departments with specialised services, and in 1971 there was the opposite trend to integrate and consolidate different departmental services, as an effort towards rationalisation.

Efforts towards Integration. It was not sufficient merely to adapt the structure and to decentralise under the superintendency. The same law which at the Federal level created the Federal Council for Education in 1961, also recommended the same kind of Council with equivalent functions for the States. In that manner, many decisions that were taken before only by an executive head - the Secretary of Education - were now the responsibility of a group of educators. The educationists were given the chance to be more active in participating in the educational decisions. The moment had come for educationists to introduce more pedagogic devices and to improve the quality of learning.

The criticisms made by L. Oliveira Lima about the Federal sphere were repeated at the State level, and too many routine tasks prevented the State Councils from being more creative and innovative. However, the blend of professionals in the Council within the executive organisation, has been a recognition of the need to integrate different interest groups - managerial and professional. Unfortunately, the choice of members has not always been the best. Being a prestigious position for which financial rewards are also given, political influences play a larger part in the choice of membership. Members receive remuneration for each meeting attended and its accumulation by the end of a month might be equivalent to the salary of a teacher in a secondary school.

Planning activities have grown in importance. Before 1966 however, these activities were co-ordinated within the administrative functions of each education department. After 1966, a planning committee was introduced

to deal permanently with educational planning. In fact, this measure

was adopted for each of the State public services - health, agriculture,

etc. This new effort to integrate into one activity different educational

services has brought the advantages of a more systematic operation and new

financial resources being attracted to education. Conflicts however have

emerged between administrative heads and the planning committee. Co-

operation is difficult when a struggle for power is involved. Both

activities - planning and administration - constitute important elements

which the executive head depends on. One carries the information and the

other the tools for action. Without co-operation between the two an

organisation can barely survive.

In the meantime, the State education system of administration has

co-existed with those of the Municipality. However, at the same time that

it has made attempts to delegate responsibility, through transfer of

financial resources for the Municipalities to administer, it still has had

parallel control of school administration. In 1974, 26.4 percent of

Itapipoca's budget came from State transfers[1] and of the 36 school

buildings, 26 belonged to the State system.[2]

Process of Differentiation and Integration

Simply defined, differentiation is the evolution from a multi-

functional role structure to several more specialised structures. As a

formal education system emerges for example, training functions previously

performed by the family and church are established in a more specialised

unit, the school. Consequently when the State assumes an educational role

because of the national interest in developing technical knowledge and

skills among its population the types of schools become diversified and

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[1] *Itapipoca's Budget 1974*, published under number 237/73, approved by
the Mayor in Itapipoca, 3rd November 1973.

[2] *Plano Municipal de Educação*, Município de Itapipoca, 1970/72.

structural support to co-ordinate them will also emerge, breaking the previous multifunctional role into a series of specialised ones.

Differentiation concerns only changes in role structures. In addition to the concept of differentiation studied by Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim went further and included the role of integrative mechanisms during periods of growing social heterogeneity. He argues convincingly that accompanying a growing division of labour there is an increase in mechanisms for co-ordinating and solidifying the interaction among individuals whose interests are becoming progressively more diversified. He located this integration largely in the legal structure; however similar kinds of integrative forces can be discerned elsewhere in society.

Differentiation, therefore, is not by itself sufficient for modernisation. Development occurs as an interaction between differentiation (which is divisive of established society) and integration (which unites differentiated structures in a new basis). However, the course of integration itself produces more differentiated structures.[1]

The resulting integrative structures attempt, with more or less success, to co-ordinate and solidify the social structure which the forces of differentiation threaten to fragment. In many cases, the integrative associations and parties are extremely unstable: religious sects become political clubs; consultative bodies become executive authorities and so on. This fluidity indicates the urgent need for re-integration during a rapid, irregular, and disruptive process of differentiation. The initial response is a trial-and-error type of reaching for many kinds of integration at once.[2]

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[1] N.J. Smelser, Essays in Sociological Explanations, Prentice-Hall, Inc. U.S.A. 1969, pp.137-138.

[2] Ibid., p.140.

The structural changes, associated with modernisation incorporate in the model a number of variables such as disturbances and social control, social conflict and leadership in which are some of the causes of disturbances in the social order for the reasons which follow.

1. Differentiation demands the creation of new activities, norms, rewards and sanctions; for example: political position, prestige based on occupation etc. These often conflict with former modes of social action. Traditional standards are among the most intransigent obstacles to modernisation, and when they are threatened, serious dissatisfaction and opposition to the threatening agents arise.

2. Structural change does not take place simultaneously in a period of modernisation; traditional religions and family systems remain unaltered while changes may occur in educational and political frameworks. This generates disharmony between actual experiences and the norms which regulate them.

3. Dissatisfactions arising from conflict with traditional ways and those arising from the asynchronous changes aggravate each other when they meet.

The forces of tradition, the forces of differentiation and the new forces of integration create unlimited situations for group conflict. If and when the responses of anxiety, hostility and fantasy become collective, they might be transformed into a variety of movements - revolutionary or peaceful.[1]

For the theorists associated with the differentiation process, social change takes place following a process sequence pattern which might be divided into seven steps for the sake of analysis.

1. It is dissatisfaction with the level of profits or with inefficiencies in the marketing system, or with the final product or

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[1] For example: peace agitation, political violence, millenarianism etc. Ibid., p.142.

service, or with inability to earn a living wage, or with the performance of officials of an institutionalised role.

2. Expressions of anxiety, hostility and fantasy indicate symptoms of disturbances because this dissatisfaction, exaltation of the past or utopian vision of the future also emerges.

3. Handling and channelling the symptoms of disturbances which constitute a holding operation before any structural change actually occurs. The agencies of social control - the police, the courts, the press, community leaders etc. - are activated in order to prevent excesses and threats to social stability.

4. This is the stage of investigating what resources might be brought to bear on the sources of dissatisfaction. New ideas are encouraged in the direction of positive change.

5. Proposal of innovations as an attempt to specify institutional forms that will ease the sources of dissatisfaction.

6. Implementation attempts to establish new institutional forms, the ideas and suggestions of the previous two steps.

In government spheres, the legislature actually passes laws and thus meets the list of public support. Successful innovations in the public sphere are greeted with public goodwill as reward.

7. Consolidation of the new institutional forms as a permanent feature of the social structure.[1]

There are several theories which have tried to explain and to predict the way social changes take place. Some theorists refer to the presence of social hostility and group conflict in the processes of social disintegration and social reconstruction. Leighton[2] singled out suspiciousness,

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[1] N.J. Smelser, op.cit., pp.79-80.

[2] Alexander H. Leighton, Human Relations in a Changing World. Observations on the Use of the Social Sciences. New York: E.P. Dutton & Co. Inc. 1949 pp.77-78 in Smelser, ibid., p.223.

hatred, hostility and destructive action as one of the major responses

to stress. Anthony F.C. Wallace spoke of an ambivalent stage that appears

towards the end of the recovery process, a stage marked by complaints,

criticisms and group conflicts.[1] J.J. Spengler found some form of group

conflict at almost every phase of the rise and fall of cultures; and he

described the latter stages of the decline of civilisation as situations

of political localism, exploitation and war.[2] Spencer isolated conflict

as the main basis for his "militant society". Modern differentiation-

integration theorists view conflict as the salient feature of the early

phases of the process of differentiation.[3] ". . . Social change under

crisis conditions cannot be understood without grasping the many roles

that conflict plays in the process".[4]

Karl Marx, whose theories were organised around the concept of

conflict in which the economic structure of society dictates the general

character of the social, political and spiritual aspects of life, maintained

that the final causes of all social changes and political revolutions were

to be sought in changes in the modes of production and exchange. However

in his theories it is by the means of political revolution and not economic

action that change in the economic structure would be accomplished.[5]

In order to explain the structural changes which have evolved in the

last decades in Brazil at different levels of administration, I have chosen

the theory of differentiation and integration because

> the direction of change depends at every stage and in
> large part on the activities of the government-and-control
> apparatus - its planning, its ability to mobilise people
> and resources in periods of strain; its ability to contain
> and respond to protest, and its ability to guide and control
> institutional innovations.[6]

It is assumed here that government-control and apparatus have been and will

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[1] Anthony F.C. Wallace, 'Tornado in Worcester' in Smelser, ibid., p.231.

[2] Ibid., pp.239-40.   [3] Ibid., pp.247-252.

[4] Ibid., p.254.   [5] Ibid., pp.255-257.

[6] Ibid., p.278.

be able to cope with the conflict which will emerge as a result of the pace and intensity with which changes have occurred, preventing extreme confrontations of contradictory forces, which could lead to a revolution.

In Brazil, the processes of differentiation and integration have been taking place provoked by increasing social demands which in turn have been a result of industrialisation. The growth in population and the increased demand for education have led to expansion of the school system and specialisation of different sectors within it. The educational machinery has not only expanded but also become more complex with integrative organs as a means of controlling, for example, the Federal and State Councils for Education.

Changes of roles and functions of different educational institutions have occurred as the result of amalgamation, transformation, and creation of new services. Superintendencies, delegations, planning committees, etc. are names corresponding to new activities which have emerged from the new education structures.

The trends indicate that the process of differentiation-integration in the development of the educational system at the Municipal level will follow very much the pattern adopted at the other administrative levels. The reason is that expansion of the educational network and diversified types of educational programmes, all follow the principles and directives originating in the national and state statutory measures.

At the Municipal Level (Municipality of Itapipoca)

Expansion and Diversification. Between 1969 and 1974 in the Municipality of Itapipoca, the general budget for local public services increased by 347 percent.[1] This increase was not only due to the growth in local revenue but was also a result of the increase in the money transferred from the Federal and State governments. Whereas in 1969 the

[1]This figure has not been adjusted to take account of inflation.

transfer represented 8.2 percent of the Municipality's total budget, in 1974 it reached 89.8 percent.[1]

Population has been increasing not however as in the metropolitan areas of the country which is continuously receiving people from rural areas. In the decade between 1960 and 1970 Itapipoca's population growth of 19.9 percent was a result of the natural increase less the immigrants to the capital city.

In the last quarter of a century, the supply of schools for children between seven to fourteen years of age increased by 87.2 percent and the enrolment had an increase of 98 percent. The biggest increase however was in the number of teachers: although mostly unqualified, it reached 129.6 percent so that the pupil-teacher ratio steadily decreased from 39:1 in 1950 to 37:1 in 1960 and ten years later to 34:1. Had the Municipality built an adequate machinery to cope with this expansion, conditions would probably have been better. In 1970, 54 percent of the school age population was still out of school, representing in absolute numbers 5,373 children[2] and yet little more than half of the teaching staff was supported completely by Municipal funds. From the same funds the Municipality provides for the four initial years of primary school and maintains a school unit which also provides the four upper grade years of the new First Level of Education.

In order to co-ordinate the whole Municipal system of education, the mayor appoints a secretary of education with assistance from two supervisors. Acting through the authority of the mayor,[3] their functions have been to assess and provide for the needs of schools; to select and allocate teachers; to recommend the size of new schools; to suggest an agreed salary scale of teachers; to fix the conditions of service and take action for dismissal;

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[1] Anuário de Educação do Ceará in 1970 and Itapipoca Budget of 1974.

[2] Anuário de Educação do Ceará, 1970.

[3] Organização Municipal do Ceará, Law no. 9,457 de 4 de junho de 1971, Art 63, V.

to establish conditions for admission of students into the system; to
mould some of the curriculum components according to the local demand and
manpower needs; to supervise the method of teaching; to advise on text-
books' acquisition generally and distribute some textbooks.

In schools maintained by State funds there is a regional delegation
located in Itapipoca headquarters which also looks after eleven other
Municipalities. It operates as an intermediate agency between the State
central office and the different Municipalities. Its influence is greatly
reduced by difficulties of communication and personal contact, since
the geographical area is a very large one and transport facilities rare
and very expensive.

There is much duplication of effort by Municipal and State agencies
as each maintains its own parallel system of primary schools.

Other educational programmes have been in operation in the
Municipality, and are very much on their own, linked vertically only with
their maintaining agencies - Federal or State. These programmes have been
brought into the Municipality thanks mainly to the special interest and
prestige of the mayor. They can be permanent or temporary and they
operate mostly through the local teachers already engaged in education
at one of the various levels. It is common to be a teacher from any of the
agencies - Federal, State, Municipal or Private - and also be a teacher
of programmes like PIPMO, MOBRAL, MEB, MINERVA PROJECT, GINASIO MADUREZA,
CRUTAC, RONDON etc. receiving an extra salary correspondent to the new job.

Information about these programmes is known only by a few closely
involved in them. At the Municipal level there are no agencies to provide
information or to provide co-ordination among the projects. Nor are there
established channels for informing the leaders of the Municipality of
educational matters.

Reports written by Municipal administration are usually incomplete
because they lack this comprehensive description of the development

programmes introduced by the different organisations. Awareness of the process of differentiation and integration would help in considering what steps to take to facilitate a structural machinery device to improve effectiveness at the Municipal level of education in Itapipoca.

The diversity in the education system within the same boundary, the diversity of programmes and entities operating independently would perhaps be an indication of a need for an integrative body which might bring all the educational activities and goals together and adjusted to local needs.

In order to locate and to determine the functions of a possible integrative body it is necessary to have a good understanding of the functions which an ideal type of formal organisation should have.

Functions of a Formal Organisation:

Talcott Parsons sees school organisation in its dependent relationship to the wider community. He assumes that for an organisation to fulfil its purposes effectively certain clearly defined functions must be performed. These functions are performed by the three levels or systems of the formal organisation which he identifies as the technical, the managerial and the institutional systems.

The technical functions of education which are the actual process of teaching and the conduct of classes, are performed by the technical system, represented by teachers. The managerial functions are primarily administrative. In education, the administrators appoint and allocate teachers to teach in particular schools, and particular districts; they usually decide what should be taught, to whom and by whom. The institutional functions are concerned with the representation of the public interest. They are generally elected members or appointed personnel serving on committees, boards, or within institutions whose primary function is to interpret and assess public demand and needs and to see to it that the technical and managerial systems function in the light

of these demands and needs. They are, therefore, responsible for the

determination of policy and ultimately accountable to the public not

only for that policy, but also for its execution.

Decisions within organisations are usually the result of the

interaction between the three systems. Hence the relationship between

the systems is important in order to balance the different forces.

> A formal organization in this present[1] sense is a
> mechanism by which goals somehow important to the
> society, or to various sub-systems of it, are
> implemented and to some degree defined. But not
> only does such an organisation have to operate in a
> social environment which imposes the conditions
> governing the processes of disposal and procurement,
> it is also part of a wider social system which is the
> source of the 'meaning', legitimation, or higher-level
> support which makes the implementation of the
> organization's goals possible. Essentially, this means
> that just as a technical organization (at a sufficiently
> high level of the division of labour) is controlled and
> 'serviced' by a managerial organization so in turn, is the
> managerial organization controlled by the 'institutional'
> structure and agencies of the community.[2]

No organisation can, therefore, be ever wholly independent.

Although the three systems form a hierarchy, the relations between the

systems are never simple one-way relations. Each system depends in a

real sense upon the contributions of the other. Decisions can never

simply be delivered. "At each of the two points of articulation

between subsystems there is a two-way interchange of inputs and

outputs".[3]

> The technical expert must, in the nature of the case,
> participate in the technically crucial decisions. . .
> A decision is arrived at not by the executive's deciding
> in the light of the expert's advice, but by a process of
> weighing the consideration for which each is responsible
> and then reaching some kind of balance of agreement.
> Because of the functions of the managerial organization,
> the executive has some kind of 'last word'. But this
> is a veto power, not a capacity to implement or plan
> implementation without the competence of the expert.[4]

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[1] In Parsons' sense.

[2] Talcott Parsons, 'Some ingredients of a general theory of formal
organization', Administrative Theory in Education, p.44.

[3] Ibid., p.49.

[4] Ibid., p.46.

Similar considerations apply at the point of articulation between the managerial and the institutional or community systems.

> The essential point is that the executive must perform
> his functions by coming to terms with categories of
> other people - experts, customers, and resource people -
> who are in a position (within limits) to exact their own
> terms independently.[1]

It is also necessary to recognise that important influences are brought to bear by bodies and individuals outside the formal administrative structure. These informal influences can be thought of as pressure groups representative of community interests which the formal organisation is supposed to serve. In this way it is possible to categorise all individuals, groups, bodies, committees and agencies which participate, directly or indirectly, in the decision-making process. For example, the secretariat of education of a Municipality in Brazil would be part of the managerial system at the local level. Its role and functions would be formal since it is clearly within the formal administrative structure. However the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers in England and Wales[2] is an informal group, not defined in one of the systems.

Influences from formal and informal agencies are both important in an organisation although distinct from each other as has been demonstrated by H.G. Sands.[3]

> Educational institutions, according to the functionalist
> view do not only have structure but they also perform
> certain functions. Indeed, although the structure may
> be different, the functions may be the same.[4]

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[1] Ibid., p.48.

[2] This council did not advise the Minister, but acted instead as a centre for negotiation between interested groups, in M. Kogan and Tim Packwood, Advisory Councils and Committees in Education, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1974, p.21.

[2] H.G. Sands, The Control of Teacher Education in England and Wales and the United States. A Comparative Study. M.A. thesis, Institute of Education, U.L. 1967.

[4] Andreas Kasamias: "History, Science and Comparative Education. A study in methodology". International Education Review, vol.VIII 1962/3, pp.383-397.

Having an understanding of the functions within the model of educational systems described, the next step is to examine how these functions operate in the Itapipoca set-up.

The Institutional Functions operate through the public interest group, directly elected by the population of Itapipoca Municipality. The elected members are fifteen in number and they form what is called the Municipal Chamber of Itapipoca (câmara de vereadores de Itapipoca). There is an election each four years and they can be re-elected for a further mandate.

The president of the chamber assigns the members to different committees in order to study the different aspects of the public services and interests. Usually each of the committees comprises representatives of both political parties and education, health and social welfare constitute one of the committees appointed for a period of two years, with the possibility of reappointment.

Educational matters are examined by these committees but final decisions on policy come through the majority consent of the total chamber.

It is a function of the Municipal chamber to authorise the executive power (the mayor) to make special agreement with the Federal, State, other Municipalities and other administrative entities for the provision of building, services or other activities of mutual interest:
- to create jobs and to allocate the necessary financial support;
- to approve the educational plan included in the plan for the municipal development;
- to approve the basic organisational structure for the educational service;
- to approve the educational budget provided by the executive power.

The institutional functions are also exercised by the mayor who is

directly elected by the people; although having independent power, he

operates very much in co-operation with the chamber (legislative power).

Among his activities are the following:

(a) to suggest agreements with other administrative bodies for chamber

approval;

(b) to propose the creation of jobs and adjustment of salaries to the

chamber;

(c) to publicise and to sanction the Municipal laws;

(d) to make decrees and regulations to implement the laws;

(e) to observe and implement the laws, decrees, resolutions and the

plan for the Municipal development;

(f) to take any administrative action, as local executive.[1]

The local administration has a very simple hierarchical structure

and decisions about any sector of public service are taken by the mayor

and carried out through his secretariat. The mayor exercises the most

influential position in local administration and, depending on his direct

connections with the different institutions at the capital city, he can

attract a great deal of benefit to the locality. He spends most of his

time in the capital city personally taking care of Municipality interests.

However he is there during most weekends.

In this way, he exercises an interstitial function, being at the

same time part of the public interest group and also part of the

managerial system at the Municipal level.

The managerial functions are exercised by the secretariat of

education of Itapipoca and its role is to co-ordinate the whole Municipal

system of education as has already been described above.[2]

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[1] Organização Municipal do Ceará, op.cit.

[2] See pages 257-258.

The professional or technical functions are performed by the
teachers who work in an independent way, very much left on their own
on their job of teaching a group of students; the head teachers are
not prepared to help them and inspectors or supervisors are practically
nonexistent. Students' evaluation is left only to the teachers'
assessment and no centralised examination is required at any level.

Teachers as a formal group do not participate in any decision taken
by the secretariat although as individuals they might be listened to informally.

At School Unit Level

The public interest group is weakly represented through a similar
type of group as the Parent-Teacher Association (P.T.A.) at each school.
They are listened to and meet together only to decide on the expenditure
of school funds.[1]

In the average school, where there are at least the first four
forms, the headteachers exercise only the managerial functions. It is
unlike England and Wales where usually the headteachers exercise an
interstitial role, also teaching: however, in Itapipoca, decisions
left to the headteacher's discretion are very limited. The head functions
mainly as a controller of teachers and of students' routines.

Is there a need for a formal integrative body ?

When comparing Itapipoca's performance in the provision of education
with other Municipalities, the role of the politicians was pointed out
as an important factor which might have made differences to performance.

Politicians, or representatives of the people, are not supposed
to be expert in educational matters. The professionals, the experts,
the teachers are the ones who have specific knowledge which the elected
members do not possess: usually the professional has the advantage of
continuity of contact with the problems in his special sphere which the
elected member cannot usually obtain; but members are ultimately

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[1]The school funds come from community contributions, not so important.

responsible to the electors for administration and therefore must take

part in decisions and be able to defend those decisions.

In Itapipoca the contact between elected members and teachers is

not made formally because no machinery has yet been provided within

any sort of statutory organisation for that purpose. An integrative

body would take this need into consideration. Actually, this situation

is much the same in all Municipalities. If in some, politicians are

more effective, it is not because of the structural set up but because

of other forces like personal prestige or economic power, etc. A

structural device like an integrative body, might help this inter-

relationship.

In the Itapipoca Municipal Budget for 1974 the second largest

portion - 22 percent of the total - was allocated to the management of

its education system.[1] It would seem fair then that teachers, through

group representation should have a say in the detail of the education

plan; and the application in it of professional and qualitative criteria

might be more stressed.

An integrative body to be outlined in the next section, would

provide this large teacher representation and would operate very much

as a 'think tank' for the educational organisation for, because as

N.J. Smelser[2] has pointed out "the course of integration itself produces

more differentiated structures". The integration of the functions

supposedly facilitated by the appearance of an integrative body might

inspire the state administration to delegate completely the administration

of all First Level of Education to the Municipality in the near future.

This trend in turn might produce new forms of the differentiation process

at a State level. The State could then concentrate its attention more at

the Second Level of Education and thus provide for a further means of

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[1] See Diagrams (10:1) and (10:2).

[2] N.J. Smelser, op.cit., p.138.

social and economic development for both State and the younger generation.

Hence, the integrative body would emerge from the needs for:

1. Integration of different programmes, levels of education, educational projects from the same or different agencies at the Municipality of Itapipoca;

2. a 'think tank' to supply ideas, and recommendations to the professional, managerial and public interest groups at that level;

3. an internal agent of change, a permanent innovation generator, aiming at the qualitative and quantitative capacities of the schools of Itapipoca;

4. communication between the Municipal community and its government disseminating and collecting innovations;

5. a body neither executive nor professional and representative not only of the public but of all three.

Where to locate it ?

In England and Wales the educational committee of a local authority includes co-opted persons. These members are appointed as representative of professional groups to defend their interests. As specialists in different fields of education they provide the technical expertise in formulation of educational policy.

In the Municipality of Itapipoca however, the presence of an equivalent co-opted group in the educational committee of the Municipal chamber would not make much improvement to educational policy since any project in education comes from the executive (mayor) and the Municipal Chamber has only the power of veto.[1] An integrative body located within the Municipal Chamber would not be able to recommend or initiate any innovation.

Decisions in education at this level have been much subjected to

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[1]Organização Municipal do Ceará, op.cit., art. 45, XI.

political bias. Criteria for the supply of schools and teachers might often have been due more to political convenience than to educational requirements. Provision of learning facilities are poor and the reinforcement of the professional interest group at this level of organisation would be most constructive.

In fact, in Brazil in general, teaching is hardly considered a profession by the public. Also the training (referring to primary school teachers) is far from providing "the esoteric knowledge; an understanding of special intellectual operations and. . . special skills and techniques . . . as Holmes emphasizes describing Lieberman's criteria of a profession".[1]

> Recognition by the public interest group that members
> of the managerial and technical groups possess skills and
> information which they do not, restricts the spheres in
> which they are prepared unilaterally to formulate policy
> and attempt to have it adopted.[2]

However this is not the case; education at primary level in Brazil is an area in which almost everyone feels quite confident he has the solutions. Recognition of primary school teaching as a profession will take a long time.

Hence, an integrative body located within the technical system in a form of association of teachers or unions, might not cause the desired impact because of the present public and managerial lack of recognition of their status.

The managerial system headed by the secretary of education, with the role of initiating projects, also plans the educational budget. The mayor with his interstitial function - elected by the population and at the same time having the power to approve projects and present them to the Legislative Municipal Chamber for sanction - carries great authority and

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[1] Brian Holmes, _Problems in Education_. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965, p.203.

[2] _Ibid._, pp.161-162.

power to decide on his goals. Relative discretion is left to him to
make his own detailed planning to execute the Municipal development plan.
Very much like the President at the Federal level, and the Governor at
the State level, the Mayor establishes his own policy. Since the
administrative structure of the managerial system is so reduced, his
administration becomes more personal and each four years, when there is
a change of mayor through a direct election, policy can also be very much
changed.

The appointment of the Secretary of Education in the Municipality
is a political one. It could fall to the most qualified teacher of the
area, but not necessarily. It will depend also upon political convenience.

Hence, the managerial system might be the suitable location for an
integrative body pursuing the following objectives.

Objectives

The objectives outlined below will be used later, in Chapter 11, as
guidelines to indicate the nature, composition and method of working of
the integrative body.

1. To facilitate continuity of direction in the educational development
   of the Municipality.

2. To provide the managerial system with professional support and
   advice on projects.

3. To facilitate the community's understanding of the different types
   of education going on and to avoid duplication of activities.

4. To stimulate community teachers to co-operate in the planning and
   control of educational services by increasing their awareness of the
   effects which a good education system can have on a community,
   making them more critical and increasing their expectations in
   respect of administrative services.

5. To balance interests, political, administrative and professional,

by having elements of all systems, blending influences and avoiding

conflict among themselves in dealing with education matters.

6.   To increase the status and prestige of the professional group

letting its voice be heard and taken into consideration.

7.   To strengthen the administrative structure of the executive by

encouraging the diversification of activities, when convenient,

as a means of specialisation of roles for better performance.

8.   To help local administration in the better use of money, human and

material resources, envisaging a possible transfer of the actual

state school toward a single local Municipal administration.

9.   To contribute towards policy formulation and implementation of

school activities at the Municipal level.

10.   To recommend the means of adapting State and Federal programmes

to the needs of Itapipoca.

11.   To influence the executive to look at the educational problems from

a wider perspective, being more objective and less personal in

their decisions to solve them.

12.   To stimulate ideas and facilitate better judgement through verbal

exchange and debates.

13.   To ensure good decision-making by the executive with group support.

14.   To operate as a vehicle for the dissemination of information

bringing the needs of the community to the government and linking

the government's services to the people's demands.

15.   To facilitate initiatives at the grass-roots level and enable the

initiators to follow them up.

By heightening the process of self-awareness of teachers, educational

leaders and members of local communities we have a means for making them

more participant in finding solutions for the problems of education. This

awareness should not be confused with the element of awareness involved

in the concept of "conscientisation" of Paulo Freire, with his emphasis

on the confrontation between groups and classes. Such confrontation, according to Freire, between the oppressed and the oppressor, becomes a means of liberation, possibly involving violence by revolutionary action in the process: "Freedom is acquired by conquest not by gifts".[1]

Throughout this study of changes in the structure of educational organisation in Brazil the assumptions of Freire that advance can only be made through confrontations of contradictory forces resulting in revolutionary conflict, have not been accepted. In this study change has been identified as a result of consensus arising from different interest groups, structural maturation through evolution rather than through the kind of revolutionary outcome associated with Freire's analysis.

As W.S. Griffith comments, political revolution is the main motivating force for Paulo Freire.[2] John Dewey advocated a pedagogical approach to ensure that students would become active subjects in their own learning; he did not conceive of political revolution as the universal motivating force to stimulate learning.[3]

Freire is severely critical of what is generally known as leadership training. For example, he comments:

> . . . the so-called leadership training courses which are
> (although carried out without any such intention by many
> of their organizers) in the last analysis alienating. These
> courses are based on the naive assumption that one can
> promote the community by training its leaders - as if it
> were the parts that promote the whole and not the whole,
> which in being promoted, promotes the parts. . . As soon
> as they complete the course and return to the community,

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[1] Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, London, Penguin Education, 1972, p.24.

[2] William S. Griffith: "Paulo Freire: Utopian Perspective on Literacy Education for Revolution" in Stanley M. Grabowski (ed.): Paulo Freire: A Revolutionary Dilemma for the Adult Education. Syracuse. Syracuse University Publications in Continuing Education, 1972, pp.67-82.

[3] John Dewey: Experience and Education. New York. The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp.113-116.

> with resources they did not formerly possess, they
> either use these resources to control the submerged and
> dominated consciousness of their comrades, or they
> become strangers in their own communities and their
> former leadership position is thus threatened.[1]

Throughout this study it is apparent that Freire's assumptions

have been questioned, and the importance of training of identifiable

and potential leaders is a requisite as agents for change and devising

of strategies for innovation. Thus the process of education is

maintained with guidelines that are derived from responsible leaders,

who are not inevitably as alien to and withdrawn from the community as

Freire would suggest.

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[1] Pedagogy of the Oppressed, op.cit., p.112.

DIAGRAM (10:1)

ITAPIPOCA MUNICIPALITY SOURCES OF INCOME

1974

DIAGRAM REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Source:Municipal Budget 1974,Itapipoca.
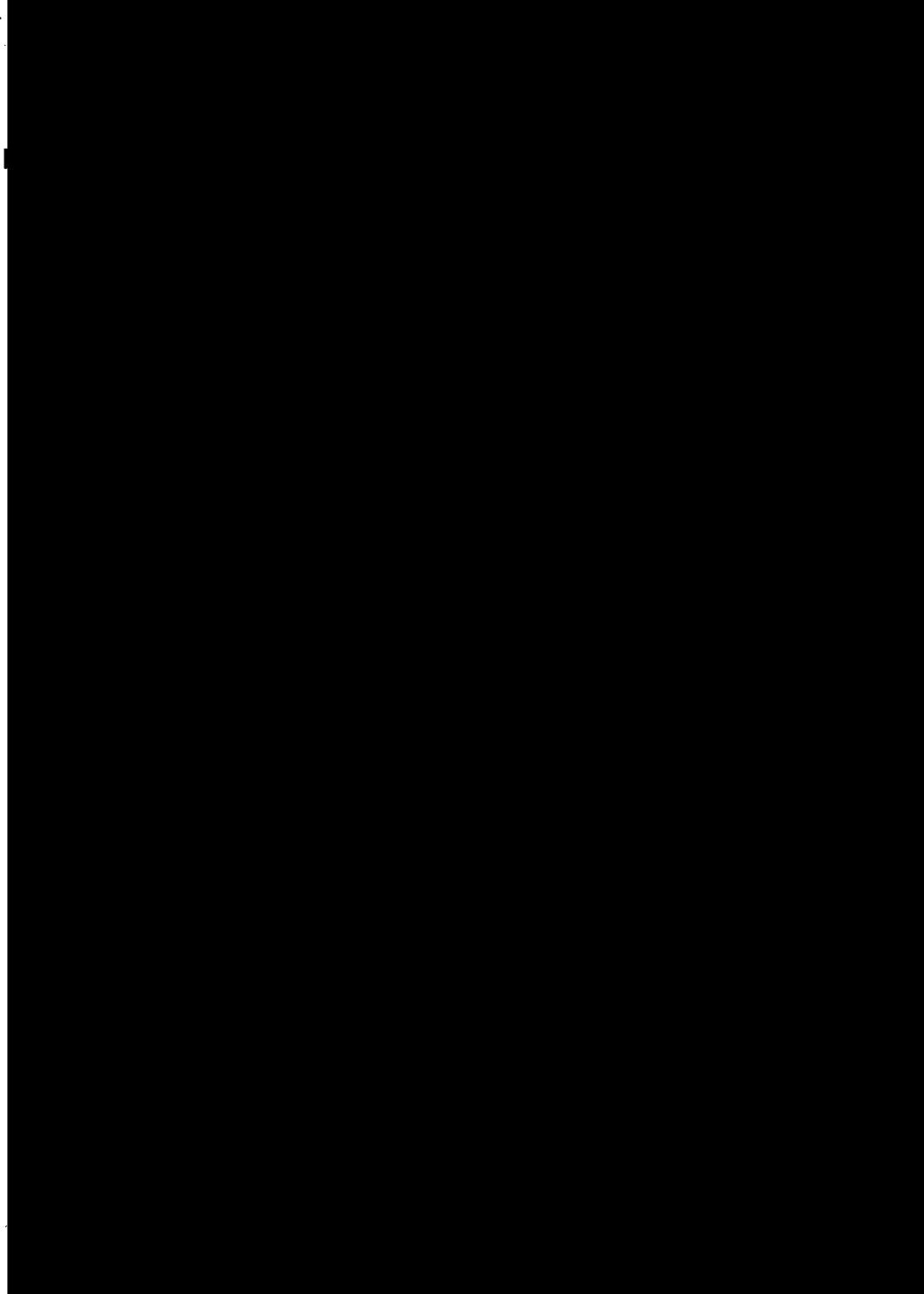
CHAPTER 11

THE MUNICIPAL ADVISORY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATION AS THE PROPOSED

INTEGRATIVE BODY - ITAPIPOCA

Its Internal Organisation and Implementation

Introduction. Brazilian political administrative divisions seem

very similar to those in the United States, existing in the form of a

Federation of States, with the Municipality the smallest unit. In the

United States however, the education administration unit stands very

much apart from the other public services and traditionally, state

legislatures have delegated much of their power to school boards for

making decisions on educational matters. Recently, some educationists

foresaw a change in attitude which would allow politics to play a

greater role in the education sector. In such a case politicians

would be more directly involved in education and would bring about

changes in structure and function, long overdue. D. Griffiths[1] for

example, defended the idea of corporate management[2] which would develop

a healthy political involvement in education at a local level and would

be mooted as an alternative to the original formula.

The English and Welsh administrative structures at local level do not

follow necessarily the idea of corporate management, which is a new concept

in the U.K. and elsewhere, but education is by far the most important

social service provided by the local administration. The Local Education

Authority (L.E.A.) is one of the agencies of the local administration

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[1] In "The Collapse of Consensus", New York Quarterly, vol.VII, No.7
Fall 1975.

[2] In corporate management of city and county, members of the management team
are heads of the service departments, led by a chief executive who has no
direct responsibility for any individual department. Each department
head on that team must be concerned not only with his own department but
with the wider objectives on the whole local authority, and he will have
to accept limitations on his own departmental plans in the interests of
co-ordination. Ibid., pp.6-7.

which has executive and supervisory responsibility for the administering

of all aspects of the statutory education system. The Education Committee

is normally the central committee co-ordinating the work of a great variety

of sub-committees such as those dealing with primary education, secondary

education, technical and further education, etc.

The Chief Education Officer is employed by the L.E.A. and holds the

position of administrative head of the L.E.A. In the United States the

district superintendent appointed by the local school board, holds an

approximately similar position and exercises similar authority,

however comprised, usually in a smaller geographical area.

In Brazil, the local education organisation is more like the English

and Welsh ones, with regard to the structure of the public[1] system, although

the English set-up is much more comprehensive and power to take decisions

is much greater; the discretion exercised by the local authorities, and

the budgets within which they have to keep, could be compared with those

of the various Brazilian states.[2]

In the case of the Municipalities, the mayor as the Chief Executive

Officer, and the highest public figure in the city, appoints the secretary

of education, and the other municipal officers: the chief of police, the

chief welfare officer, the head of the health and sanitation service, and

the various other Municipal services, which naturally work closely with

one another. This structure, although simple, facilitates the mayor's

accountability because it brings the responsibility for educational

performance to his hand although he is also actively supported by the

secretary of education. In this respect, the Brazilian Municipal authority

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[1] Public, meaning government's.

[2] (a) Annual budget of the State of Ceará in 1973 was £52,274,100 (£= Cr$20.00).
(b) Annual budget of Coventry was £40 millions.
   Sources: 1. Plano Quinquenal de Desenvolvimento do Estado do Ceará
   1975-1979 and Tony Gear and Albert Melo "Corporate Planning: Coventry"
   in Local Government of Education, The Open University Course: E221:
   Units 5, 6 and 7; prepared by Gerald Fowler, Tony Gear et al.
   Open University Press 1974, p.125.

is nearer to the principle of corporate management, as the mayor is the executive co-ordinator of all public services at the local level although solutions have not easily been found to cope with existing problems. It would be unwise to try to imitate the American or English formulae to solve Brazilian problems. However, the experience of some institutions abroad might be analysed and their solutions to corresponding or similar problems, applied in Brazil, taking into account Brazil's particular conditions.

In Britain, special tools have been adopted within the education network, and have been useful in directing its education. One might isolate the institution of Advisory Councils and committees as being of great importance, and this is something which might be borne in mind in Brazil, during the elaboration of the integrative body's concept of education at the Municipal level.

In Brazil permanent and "ad hoc" committees have been used at different levels of educational administration; however literature on the appraisal of their performance is scarce which is why recourse is now sought from Britain, as an appropriate example.

The Nature of the Integrative Body

(a) Advisory versus Administrative: So as to fulfil its objectives, at municipal level, the integrative body in Itapipoca should not be in the hands of a single individual, but a group, who would produce recommendations on a subject submitted for study. That is the main characteristic which distinguishes a committee from other administrative instruments.[1]

Its nature will depend on its functions - administrative or

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[1] Koontz and O'Donnell, Princípios de Administração, 4th Edition, translated by Albertino Pinheiro Jr. and Ernesto D'Orsi, Sao Paulo 1969, p.444.

consultative, without authority to make decisions. If it were to possess administrative power it would be a line committee and as a consultation body it would be advisory.

The State and Federal Councils for Education in Brazil combine administrative and consultative functions, within the managerial sphere at both levels, State and Federal. Because of these double functions there has been an overlapping of roles and an impoverished administration, referred to by L. Oliveira Lima,[1] resulting in an inability to cope with the accumulation of administrative and clerical work.

The integrative body, in the form of a council or committee, should act only in an advisory capacity to avoid these problems at Municipal level, even though it is not always easy to differentiate between administrative and advisory tasks.

Acting only as a consultative or Advisory Council any clash with the executive officer should be avoided.

The advice sent by the Advisory Council would be asked for by the mayor, through the Secretary of Education, or directly from the Secretary, or produced voluntarily by the council as a result of a consensus of the local leaders on matters concerning education issues.

Innovations would be expected to come continuously from this body, operating within the system, as an internal source generating new ideas - the 'think tank'.

(b) Permanent versus "Ad Hoc": M. Kogan[2] points out that historical impacts in England and Wales are equally distributed between the permanent and "ad hoc" bodies and that a committee's permanence is no guarantee that its reports will be regarded as significant. The standing advisory committees on education are the permanent bodies whose function it is to

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[1] L. Oliveira Lima, O Impasse na Educação, p.125.

[2] M. Kogan, Advisory Councils and Committees in Education. Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London 1974, p.9.

provide independent advice to the Department of Education and Science -

D.E.S. Their scope and procedures are governed by rules sometimes laid

down by statute, and by statutory instruments. Members are sometimes

appointed by the Secretary of State,[1] but in most cases, are nominated

by the 'appropriate' bodies. Ad hoc committees are not the product of

any statutory or permanent body, but are appointed by the Prime Minister

or by the Secretary of State for Education and Science.

Criticism by Sir Herbert Andrew[2] on whether committees should be

permanent or 'ad hoc' leant strongly in favour of 'ad hoc' committees. He

preferred committees to investigate various problems at different times

rather than the alternative of a great body of advisory councillors

sitting almost continuously to survey the whole field. The PEP Report[3]

although maintaining that statutory provision of advisory committees may

on occasion be too rigid, refers to the advantages to be gained by

government, from the use of a permanent committee meeting on a regular

basis, and having a wide membership. The existence of such a committee

would ensure a wide range of useful contacts, among whom would be

included prominent educationists committeed to advance policy implementation.

These conclusions refer to the British State system, but also apply to any

advisory committee. It is worth taking these considerations into account

when planning for Itapipoca's specific case.

In Itapipoca, a permanent Advisory Council would be ideal for many

reasons. The proposed 'think tank' would only be truly effective if it

existed on a permanent basis, constantly 'on call' to cope with day-to-day

problems as they arise. Such continuity would give the Municipality's

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[1] Head of the D.E.S.; a politician chosen from the political party in power to be the top executive of education for England and Wales.

[2] Select Committee 1970 in M. Kogan, op.cit., p.24.

[3] Political and Economic Planning: Advisory Committees in British Government. Allen and Unwin, 1960.

educational policy stability and unity, the secretary ahd the mayor being subject to election every four years.

If for each special study a group had to be selected and organised (its members and chairman), a lot of energy would be spent on the part of the secretary of education and mayor. A possibility of political interference would be an additional complication, since status and prestige (which a council must have to be respected) is always the aim of many.

The PEP report points out other means by which an advisory committee might become more effective. It must be well accepted by the executive committee that if not wanted by its executive it will tend to be weak whatever its status. Publication of reports could be a powerful weapon to induce the executive to adopt a particular policy. However this power is not likely to be an easy means of increasing the effectiveness of committees when conflicts might be generated instead. As a consultative body persuasion would be more likely to have effect than direct confrontation.

It has been said that the power of initiative is the key to an advisory committee's strength, that it should be able to take up such topics as it chooses, and not merely those referred to it by the executive. But experience has shown that executives are not likely to receive enthusiastically advice given on subjects which do not concern or interest them, on the other hand a chairman may be able to persuade the executive to refer to a matter which his council is anxious to tackle and this might be the wisest approach.

Committees are a means to an end. They help to deal with certain problems and to formulate policies about them. In these matters, it is not enough for a council merely to present its conclusions; the evidence and arguments should be set out, so that others may also be convinced.

(c) <u>Formal versus Informal</u>:

> Advisory committees are not spontaneous phenomena but
> are directly developed from other changes; they are not
> improved ways of dealing with old problems but necessary
> ways of coping with new or transformed matters.[1]

Following this statement, they can meet formally or informally. If

they are part of an organisational structure, with established and

delegated duties and authority they could be considered formal. The

majority of permanent committees fall into this category. The informal

committees are organised without any specific authority, by an individual

who wishes attention to be given to a specific problem[2] and who desires

a group decision to be taken on that problem. It is not always easy

to distinguish between the two; if the executive is in the habit of

calling upon his assistants to make a decision, he is not forming a

committee. In Itapipoca a formal set-up might be the answer to coping

with new or 'transformed matters', as a firm support for directing and

developing changes.

The words "formal" and "informal" could also be used to refer to the

organisational components as explained by Parsons.[3] In Itapipoca the

Municipal Advisory Council of Education being part of the managerial

system could be classified as formal in that respect and also be a body

of balanced representation, operating on a consultative basis for the

executive - the Municipal Secretary of Education. However as an informal

committee would only operate as an interest group, with an indirect link

to the public education system, this does not appear to be so relevant

to the situation described.

<u>Composition and Method of Working</u>

(a) <u>Conditions</u>: The impact of the committees and councils on

educational policy-making in England and Wales, has a direct relationship

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[1] The PEP Report, p.103.   [2] Koontz and O'Donnell, <u>op.cit</u>., p.142.

[3] Talcott Parsons, "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal
Organisations", in Halpin, Andrew W. (ed.) <u>Administrative Theory in
Education,</u> pp.40-49.

with the mechanism of how and why particular members were appointed.[1]
In dealing with a council's composition, one has to consider prerequisites
without which quality, balance, external prestige and effective results are
impossible. Individual merit cannot be lost sight of, since a committee
should not be merely a group of individuals. The combination of talent
and special qualifications is what produces a properly balanced group.
This balanced group, including conflicting points of view should not
however, accept any extreme personalities who might tend to endanger the
harmony of the group, and prove generally disruptive. The aim of the
proposed Municipal Advisory Council of Education in Itapipoca is not only
to collect and circulate various points of view, but also to ensure general
co-operation with the education authority. Its effectiveness would of
course be increased if its members were well-known in their fields, and
likely to inspire respect and confidence among their specialised
colleagues, and with the community at large.

Hence, a problem may arise, in conciliating individual merit with the
representative (aware and active in their particular institutions),
prestigious, ready to operate in a harmonious way during the council
meetings and afterwards.

(b) Method of Recruitment. The functions and objectives of the
councils affect the very procedure in which its members are recruited.
The PEP Report[2] differentiates between three broad types of recruitment
in England and Wales: that of independent bodies which send representatives,
that of various degrees of nomination and suggestion of names, and the
method of direct contact.

i. Representatives. One type of committee is formed by
organisations sending a representative to each meeting. Usually they
send the same representative but they may send a different one each time,

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[1] M. Kogan, op.cit., p.25.   [2] Ibid., p.37.

at the risk however of disrupting continuity of the proceedings. A slightly different procedure exists where representatives are nominated by the institutions; such representatives however, are regarded as speaking on behalf of the organisation sending them, rather than for themselves, and this puts the organisations in a strong position.

ii. Nominations and suggestions. The majority of the members of advisory committees are appointed by way of nomination or recommendation by outside bodies.[1] The National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers at the Department for Education and Science (D.E.S.) in England and Wales has 49 members, nominated largely by teachers' organisations and by associations from local authorities. The members serve individually for a fixed period of three years, but the Minister always appoints the persons nominated by the organisations, and they are in the main regarded as representatives. A variant of this system is where the organisation sends more than one nominee and the government official has the chance to consider the internal harmony of the committee, choosing the one best fitted to the circumstances. Informal consultation is the most common practice. The appointments are made in a personal capacity, but beforehand the executive officer and assistants make inquiries from relevant organisations. There is freedom of choice, but the executive gains acceptance from the beginning if he meets the wishes of the organisations.

iii. Direct Contact. When the advice is of a highly specialised nature, experts are likely to be recruited through individual contact. According to the compilers of the PEP Report, the Central Advisory Council for Education in England attempts to avoid nomination by organised interest groups. Personal acquaintances, civil servants, friends and party colleagues are however likely to be consulted by the executive.

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[1] The PEP Report, op.cit., p.38.

iv. Mixed Methods. The mixed method is also found in the English set-up in which more than one style of recruitment is employed to form a committee. In order to achieve the desired objectives, the Municipality of Itapipoca, under the secretariat of education, would gain by having a council composed of members recruited through a mixed method; some "ex officio" members, holding key positions. Some educationists personally appointed after informal consultation could also be included and others would be nominated by outside organisations.

(c) Members: The number of members and their background would be carefully considered when attempting to give cohesion to a group. Certainly the theories advanced by Talcott Parsons[1] dealing with the interaction of the group representation - public interest, managerial and professional - operating within a framework, are important guidelines to follow, when attempting to obtain an effective "machine".

We have already mentioned the lack of professional representation within the formal Municipal education authority organisation. We have also ascribed many of the existing deficiencies of the system to ineffective professional influence. Therefore, the possibility of allowing professional representation by the majority of members would probably go a long way towards improving the overall picture as it stands at present. Assuming that the Municipality would be given the responsibility of primary education for the entire (geographical) area, clearly primary school teachers would predominate as well as influential members of the community, appointed by the mayor, or nominated from some other sources whatever the case may be. Although headteachers carry mostly managerial functions at school unit level, yet, because of their key positions near to the teachers, they would probably be the most indicated to hold

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[1]Explained by Talcott Parsons in "Some ingredients of a general theory of formal organization", op.cit., p.44.

positions of leadership and be eligible as professional representatives.

Other teacher representatives would fall into the various professional

categories, representing different educational levels and so providing

the council with the necessary balance to create continuity. The

churches' representatives and those of private schools would represent

the various public interest groups. Representatives of different programmes

- MOBRAL, MINERVA,[1] MEB and others - would also be appointed from the

institutions' nominees. Students and parents might have some

representation and this would be a remarkable innovation by itself and

appropriate to the new organisation's move towards a balanced framework.

As regards the composition, all districts should be represented in the

advisory council of education as well as the political parties.

(d) Size: As an integrative body, the Municipal Council of

Education in Itapipoca might arrange to have all education professionals,

education programmes, community leaders and political parties represented.

The members would act on a personal basis although nominated by different

organisations. The size of the council would be relative, and is always

difficult to determine. A large membership might prove cumbersome, and

hinder the arrangement of regular and frequent meetings, but clearly a

very small membership would necessitate the omission of some of those

representatives whose contribution could prove to be of immense value.

In England, advisory councils meet on average four times a year and

being at national level, a larger number of organisations are represented,

so the equivalent representation for Itapipoca might be much smaller. The

law which organises the Municipalities in the State of Ceará has

established a fixed number of elected members for the Municipal Chamber,

according to the number of voters. In 1970 the Municipal Chamber in

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[1] A special course through Radio, Television and correspondence leading
to the examination for "Ginásio" certificate.

Itapipoca comprised fifteen members (vereadores), meeting daily.[1] The

larger Municipal Chamber is in the capital city - Fortaleza, 21 members

being the number of membership. Hence, the size of the Advisory Council

for Education could be larger than that of the Municipal Chamber, since

the number of meetings would take place on average once a fortnight. But

it might not exceed that number too much, because of the difficulty of

finding all the members in attendance at every meeting. Half of the

council should be constituted of teachers in order to provide the

necessary professional influence on the studies and advices emitted and

also the majority of the teachers' group should be composed of primary

school teachers, the level of education most directly linked with and

supported by Municipal Government.

(e) <u>Qualifications of Members</u>: In Chapter 4 reference was made

to the contrast between State and Municipal primary schools and also to

the lack of an infrastructure within the Municipality, to cope with the

administrative responsibilities that the Federal and State Governments

would require to delegate more authority to this level. The lack of

qualified personnel at this level was also mentioned. Different

development programmes have been experimented with in an attempt to raise

the standard of living and heighten aspirations of the community; leaders

have been given special opportunities to improve their qualifications in

order to keep pace with the new tasks. In Itapipoca, thanks to CRUTAC,

teachers have found a way to gain a university degree, an uncommon

distinction before, not only among primary school teachers but even among

secondary school ones. It would be useless to create new structures if

one did not have competent personnel to staff them.

Professional qualifications should not be the only important

requirement; representation and leadership should also be important

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[1]The total number of voters was 16,376.

conditions, all of which would go towards creating an ideal group.

Experience in teaching would constitute another requirement for professional representation and five years' minimum experience would be the minimum condition since by general consensus, with these years of practice a teacher is supposed to have acquired such an experience.

The executive should be aware of each individual member's competence and his particular specialisation and influence in the community. Therefore, professional qualifications should constitute an important item to be considered, and the vast majority of teachers should possess a university degree, as should the majority of the members of the advisory council.

(f) Chairman. The Municipal Advisory Council for Education would be part of the managerial system, headed by the Secretary of Education; however its members would be appointed by the executive, the mayor. In England it is the task of the executive department - the Secretary - to appoint the Chairman, invariably a public figure and preferably near enough to the field of education to know its problems, and not likely to be frightened by its practitioners. At the same time he must be far enough from the schools to be objective, and to exert the necessary authority when dealing with the government.

In Brazil the procedure has been quite different. The chairman is elected by the councillors who grant him a mandate of one or two years, with the possibility of re-election, after that term. The advantages of this procedure are three: firstly, the council has a certain degree of autonomy, not always desirable of course since inter-dependency is the objective, but it avoids duplication of roles for the chairman in difficulty as to where his loyalty lies. The second advantage is the beneficial effects of a rotating system; each chairman has his own style in dealing with problems and this variety of style sustains the high morale

of the group, where routine is not allowed to become a danger. Thirdly, there is the advantage of holding the office of chairman and having to bring to that role all the dedication which such a position demands, thereby imbuing the members with zeal and co-operation. There is no need for Itapipoca to seek another procedure, for selecting a chairman. He should pass his duties of chairing to the Municipality's secretary whenever he is present at the meetings, needless to say.

The Municipal Secretary of Education would always be an "ex officio" member. It might not be ideal for the secretary to chair, other than temporarily, as this might inhibit the natural flow of ideas. If the Secretary of Education, occupying the executive role, were to chair permanently, certain educational issues might occur that could be looked at from a very different political point of view.

(g) The Secretary (administrative). He must make all the administrative arrangements, keep in touch with the educational department's officers, and plan, or prepare in advance, the work of the council. He must be acquainted with the official machinery and the bodies to which it is connected and should be competent in making drafts. In the State Council for Education in Ceará, the position of secretary has always been on a 'commissioned' basis, always having been occupied by the same person since it was first established. This fact might strengthen the view that the position be occupied by a civil servant on a permanent basis. He or she might well hold the only salaried job on the council and remuneration should be quite high-up on the salary scale in accordance with the prestige and importance of the position, in order to gain the respect of the council members.

(h) Frequency of Meetings. It was recommended above that one meeting be held fortnightly. More than that would be impracticable due to the distances and expenses involved, and in view of the time consumed

for all those members with their own professional duties to attend. To decrease the number of meetings to less than two a month might create too long a period between sessions and also affect the team studies' production.

(i) <u>Rotation</u>. The Federal and State Councils for Education rotate a third of their members every two years and one councillor's mandate lasts about six years, with the possibility of re-appointment on one further occasion. This procedure seems proper and adapted to Itapipoca's conditions. The renewal system as well as bringing in new members and new ideas, also renders the Council independent of political factions, since, during a period of several years, the members are appointed by different executive officers, and so a high degree of political and educational balance is achieved.

(j) <u>Fees and Expenses</u>. In Brazil members are remunerated for attendance at each meeting, and it is customary for their travelling expenses to be also covered. Naturally this places a strain on the budget, which struggle to meet the educational demands of the school-age group between seven and fourteen years, and to this end, it makes economies whenever such are possible. Making even a very conservative estimate of the cost of each member attending meetings, much of the already deficient resources would be consumed for that purpose. And how necessary would it be ? What might be in fact the motivation of those gaining membership ? M. Kogan[1] observes that broadly speaking membership is attractive in three respects: 1) Professional recognition; 2) the desire to leave one's mark on the history and development of education; 3) better career prospects. No doubt some personal sacrifice and effort is involved but in compensation, the Municipal Advisory Council for Education should command considerable prestige and be regarded as an

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[1] M. Kogan, <u>Advisory Councils and Committees in Education</u>, <u>op.cit.</u>, p.32.

important body, with priority over other activities in which appointed

councillors would normally be involved.

The function of the councillors would depend very much on personal

status, the prestige they command and the influence they would be able

to exert on the Council, in order to bring about innovations and changes

in policy.

(k) Sub-Committees. In Brazil, not only the Federal but also the

State Councils for Education are divided into Chambers (standing

committees) to deal separately with matters related to primary, secondary

or university education. In the general meetings, subjects of general

concern are dealt with and decided upon. Hence, sub committees deal with

work that is considered too technical or specialised for the main committee.

The Central Advisory Council for Education in England composed of

thirty-one members when in operation met monthly and the basic work was

done by three subcommittees. In England, advisory councils also adopt

the use of "ad hoc" subcommittees whenever a detailed study of a particular

topic is called for. Some committees have no subcommittees at all such

as the Advisory Council in Child Care.

Where a subcommittee exists, meetings of this smaller team are usually

more frequent than those of the whole body. The subcommittee meets

several times and then reports back to the greater body for consideration.

Since the Government of Itapipoca is mostly concerned with the

Municipality's First Level of Education the main subject on the agenda for

consideration would naturally be associated with First Level of Education.

One subcommittee would probably be sufficient to deal with this level, but

a permanent sub-committee should be avoided, in favour of "ad hoc"

subcommittees, which would ensure a fresh approach, and diversity of talent

and specialisation. In such a way, all members would eventually participate

in small committees, with the teachers acting as professional representatives,

and comprising at least half of the members of any group, since the idea would be to strengthen professional influence in policy formulation, and to facilitate its adoption and implementation at the local level. Only the adoption of the above procedure would ensure the advantage of continuity.

(1) <u>Discussions and Committee Headquarters</u>. A consensus would be taken of the recommendations arrived at during discussions at Council meetings, which should be based on papers, reports, draft regulations, legislation and negotiations, on topics on the agenda. The direction a discussion took would depend very much on the chairman's leadership. The chairman would seek to avoid clashes of personalities or disagreements, and reach a compromise satisfactory to the majority.

It would be necessary for the executive to provide a Chamber where the meetings, the members, "ad hoc" subcommittees, and the secretary could meet regularly. This would not preclude the council from meeting by common agreement in various districts within the Municipality, when the occasion dictates. This practice could be advantageous from several points of view. Firstly, all members would have the opportunity to visit the area together, and to discuss with the local community various topics whether related to their studies or not; all councillors would become more sensitive to the district's needs, after such direct experience, and would be more interested in the search for a particular district's solutions. Secondly, residents within a district especially teachers, would experience a greater willingness to collaborate with the administration of the government and above all a rise in morale, resulting in greater enthusiasm for their work.

<u>Possible Aspects of Policy Affected by Itapipoca's Municipal Advisory</u>

<u>Council for Education</u>

The Council should be a recognised arena for debating the various activities and objects of educational policy:- the interna and externa,

meaning the academic and administrative factors involved, when treating

an educational system. The degree of statutory decision-making and

perception of the group involved, personal interests and a whole set

of circumstances i.e. (time,money, quality of staff, political forces, etc.)

would go towards influencing new undertakings.

Considering the academic aspects first, one would mention the

following:

a) <u>Admissions</u>. This aspect involves decisions on student grouping

at different levels of ability and age and their allocation to different

types of school over a wide geographical area. Students are generally

regarded as being the most important input into the system. "According

to international consensus a child needs a minimum of four years schooling

to become functionally literate and to have a chance of remaining so".[1]

It is not only the provision of schools which matter. Itapipoca must

formulate a policy which enables it to provide its students with a

minimum of four years of schooling, otherwise the Nation's resources

will have been almost completely wasted on them. It seems that only with

joint effort, mainly on the part of the Municipality will solutions be

found in order to put into practice the norms laid down by the Federal

Constitution and Education Act of 1971.

b) <u>Content/Curriculum</u>. According to the recent (1971) Education Act,

there is room for regional, local and school units to help make decisions

on some aspects of the school curriculum. However, as in many other

countries where a large proportion of the population is rural, the constant

emphasis on 'urban' content of the school curriculum, may be due to the

fact that local effort has not been strong enough to avoid the enormous

problems of inadequacy, sometimes presenting an even greater problem than

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[1] Emanuel De Kadt, <u>Education and Employment in Mexico: Some thoughts on Specific and Feasible Policies</u>. Discussion Paper no. 55. I.D.S. University of Sussex, June 1974.

emigration.

The Municipal Advisory Council for Education may need to participate very actively to render the curriculum more relevant to those on the land, in trying to establish local needs, available local resources which would have to be used for the actual implementation of changes, to moving away from "the dreary, oral tradition of teaching", to quote Professor Blaug,[1] to a 'localised' tackling of the national curriculum, integrated with the day-to-day experience of life in the countryside.[2]

c) <u>Teacher Training</u>. This has been the role of both the State and private institutions and will continue to remain a branch of secondary education. The trend of administration and control of the various levels of education follows the same pattern as that of other developing countries during the development of their education system:- Primary education as a Municipal (local) responsibility, secondary education as a State (regional) responsibility and university education as a Federal (central) one.

However as the local teacher training institute would be represented at the Municipal Advisory Council for Education, the flow of information on teachers' requirements for fitness and suitability would be transferred to the (State's administration) Secretariat of Education through its representative, including also the regional delegate.[3]

Consequently, the degree of direct influence on this item of policy is reduced, since its arena is located at the State level; however adoption and implementation of policies would have considerable impact in Itapipoca if such a team as described above, were at work.

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[1]M. Blaug, <u>Education and the Employment Problem in Developing Countries</u>, Geneva: I.L.O. 1973, p.53.

[2]Unesco, <u>Adaptation of Education to the Needs of the Modern World in Rural Areas</u>. International Educational Year, Series no. 9, Paris, 1970. Unesco, <u>Agriculture and General Education</u>, Educational Studies and Documents, New Series, no. 2, Paris, 1971.

[3]Regional Delegate is a representative of the Secretariat of Education for dealing with educational matters of the region which comprises about eleven Municipalities. The Headquarters for the region is located in the Itapipoca District.

d) <u>Method of Teaching.</u>   Bearing in mind that the majority of councillors would be teachers, one might expect them to persuade the group to think also in professional terms; by this it is meant to consider the quality of learning as being as important as the number of pupils enrolled. The statement that poor schooling is better than none for a region or a country works for a very short term but the results ruin the entire education system. There is always a tendency to sacrifice effective teaching methods and minimum adequate equipment because of the large number of students in a classroom. To this trend, very appealing to politicians, professionals must be the most competent to convince and to have their ideas respected by the other members of the team. Fortunately, Itapipoca has a good representation of qualified teachers, with university degrees and with a long period of teaching experience; and this is why at this stage of development Itapipoca might be able to undertake the task of having an advisory council formed to enable its further development readiness.

e) <u>Textbooks.</u>   Teaching methods go very much together with the availability of information through written material, as in textbooks or other teaching resources. The States and the Federal administration have so far assumed the role of supplying the Municipalities with pedagogical materials. Textbooks are distributed throughout the State and produced by groups of teachers commissioned by the government, or by private enterprise (although not in sufficient quantity).

The advisory council might recommend and stimulate some local organisations to produce textbooks containing information about the Municipality or about other topics but related to the students' way of life and their experience.

f) <u>Discipline.</u>   Discipline is governed by school regulations which are approved by the State Council for Education. An Advisory Council might well help in interpreting the expectations of the Municipal society, in

relation to the schools' code of conduct, attitudes towards authority,

concept of freedom, mutual respect and equality of individuals. All

these aspects are connected with discipline and the vehicle for promoting

changes in the attitudes of society too, so facilitating the development

of necessary innovations.

The academic aspects of educational process are subtle and involve

further specialised work by professionals quite apart from the

administrative aspects. However, in fairness to the undertaking, both

aspects must be given equal attention, turning now to the administrative

aspects.

9) <u>Conditions of Service and Recruitment of Teachers</u>. With regard to

the methods of each system - State and Municipal - both set their own

standards for recruitment and appointment of teaching staff. The State

of Ceará adopts the norm of supplying teachers to those geographical areas

of high demographic density (usually with better working and living

conditions). This has encouraged disparity of qualifications between

State teachers and Municipal teachers, and similarly of salaries. An

Advisory Council might assume the task of proposing changes designed to

eliminate such inequalities, and give greater incentive to those teachers

working in poor conditions, simultaneously standardising qualifications

and salaries. The Municipality might be prepared to administer control

and supervise this new unified system whereas the State would provide

the necessary financial and technical support, in terms of supplementing

local resources. Not an easy task to accomplish. Whoever has the

financial resources tends to want to control and administer those

resources. However, to be fair, if the diversification of education is

to be implemented, new ways of distributing resources must be

eventually established.

By the same token, an integrated effort at local level requires

Municipal administrative centralisation with effective machinery and

qualified personnel to operate it. The Advisory Council should ideally be a permanent team, recommending ways of operating and means of enabling personnel to get the appropriate training to their particular posts or task.

h) Equipment and Buildings. The State and Federal Government would be less reluctant to delegate more responsibilities to the Municipality if there existed within the locality, an interested, and dedicated Advisory Council for Education which could give guidance on matters such as school building projects and adequate equipment. Norms would probably be suggested taking into account climate, distances to be covered and size of region, population density, viable size of schools, flexibility of curriculum, and teaching methods, not forgetting of course the principles of the State regulations on location of schools.

i) Finance. In many cases financial aid has been directed to cover specific needs, or items which are determined by those at the top. Such a practice is a result of the assumption that the Municipalities are incapable of managing their own affairs. According to G.M. Dias,[1] because of political changes in 1964, the Municipalities became more dependent on State and Federal Government, in order to allow the two top level authorities the right of intervention in circumstances where corruption is suspected.

Ideally however, State and Federal contributions would come through block grants to be used at the discretion of the Municipality. Different procedures have already evolved between the Federal and the State administration of finance not always for operational reasons but owing to the prevailing political situation. Lessons from the past must be learned and principles which have proved useful to the Federal and State Governments might also be applied by the State and the Municipalities.

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[1] Gentil Martins Dias: Roceiros and Townsmen in Brasil. Emerging Patterns of relations in Valença, Bahia. Ph.D. thesis, unpublished, University of Sussex, 1973.

The Municipal Advisory Council for Education might be the permanent

forum for discussion with its study team available to advise the

executive on ways of finding resources and deciding upon the wisest

means of expending them.

Alternatives to be Considered

Why a Municipal Advisory Council for Education rather than a line

administrative structure enabling the executive more effectiveness for

action ? One objection might be that a council is likely to be too

time consuming, and of dubious value, without anyone coping directly with

the responsibility for decisions.

Committees also tend to procrastinate over reaching decisions.[1]

Graves,[2] however held the opposite view; referring to the English scene

with regard to education, Advisory Councils and committees were created

as a reaction to the administrative despotism of Robert Morant.[3] This

last argument applies to the Municipality's conditions in relation to the

power of the mayor. Not that a council would assume his role, but without

any significant permanent drain on the local budget, a group of Municipal

leaders might be able to provide him with objective advice on most aspects

of education, with the advantage that if the advice were accepted and

new policies adopted, they would be the most influential agents to

implement the same policies.

The executive actions would be closely followed although without any

confrontation threatening.

The statutory requirement for the provision of a Municipal Advisory

[1] R.A. Chapman, "The Role of Commissions in Policy Making" (1973) in Kogan, op.cit., p.1.

[2] J. Graves, "The Use of Advisory Bodies by the Board of Education" in Vernon, R. and Mansergh N. (eds.) Advisory Bodies - in Kogan, ibid., p.1.

[3] Permanent Secretary of the Board of Education when the 1902 Education Act came into operation. Not all authorities, of course, would accept this assessment of Robert Morant's impact upon English education administration. There are those who claim that he made an outstanding contribution, and was

Council, against the adoption simply of 'ad hoc' committees according to needs, is based on the need to provide permanent support for the maintenance and development of a long-term educational policy.

The Advisory Council for Education proposed in Itapipoca might allow for more impersonal and stable trends in education. Without acting as a strange body interfering in day to day affairs of the executive, the Advisory Council would be a stimulating internal agent of change, identifying current educational problems, and making recommendations, leading to the development of new policies.

The relevant data on which to base the studies would have to be provided by the Municipal Secretariat of Education with whom close co-operation would have to be maintained in order for the Council to fulfil its objectives.

Would it not be better to start structural implementation organising first governing and managerial bodies at school units, in Itapipoca?

Such institutions exist under the English education system but not necessarily in other countries, notably not in the United States. This is not to suggest that they are not an important aspect of the English system, and might be for others too. It seems that this device is still premature for Itapipoca, before consolidating the community team for wider scope within the Municipality. Since by tradition, initiative has usually been taken by those above, a change in the procedure should be introduced gradually and in stages. Perhaps the governing and managerial bodies of the school unit might be the next phase in the development process of educational structure. Experience will direct which new steps

3 [contd.]
a highly effective civil servant. Indeed, there are those who consider that he had a far-reaching influence upon the direction which secondary education took in England for the next half century. In A.S. Bishop, The Rise of a Central Authority for English Education, C.U.P. 1971, p.129.
Eric Eaglesham, From School Board to Local Authority, R.K.P. 1956, pp.152-153.

should be taken, following the establishment of the Municipal Advisory Council for Education.

If what has been stated before is correct, the emergence of an advisory committee is a natural consequence of expansion and continuous complexity of government activities.[1] It has also been said that the impact of committees and councils on educational policy making has depended on the methods and reasons why particular members were appointed, in the ways that different interests came to be represented and of the conditions which affected their ways of working.[2] All these items have been taken into consideration in the course of the preceding discussion.

Institutionalisation

The institutionalisation of a Municipal Advisory Council for Education might emerge as a result of different efforts and circumstances. Federal and State educational authorities might decide to impose its existence in order to transfer financial resources to the Municipality. In such a case, the Municipality would follow instructions from the top adopting this policy in order to eventually become eligible for the benefits or advantages resulting from institutionalisation.

Such institutionalisation might even emerge after a slow and no doubt laborious process. It would have to be planned from the outside, so that it could be set up in such a way that effective links would exist with the relevant government agencies, but its vitality would come from inside the community, from below rather than from above. Rather than expressing the ideas and policies of officials and politicians in the town, it should express the preoccupations of the people of the Municipality as a whole, and in particular those from the countryside.

Problems are to be expected when organising a new institution such as that described above. Over and over one hears of the local elite, merchants and landowners 'capturing' local organisations and using them to

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[1] See page 279.

[2] See pages 279-280.

their own ends.[1] Whatever structural change is implemented only the

Municipality of Itapipoca, represented by local leaders themselves, can

ultimately generate the kind of pressure needed to ensure the

implementation that truly favours the local population.

The Municipal Advisory Council for Education in Itapipoca, as the

Internal Change Agency

According to R. Havelock,[2] an innovation is effectively implemented

when it reaches the stage of stabilisation and generates its self-renewal.

An illustration of this assertion is the Leicestershire case study;[3] the

innovation put forward through its chief education officer generated a

series of 17 other innovations within the system, as a continuous chain

of events well linked and interdependent.

The dynamics of stabilising the innovation and generating self-

renewal involves three conditions: (1) to ensure the continuance of a

particular innovation; (2) to create a self-renewal capacity and (3) to

disengage the agent of change. It is unsatisfactory to point out which

aspect is the most important, since they are all conditions. During the

discussions about the Municipal Advisory Council for Education in Itapipoca,

I tried to establish in the composition of its members, a group of people

whose job will be on one side of an advisory body. On the other side there

will be executives, since they are supposed to be selected by their

informal and/or formal capacity of leadership in the Municipality. Since

the activities of the council is given special priority its members thus

dedicate their full-time co-operation when they are required to do so.

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[1] Fals Borda's analysis of the Latin American Co-operatives Movement in Kadt, Emanuel de, _Education and Employment in Mexico: Some Thoughts on Specifics and Feasible Policies._ I.D.S. University of Sussex, June 1974.

[2] Ronald G. Havelock, _A Guide to Innovation in Education_, 1970, p.154.

[3] Brian Holmes, "Leicestershire, United Kingdom", OECD (CERI) _Case Studies of Educational Innovation: II. at the Regional Level_, pp.7-102.

Through on-the-job training, these members will develop skills of diagnosis, retrieval, selection and evaluation of innovations, and will diffuse these skills in their own particular influential areas. In this way, the Municipal Advisory Council is identified as the internal change agency[1] which will contribute to create in the Municipal system the structural means to sustain its self-renewal capacity for any innovations.

[1] See pages 242-243.

SECTION VI

CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY

CONCLUSIONS

We have come to the conclusion of this study, extracting from its

bulk the short answers to the questions initially posed.

1. What weight should we give to the principle of devolution in the

educational system as a contributing factor for the whole development ?

A more active participation of the local people is desirable as long

as devolution or decentralisation of the education system from the State to

Municipalities is not interpreted by the State as the abandonment of its

responsibilities in relation to the technical and financial support

required for the First Level of Education. Planning and controlling

usually come together therefore, in a Municipality where people do not

have any say on planning and so can hardly participate in its control.

In order to cope adequately with all administrative needs, each state

headquarters in Brazil would require a sophisticated expensive mechanism

of communication in order to allow the subordination of all the educational

activities. To facilitate local control, and also to encourage the use of

local initiative on the planning and making of decisions, one assumes that

decisions are likely to be more realistic if they are made closer to the

actual situations.

However, devolution presupposes staff who are competent to take

decisions, both in terms of their ability and their knowledge. Because

Municipalities are usually short of skilled workers and experienced

clerical and managerial staff, there may be few suitable people for the

purpose. It is essential for the Municipalities to be better equipped

with suitable staff so that when the situation arises, the responsibilities

are handled effectively and adequately according to the staff's capacity.

So, the principle of devolution is highly weighed as a contributing factor for development in Brazil, with particular reference to the education system.

2. What patterns have other developed countries followed in order to cope with their educational responsibilities ?

The example of the United States in favour of decentralisation of education is always mentioned. Undoubtedly, education in the United States started from the periphery to the centre and very much apart from the civil government. The United States is mentioned because they have some similar characteristics to Brazil, in relation to size and colonisation in more or less the same period. However its history and traditions are quite different. The examples of criteria other countries have followed are useful for the understanding of all factors involved which one would wish to know, but the adoption in itself alone would be unlikely to produce the desired effects. The history of education in Brazil has not followed the same pattern as America and Municipal authorities have not given much proof of their effectiveness. Faith in education is still desired although authorities in the last ten years have steadily increased the budget for education.

3. What constraints have prevented Brazil from putting into practice some principles of devolution recommended by its constitution ?

Brazil, as many other countries, has inherited the centralised educational system tradition as in France.[1] Since it became a republic, trends have changed, mainly due to the influence of the United States. However, during the fifteen years in which Brazil became a dictatorship under President G. Vargas (1930-45), the centralised approach was again reintroduced following the political philosophy of the moment. From 1946

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[1] Edmund J. King, Other Schools and Ours, 4th Edition, London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973, p.127.

on, a new attempt to restore the initial trends has taken place, but
the educational laws have been slow to adopt and administrators
reluctant to speed up their pace for implementation. The Federal
machinery and the States as well, have been responsible for the delay
in devolution procedures on educational matters. It is a long history
of bureaucratic ineffectiveness, unable to cope with the expansion of the
system. In the past, planning has been too far apart from the localities
where its implementation should take place. Groups of experts have
remained in the ivory tower of the Ministry and later, the bureaux of the
States' secretariat. This mentality created a reluctance to delegate
responsibilities to the regions, which in their turn, even nowadays, have
a feeling of insecurity for taking any initiative or decision. No-one
wants to assume the responsibility, resulting in a continuing slow
process for implementing policies. The demand for experts in education in
the different Municipalities or regions of the country has not been so
great as the need, because of the reasons cited above, and the vicious
circle goes on.

4. How can the degree of equality of opportunity in education between
urban and rural areas be improved, taking into account that 44 percent
of the population of Brazil lives in rural areas ?

Each State in Brazil is divided into Municipalities, which in turn
are subdivided into Districts, with urban and rural areas.

Since provision for First Level of Education is mainly the
responsibility of each State and its Municipality Governments, there is a
tendency for the State to supply urban areas, whereas the Municipalities
cope with schools located in the rural areas. Most of the Municipalities
by themselves, however, do not have the means of developing their own
system. Hence, they adopt the same State school devices for their
solutions. Qualification of the teachers, methods, availability of text-
books, salary scales are conditions which differ from one system to the
other.

This study advocated the amalgamation of both systems - State and
Municipal - into one in which the planning, administration, supervision,
control of First Level of Education will be done by the Municipality,
leaving the State with the important responsibility of supplementing each
one with technical and financial resources, according to local needs.
By that manner not only the degree of equality of opportunity in education
between urban and rural areas will improve but also between different
Municipalities of the same State.

5. Would an alteration of the public educational machinery necessarily
ameliorate education qualitatively and quantitatively in Brazil ?

Quality and quantity of education might be improved or maintained
when there is a machinery enabling the planning, organisation of the
different activities, the selection of staff, co-ordination, evaluation
and the control of all resources. These means might be acquired
depending on the weight the government policy gives to satisfy social
and economic needs and demands. Professionals (educationists) might
exercise an important influence persuading the authorities on the
decision-making policy, adoption and implementation at the different
levels of administration.

If an alteration of machinery will facilitate access to the
professional's influence, I believe that the quality and quantity of
education in Brazil is likely to improve.

6. Which procedures should be adopted by the government in order that the
voices of the people be equally heard from the different areas, including
the most remote ones ?

Different sets of circumstances might indicate how the government
should initiate the procedures in order to make sure the different areas
of each Municipality have their educational interests known by the
relevant sphere of administration.

Government might operate through many agencies which will be willing to co-operate with Municipalities. In any circumstance, however, it is important that a group of local leaders be identified and prepared to assume their vital role expressing the preoccupations of the people of the Municipality as a whole, and in particular those from the countryside.

The Municipal Advisory Council for Education has been suggested as the structural device to fulfil the educational interests in Itapipoca.

7. How can their priority needs be met in the most objective and balanced way ?

The Municipal Advisory Council for Education in Itapipoca will have leaders representing not only different geographical areas and levels of education, but most important of all: the public interest, the managerial and the professionals will also be represented there. They will decide their priorities through consensus and as an advisory body. They will operate with the authorities through persuasion rather than confrontation.

8. Is there any existing fixed strategy to follow, any fixed steps to take ?

The strategy of the steps to introduce an innovation has been demonstrated thoroughly by R. Havelock.[1] He found six stages to overcome and these were all identified during the accounts of CRUTAC's first course[2] as the following: (1) building a relationship between the agent of change and the clients; (2) diagnosing the problem; (3) acquiring relevant resources; (4) choosing the solution; (5) gaining acceptance and (6) stabilising the innovation and generating self-renewal.

9. What kind of approach should be adopted, the directive or non-directive one for community development ?

The question of what approach to adopt, usually arises when the

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[1] Op.cit.   [2] See pages 194-198.

external agent of change is trying to define the best ways to get the beneficial effect aimed at for the people involved. The directive approach consists of helping the people's needs through guidance and persuasion. It is an authoritarian way, by which the agent of change provides all the knowledge and means to bring about. This approach works in meeting people's short term needs but it does not provide the means where people themselves might exercise their own capacities and develop their potentialities to assure for themselves attitudes of independent initiative in the long term.

With the development of the present study, it has become clear that to enable Municipalities to be ready to cope with further responsibilities, agents of change should look further for long term goals, in helping the people involved to realize their full potentialities as persons. Therefore the non-directive approach is more appropriate. The objective is to stimulate people to think about their own needs, feed in information about possible ways of meeting them, and encourage them to decide for themselves what will do to meet them. However, depending on the actual circumstances and needs of the people involved in the light of their present and their long term needs, the choice of one or the other approach should be left very much to the discretion of the agent of change.

10. Would the transfer of planning controlling and supervisory responsibil-
ities to the Municipalities contribute towards effectiveness in the
public educational system at the First Level ?

On a small scale each Municipality in Brazil possesses its own structure to administer its particular network of schools. Each State, in its turn, also has its administrative set up to co-ordinate and control its own system. However, in both systems of education - State and Municipal - deficiencies were made evident in handling their administrative responsibilities. Alternative solutions were discussed and suggestions

emerged towards a more co-operative arrangement between State and Municipalities. Much of the duplication of effort has meant waste of energy which could be redirected towards a better use of governmental money for education.

An increased participation of people's representatives at Municipal level might encourage local initiative, interest and creativity to find quickly the best solutions for expansion and also to improve the quality of the educational activities, adjusted to local needs and demands.

The State would concentrate more on the norms for improving performance of teachers; to better the provision of school facilities and to co-ordinate resources for a more rational distribution, mainly in the more deprived areas.

Municipality resources would be fully used and complemented by State and Federal aid, as part of an integrated plan.

The degree of decentralisation would work except in cases where technically and economically it is not advisable in order to keep a cultural and technical unit of an acceptable standard.

The alternative solution would be for each state to run the whole system, centralising in its hands all the processes of its administration in terms of planning, organization and control. It would be an administration centralised far from the base; and local participation, such as manpower resources, would be neglected, thus delaying the whole process of development.

11. Is there any optimum size of a geographical and populational area, economically and socially recommended as an administrative unit ?

In Brazil, for a geographic populated area to become a Municipality, some legal and economic criteria are involved as minimal conditions to follow,[1] not discussed in this study. In the past, because of economic

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[1] Federal Constitution of 1969, art. 14.

benefit which Federal and State administration gave to the Municipalities, many Municipalities were created. At present, however, the government has restricted further expansion of Municipalities.

In 1970, 29.3 percent of Municipalities[1] had between 10,001 to 20,000 inhabitants, whereas 1.4 percent had less than 2,000 and 2.4 percent more than 100,000 inhabitants.

Hence the economic and political significance of each Municipality varies a great deal and, according to many circumstances, they are found in different stages of development. For development purposes, they have been grouped into microregions,[2] taking into consideration some of their common geo-economic aspects and facility of communication within the area.

However, no conclusive study has demonstrated so far the optimum size of an administrative unit in order to be recommended in Brazil.

12. What should the State delegate to the Municipalities ?

It is impossible to give a straight answer to what the State should delegate to Municipalities when their stages of development vary so much from one administrative unit to another as has already been pointed out.

In principle, the State should delegate only what each Municipality is ready to cope with in a better way. Hence readiness is the key word. However, a Municipality must feel the need for becoming ready. This is the outcome of a more or less directed preparation towards a goal. As such, delegation of power and responsibility comes almost simultaneously with the preparation of the Municipality readiness. This preparation might be achieved by the implementation of new methods and style of administration at Municipal level. In its turn, the latter implies also changes in attitudes of the local people.[3] The role of agents of change is important

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[1] In 1970, 3,952 Municipalities existed in the country.

[2] The grouping of Brazilian Municipalities into microregions was made by F.I.B.G.E.

[3] M.L.B. Chaves, "Contrast between State and Municipal Primary School in Brazil", Compare, Liverpool: Vol.6, Number 2, Sept. 1976, pp.22-27.

in this phase. They might provide workable structural alternatives to the local education leaders, and be the stimulus force for approaching Municipality readiness to receive the administrative tasks. These tasks are involved in the co-ordination of educational activities and, specially, in the First Level of Education of the whole Municipality.

13. How autonomous are the Brazilian Municipalities in reality ?

The Municipalities exercise their powers of autonomy for their own interests. For this purpose, they can levy their own taxes and make their own budget applications.

It is for the State, however, to audit their accounts regularly. In special cases of negligence, subversive or corrupt actions, the State has the right to intervene and take temporary control of the Municipality.

Besides the specific responsibilities belonging to each administrative tier - Federal-State-Municipal - there are some common to all and education is one of them.

Moreover, agreements can exist among the administrative tiers for the implementation of laws, services or decisions through the civil servants of the Federal State and Municipality.

14. Is the increased participation of local community members in the administration of education for First Level of Education in Brazil the only and the best way to obtain for the population more satisfaction, prosperity, initiative, awareness, effectiveness, development of leadership among its members, money for education, productivity, employment opportunities, and external help ?

The increased participation of local community members (as an integrative body) in the administration of education for First Level of Education aims: (1) to stimulate community leaders to co-operate in the planning and control of educational services by increasing their awareness of the effects which a good education system can have on a community,

making them more critical and increasing their expectations in respect of administrative services; (2) to balance interests, political, administrative and professional, by having elements of all systems, blending influences and avoiding conflict among themselves in dealing with education matters, &c.[1] All these objectives can be reached through the means of participation. Therefore, this source of energy should be encouraged and explored a great deal.

The education sector is just one of the eleven social systems of a social universe, using the anthropological language of Project Piaui. The ten others are also essential components and they should be developed harmoniously to allow for the Municipality's benefit in all aspects.

Although a sound educational system is not the only factor to promote Municipality progress, the active participation of local members will be a great contributor towards the attainment, satisfaction and prosperity of Municipality members and would also inspire confidence from outsiders in order to attract external co-operation.

15. If so, how should these members be selected and of whom exactly would they be representative ?

The Municipal Advisory Council for Education in Itapipoca (the institution which during this study took shape as the recommended representative of the Itapipoca Municipality community members) would be composed of members recruited through a mixed method of selection: some "ex-officio" members holding key positions, some educationists personally appointed after informal consultation could also be included and others would be nominated by outside organisations.

This advisory council should arrange to have all education professionals, educational programme co-ordinators, community leaders and political parties represented. The members would act on a personal basis although, possibly, nominated by the different organisations. This

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[1] See the objectives of an integrative body on pages 268-269.

way, this body will be the channel of communication between government

and people, in which ideas will flow, making each one aware and more

responsive to the other's needs and demands.

At this point, one returns to the initial hypotheses. The evidences

collected during the development of this study lend support to the

possibility that:

1. Where local groups have some functions or direct responsibilities,

    educational planning will be more in accordance with their

    needs, and there will be less wastage in the system and for

    the students.

2. A greater community participation would help to control the

    education provided at its own level.

3. A co-ordinated sound educational planning would remove

    duplication of education effort in a Municipality.

4. An infrastructure should be created or made stronger at the

    Municipal level in order to provide and facilitate the means

    which may allow an effective educational system.

5. As a corollary, eradication of illiteracy and the expansion of

    other types of non-formal education would be accelerated as

    a result of a sound education planning and development at the

    level of Municipality.

SUMMARY

The problem studied is: how to improve the effectiveness of the educational system in order to meet with the increased demands for education; and with the government policy of offering universal First Level of Education for the country as a whole. An attempt is made to identify the process of change within the context of the educational organisation of Brazil, with particular reference to the Municipality of Itapipoca, Ceará.

The study begins with a factual account and discussion of the initial conditions found on examining past and present educational development within the framework of the Brazilian and Itapipocan context. Some leading questions are posed as guidelines at the beginning of the study as pointers for testing hypotheses.

A commentary on Itapipoca (which is the fifth most populated of the 141 Municipalities of the State of Ceará, and which in turn is the third highest in population among the nine States comprising the Northeast region of Brazil) indicates its representative nature of the State land and of what the State produces. Itapipoca's features include backlands, mountains and coastal areas, and the majority of the people are of mixed origin - white, aboriginal, negro - forming the "caboclo" or "mulato". Education constitutes a sector of Itapipoca's public administration that is important as determinant of local progress but serious problems of infrastructure have delayed local advancement.

The relationship between the three levels of educational administration in trying to cope with the educational needs of the country, is surveyed. The significance of changing political philosophies, according to the dominant power at each particular period of time, is noted. An analysis is made of the existing contrasts between State and Municipal systems of education. Conditions of educational provision in Itapipoca

are compared with those in four other highly populated Municipalities of
the same State.   Absence of a clear State policy on the distribution of
resources results in uneven allocation among Municipalities, and
consequently some politicians exercise an influence at the State level
of administration which can be an important determinant to direct
educational benefit to one region more than to another.

Three projects of development taking place in the Northeast
region, are surveyed.   The objectives, geographical coverage, methodology,
and accomplishment, are examined in order to detect specific educational
devices which might be taken as key factors in ensuring Municipal
readiness.   Apart from the innovations of the CRUTAC-CE course, there
does not appear to be any particular device which might be used to develop
anything new leading to greater educational effectiveness.   The
examination of the different steps taken during the implementation of the
course points to the conclusion that there is still a step missing.
Psychological apparatus has been developed but structural ones which
might provide the missing link, have not been developed.   Structuralist
theory of differentiation and integration appeared to be applicable to
the evolution and expansion of both systems.   Accordingly, it is assumed
that, at the Municipal level, similar procedures might be evolved with
better results than if models from other countries were adopted without
sufficient consideration of the traditions and trends in the specific
Brazilian context.

To analyse and distinguish the interactions and functions exercised
by different groups in the educational organisation at the Municipal level
(public interest group, management and professional) Dr. Holmes'
adaptation of the formal organisational model of Talcott Parsons is used.
An effort is made to identify which of the groups might need to be
strengthened in order to prepare for Municipal readiness for educational
development and for the continuous controllable expansion of the schools

network. Some examples are given from experiences in Brazil and England during the elaboration of the internal organisation and implementation of Itapipoca's Advisory Council.

One of the final items to be dealt with - but by no means least important - is the prospective role which the Municipal Advisory Council for Education in Itapipoca might play in relation to the process of formulating policy, and the adoption and implementation of educational activities. It is argued that the Municipal Advisory Council could fulfil the function of Havelock's internal agency for the innovation of self renewal.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS

A. PERSONAL INFORMATION

a)   Sex.......

b)   Date of birth.......

c)   Place of birth......

d)   Address....................................

e)   Civil state.......

f)   Occupation of husband.........

g)   List of children:

	Age	Sex	Schooling	Standard
1.	....	......	....	....
2.	....	......	....	....
n.	....	......	....	....

Observations..

B. CURRICULUM VITAE

a) Education (list of courses, mentioning the school establishment, date
   of beginning and end of courses, if not finished, state the approximate
   date).

b) List of in-service courses.

c) Knowledge of a modern language.

d) Membership of professional association or unions.

e) Subscription of reviews, professional and cultural journals (state the
   date when you started subscribing to them).

   Observations.

C. INFORMATION ABOUT THE SCHOOL(S) where the informant is a teacher or
    a headmaster:

a) Name of the school(s)

    1).................

    2).................

b) Address (street, number, borough, district, Municipality)

1)..

2)..

c) Type of institution (write "X" on the corresponding place)

		School (1)	School (2)
I.	Escola Isolada	( )	( )
II.	Escola Reunida	( )	( )
III.	Grupo Escolar	( )	( )
IV.	Ginasio	( )	( )
V.	Colegio	( )	( )

Observations...

d) Location

I.	Urban	( )	( )
II.	Rural	( )	( )

e) Financial maintenance

Federal	( )	( )
State	( )	( )
Municipality	( )	( )
Private	( )	( )
Others	( )	( )

f) Name of the courses offered

Pre-primary	( )	( )
Primary	( )	( )
General	( )	( )
Collegial - Normal	( )	( )
Scientific	( )	( )
Classic	( )	( )
Business	( )	( )
Administration	( )	( )

Others...

	School (1)	School (2)
g) Composition of the student groups		
Total enrolment	( )	( )
Male	( )	( )
Female	( )	( )
Number of shifts	( )	( )
h) Physical conditions of the school building		
Satisfactory	( )	( )
Unsatisfactory	( )	( )
Electricity	( )	( )
System of water distribution	( )	( )
i) Provision of student facilities		
Free textbooks	( )	( )
Free snacks	( )	( )

j) The extra school funds from campaigns and small contributions are administered by:

	School (1)	School (2)
I) Headmaster	( )	( )
II) Headmaster and deputies	( )	( )
III) Representatives of students, parents, teachers and directorship	( )	( )

k)   Informant's timetable per week (lessons)

	School (1)	School (2)
lesson	( )	( )
meeting	( )	( )
if headmaster, working time	( )	( )

D) QUESTIONNAIRE

a) In your opinion, do you think you can improve your own professional qualification.

I   Yes ( ) No ( )

II   If yes, how ?...

III If yes, which are the conditions you need ?..............

b) What can you do to improve your colleagues' qualifications ?

    ....

c) How can you improve the learning conditions and the physical conditions of the school building in which you teach ?

    ....

d) How can you improve the educational system of Itapipoca Municipality ?

    ....

e) How many meetings do you have with other teachers and the headmistresses to plan school activities ?

    ....

f) Do you feel satisfied with the supervision you have or do you feel the need for a closer supervision in order to exercise your work well ?

    Satisfied ( )   Need for a closer supervision ( )

g) Have the textbooks provided been adequate to help you with your lessons ?

    Yes ( )   No ( )

h) Which group of students do you teach: boys ( ); girls ( ); mixed ( ); adults ( ) ?

i) Which would you like your group of students to be: boys ( ); girls ( ); mixed ( ); adults ( )

j) What is the range of age of your students ?.............................

k) What would be your choice for the students' age ? ....

l) Do you know about any teaching professional organisation ? Yes ( ) No ( )

m) If there is any, has it been successful in fulfilling its objective ?

n) Are you satisfied with the general conditions you have in which to teach ?

    Yes ( )   No ( )

o) Give suggestions of how to improve your work conditions, or would you rather change profession ?

....

p) What are the great obstacles which limit your professional progress ?

....

q) State your monthly salary in each of your jobs.

School (1)   School (2)

US$........   US$........

r) Do you receive any additional remuneration for any private activity ?

I. Yes ( )   No ( )   Which ? ( )

II. If yes, how much ? US$...........

Observations..

s) How do you think that CRUTAC influence in Itapipoca has been geared in order to contribute effectively to the progress of the Municipality ?

Good ( );   average ( );   not significant ( )

t) Give examples and describe the ways CRUTAC has helped the Municipality of Itapipoca.

....

APPENDIX B

Law no. 5,692, August 11, 1971, fixes the Bases and Educational Rules for the teaching of the 1st and 2nd grades and provides for other measures.

The National Congress proclaims and I the President of the Republic of Brazil sanction the following Law:

CHAPTER ONE

The First and Second Educational Grades[1]

ARTICLE I   The aims of teaching the FIRST and SECOND educational grades are in general, to provide the student with the necessary basis for the development of his potentialities as an element for his self-realization, qualifying him for labour and to prepare him to fulfil his obligations as a conscientious citizen.

1st Paragraph. In order to accomplish the Federal Constitution according to Article 176 and 178, Elementary Education shall correspond to the First Grade and Secondary Education to the Second Educational Grade.

2nd Paragraph. The native language is required by the instruction of the First and Second educational grades.

ARTICLE II   The teaching of the First and Second educational grades shall be adapted in new or reorganized schools, so that the complete utilization of their human and material resources are guaranteed, without duplication of means to achieve the same or equivalent aims.

Paragraph The administrative, didactic and disciplinary organization in every school shall be ruled by its particular statute, approved by the state school system and in accordance with the norms fixed by the State Council of Education.

ARTICLE III   Without any loss or contradiction of other norms that may be adopted the educational systems shall stimulate, in the same school and locality the offering of different modalities of study, integrated by a common basis:
     a) the gathering of small schools in bigger unities;
     b) the interplay and supplementary help among the schools; and with other social institutions, in order to make good use of one's working capacity to supply the deficiency of others;
     c) the organization of intercommunity school centers gathering duties and subjects or common study areas.

ARTICLE IV   The curricula for the First and Second educational grades shall have a compulsory core curriculum, and diversified programs in the whole country, to attend, according to the necessities and actual possibilities, the local peculiarities, the schools planning and the students' individual differences.

1st Paragraph. On the definition of the curricula contents, the following

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[1] The writer of this thesis has translated the two first categories of education from Portuguese as First and Second Levels of Education; whereas the translator of this Appendix refers to them as First and Second Educational Grades.

instructions shall be observed:

I - The Federal Council of Education shall establish, for every grade, the branches of instruction pertinent to the core curriculum, and shall define their aims and their proportion.

II - The state Councils of Education shall list the subjects to every particular educational system and among which every school may choose those to constitute its diversified program.

III - According to the above-mentioned, the school may include, after the competent appreciation of the Council of Education, studies not resulting from the listed subjects.

2nd Paragraph   In the First and Second educational grades there shall be given special attention to the study of the native language as means of communication and as propagation of the Brazilian culture.

3rd Paragraph   In the Second grade education the Federal Council of Education shall establish, in addition to the core curriculum, the minimum of subjects to be required on each occupational qualification or complex of similar occupations.

4th Paragraph   On approval of the Federal Council of Education the schools may be free to offer other occupational qualifications to which no curricula minimum shall have been established by that committee and the validation of such courses shall be assured for the whole country.

ARTICLE V   In each grade, the school diversified curriculum shall be constituted by the subjects, areas of study and activities chosen from the listed subjects according to Article IV, and there will be the necessary rules for their distribution, sequence and connection.

1st Paragraph   Observing the main rules of each state educational system, the diversified curriculum shall have an area on general education and another on a special occupational qualification training and organized so that:

a) In the first educational grade, the area on general education shall be limited in the starting grade levels, and shall predominate in the finishing ones;

b) In the second educational grade shall prevail the special occupational training area.

2nd Paragraph   The diversified curriculum area on special occupational qualification training:

a) In the first grade shall have an aim at exploration abilities labour initiation and in the second educational grade on occupational qualifications;

b) For labour initiation and occupational qualifications, it shall be fixed according to up-to-date statistical collecting of local or regional work opportunities supply and demand;

3rd Paragraph   In the Second educational grade, in order to attend the student's particular ability, advised by the teachers and educational guidance leaders, the curriculum special training area may be changed into a thoroughly study on specific areas.

ARTICLE VI   The occupational qualifications may be undertaken in co-operation with private firms or enterprises.

Paragraph   An agreement shall be made between schools and private firms or enterprises for the student's training period, without any after

obligations, except those stated in the agreement even if the training student is rewarded.

ARTICLE VII   The teaching of Civic and Moral Education, Physical Education, Art Education and Health Programs are required in the schools curricula, and the first of these subjects shall be administered according to Edict Law no. 869 of September 12, 1969.

Paragraph in the First and Second educational grades religious education may be of free attendance, and shall constitute one of the subjects in the schools schedule of activities.

ARTICLE VIII   The curriculum ordering shall be done by annual grade levels of subjects or areas of study, organized to allow according to the school planning and possibilities the inclusion of choices to attend the students' individual differences and in the Second educational grade the curriculum shall offer occupational qualifications diversity.

1st Paragraph   The educational state systems shall permit a semestral organization for the First and Second educational grades and in the Second grade are allowed registrations by subjects, regulated so that the connection, the distribution and the sequence of the studies are assured.

2nd Paragraph   Either in the First or in the Second grade, classes may be organized to gather students from different grades and equivalent grade levels of knowledge, for the teaching of modern languages and other subjects, areas of study and activities whatever may be the best advisable.

ARTICLE IX   The Councils of Education shall establish a complex of special norms for the attendance of mentally or physically handicapped students, for the mentally superior students, and for those who are beyond the legal regular school age.

ARTICLE X   Educational and vocational guidance is required in co-operation with the teachers, the family and the community.

ARTICLE XI   The school year shall have 180 days of school activities and the school semester shall have 90 days, independent of the calendar year and the time for final examinations are not included in this period.

1st Paragraph   During the official vacation periods, besides other activities, there will be in the First and Second educational grades classes in order to offer non-satisfactory improvement students recovery studies which shall be administered on semester planned subjects, areas of study and activities and there shall also be special training courses for teachers and practice of special suppletive educational courses.

2nd Paragraph   In the county areas, the schools shall organize their own school year and school semester so that their students will have their vacation during the planting and harvest time, according to a general plan approved by the local education authority.

ARTICLE XII   Every school statute shall determine the substitution of subjects, areas of study or activities by other with the same or equivalent formative value, but it cannot determine the substitution of those listed in the core curriculum and the minimum established for occupational qualifications.

Paragraph   The State Councils of Education shall fix the acceptance criteria of such studies determined in this article.

ARTICLE XIII   The transference of a student shall be effectuated according to the general country core curriculum and attending the established minimum for occupational qualifications under the fixed complex norms of the State Councils of Education.

ARTICLE XIV   The control of the student's scholastic rating shall be established in the school statutes and it shall comprise the evaluation of the student's progress and attendance.

1st Paragraph. On the student's rating and progress or evolution shall predominate the qualifying aspects over the quantitative, the results obtained during the school year over the final examinations results and it shall be related on a mark percentage scale or on any other kind of written scale.

2nd Paragraph   It is the duty of the schools to offer the non-satisfactory improvement students recovery classes and studies so that this will give them an opportunity to enter the following grade level.

3rd Paragraph   The student shall be approved in accordance with the attendance if:
    a) he has an attendance equal or superior to 75% in each subject, area of study, or activity;
    b) he has an attendance inferior to 75% but has an achievement superior to 80% in the school adopted evaluation scale;
    c) he is not included in the above mentioned hypothesis, but if he has an equal or superior attendance to the minimum established by every particular Council of Education, and if he demonstrates his achievement improvement in the recovery classes and studies;

4th Paragraph in schools with very special attending conditions, the Councils of Education may admit the adoption of some criteria to permit the student's progressive advance according to his age level and average achievement.

ARTICLE XV   The Schools Statutes may permit in the annual grade levels system, up from the 7th grade level onwards, the enrolment of the student depending on one or two subjects, areas of study or activities from the preceding grade level, if the curriculum sequence is preserved.

ARTICLE XVI   The schools shall award the certificates for the conclusion of a complex of subjects, grade levels and First educational grade, and the diplomas and certificates in accordance with the occupational qualifications of the Second educational grade or concerning part of it.

Paragraph   The occupational qualifications diplomas and certificates must be registered in the local representation of the Ministry of Education and Culture to have validation in the whole country.

CHAPTER TWO

THE FIRST EDUCATIONAL GRADE

ARTICLE XVII   The teaching of the First educational grade aims at providing the child and the pre-adolescent with the necessary basis for their development, and it shall be diversified in its content and methods

in accordance with the student's developmental stages.

ARTICLE XVIII   The teaching of the First educational grade shall last for eight school years, and shall consist of, at least, 720 annual hours of activities.

ARTICLE XIX   To enter the First educational grade, the pupil must be, at least seven years old.

1st Paragraph   The complex of norms of every educational state system shall have rules to study the possibilities to enrol in the first educational grade the under seven years old students.

·   2nd Paragraph   The State systems of education must control that seven years old children receive suitable education in day nursery schools, kindergartens and similar institutions.

ARTICLE XX   The teaching of the First educational grade is required for children from 7 to 14 years old, and the municipal districts must annually promote a census in order to enumerate those who will be required to enter school.

Paragraph   In the States, District Court, territories and in the Municipal Districts, the local educational authority must control the execution of the scholastic obligations and shall encourage the pupils' attendance.

CHAPTER THREE

THE SECOND EDUCATIONAL GRADE

ARTICLE XXI   The teaching of the Second educational grade aims at providing the adolescent with the necessary basis for his complete development.

Paragraph   To enter the Second educational grade is required to have finished the First educational grade or equivalent studies.

ARTICLE XXII   The Second educational grade shall be organized into three or four annual grade levels, as required for every occupational qualification and it shall consist of 2,200 or 2,900 hours of school work and activities for every particular course.

Paragraph   On approval of their respective Councils of Education, the Education systems may permit the student under regime of enrolment per subjects to finish his studies corresponding to three years of the Second educational grade in a minimum of two or maximum of five years.

ARTICLE XXIII   Providing it is observed the regulations of the appropriate legislation on the subject:
    a) the conclusion of the 3rd level of the Second educational grade or the equivalent under regime of enrolment per subjects, shall qualify the student to continue his studies in a superior grade or at the university.
    b) the studies corresponding to the 4th grade level of the Second educational grade shall be accepted in a higher grade course of the same or identical area if these studies are equivalent.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE SUPPLETIVE EDUCATION

ARTICLE XXIV   The aims of suppletive education are:

a) to eliminate the obligation of required school attendance of adolescents and adults who have not attended or finished the First or Second educational grades at the normal compulsory school age;

b) to offer studies for improvement and modernization, by means of continual contact with the school for those who have attended, regularly or in part, school education.

Paragraph   The suppletive education shall consist of courses and examinations organized by the various educational systems in accordance with the rules established by their respective Councils Education.

ARTICLE XXV   The Suppletive Education shall include, according to priorities, the teaching of reading, writing and counting, the occupational qualification determined by particular legislation, the intensive study of subjects required in the regular education and the study of present knowledge.

1st Paragraph   The Suppletive education courses shall be structured and organized so that the duration and scholastic system shall be peculiar to their aims and to the particular type of students that shall attend those courses.

2nd Paragraph   The Suppletive Education courses shall be administered in classrooms or by other means like radio, television, correspondence and other means of communication that may permit to reach a great number of students.

ARTICLE XXVI   The suppletive education examinations shall be based on a part of the core curriculum fixed by the Federal Council of Education, and they shall qualify so that the students may continue their studies normally, and if these examinations take place to qualify for a second grade technical diploma or certificate, the minimum of subjects established by the Council shall be required.

1st Paragraph   The above-mentioned examinations shall take place:

a) to obtain the First educational grade conclusion, only for students over 18 years old;

b) to obtain the Second educational grade conclusion, only for students over 21 years old.

2nd Paragraph   The suppletive education examinations shall take place in public and authorized private schools, annually appointed, in every educational system, by the Councils of Education.

3rd Paragraph   The suppletive educational examinations may be incorporated in the jurisdiction of an educational system, or part of it, according to the special complex norms of its particular Council of Education.

ARTICLE XXVII   To the level of one or more of the four last years of the First educational grade shall be developed, apprenticeship courses administered to pupils from 14 up to 18 years old, as a supplementation to the regular schooling, and to this grade or to the second grade level, intensive occupational qualifying courses.

Paragraph   The apprenticeship and the qualifying courses shall permit to continue the studies if the subjects, areas of study and activities are equivalent to those of every particular educational system.

ARTICLE XXVIII   Suppletive education examinations certificates and the apprenticeship and qualifying courses certificates shall be awarded by their supporting institutions.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE TEACHERS AND THE EDUCATION EXPERTS

ARTICLE XXIX   The preparation of teachers and education experts for the teaching of the First and Second educational grades shall be effectuated by ascending levels, in order to adopt them to every regional cultural differences, in the country and with the necessary guidance to attend the particular aims of each educational grade, subjects, areas of study and activities and the student's stages of development.

ARTICLE XXX   The requirements to be a qualified teacher are:

a) a second educational grade teacher's certificate, to teach from the 1st to the 4th level of the first educational grade;
b) a bachelor's degree or diploma, equivalent to a 1st licentiateship, obtained in a short duration course, will qualify to teach from the 1st to the 8th level of the first educational grade;
c) to teach in the first and second educational grades, from the 1st up to the 8th and from the 9th up to the 12th grade level, a bachelor's degree obtained in a normal licentiateship course is required.

1st Paragraph   The teachers referred to in item "a" are able to teach the 5th and 6th levels, in the first educational grade, if they have obtained their certificate after a four years course, or after a three years course, but in this last case they must attend supplementary studies of one school year that shall include, when necessary, subjects on pedagogy.

2nd Paragraph   The teachers with a bachelor's degree correspondent with a 1st grade licentiateship, obtained in a short term course, are able to teach the 1st up to the 8th level of the first educational and the 9th and 10th grade levels of the second educational grade, after supplementary studies of one school year at least.

3rd Paragraph   The above-mentioned supplementary studies may be accepted in later courses.

ARTICLE XXXI   The above-mentioned 1st grade licentiateship and the supplementary studies of Article XXX, 2nd Paragraph, shall be administered at universities and other institutions which have normal duration courses.

Paragraph   The 1st grade licentiateship and the supplementary studies, mainly in smaller communities, can be administered at colleges, training centres, schools, institutes and other sort of institutions created or adapted for this purpose, and only authorized and recognized by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XXXII   The teaching staff for Suppletive Education shall be prepared to attend to the special characters of this kind of teaching and in accordance with the complex of norms fixed by the Councils of Education.

ARTICLE XXXIII   The forming of educational administrators, planning experts, educational guidance leaders, inspectors, supervisors and other experts shall be prepared in short or normal duration graduated courses or in post-graduated courses.

ARTICLE XXXIV   The admission of teachers and experts in public education of the first and second educational grades shall be effectuated through examination contests of knowledge and titles, and the requirements for teachers and experts fixed in this Law shall be observed.

ARTICLE XXXV   There shall not be any discrimination, for didactical or technical purposes, among teachers and experts, working under private labour legislation or those working under public service legislation.

ARTICLE XXXVI   In every educational system there shall be a statute to structure the teachership of the first and second educational grades, to provide the successive gradatory promotion, to regulate the particular clauses in this law and in order to supplement them for the actual organization of the system.

ARTICLE XXXVII   The admission and the career of first and second educational grade teachers and experts in private schools, must observe and consider the particular clauses of this law, their statute rules and the Brazilian Labour Laws.

ARTICLE XXXVIII   The educational systems shall stimulate, by suitable planning, and through regularly courses and training the improvement and modernisation of their teachers and education experts.

ARTICLE XXXIX   The educational systems must stipulate the salaries of teachers and teaching experts in accordance with their qualification in courses, professional training periods, improvement or enrichment courses, and make no discrimination on the educational grades where they work.

ARTICLE XL   The teachers and the teaching experts with a bachelor's degree or any other degree, in order to have the right to work, are required to register themselves as professionals at the Ministry of Education and Culture or at any of its representative agencies.

CHAPTER SIX

THE FINANCING OF EDUCATION

ARTICLE XLI   Education is constituted as an obligation to the Union, the States, the District Court, the Municipal Districts, the private enterprises, the family and the community which must congregate their resources and endeavour to promote and stimulate it.

Paragraph   The parents or tutors, and every kind of employers whom students depend upon shall be responsible, solidarily with the State Power, for the execution of the constitutional rule obligation of school attendance.

ARTICLE XLII   Public Education in different grades shall be sponsored by the State Power and Private Education is allowed when the rules that regulate it are observed.

ARTICLE XLIII   The state educational resources shall be employed preferring the supporting and development of the public education, so that

shall be assured:

a) the greatest possible number of educational opportunities;
b) the progressive improvement of education, the improvement and assistance of teachership and the services of education;
c) the scientific and technological development.

ARTICLE XLIV In public schools, the teaching of the first educational grade are costless for students from 7 up to 14 years old, and it is also costless in later courses for those who are able to prove lack of insufficient funds and when they have not frequented a same course of studies for the second time.

ARTICLE XLV Private schools have the right to technical and financial aid from the State if their work conditions are considered by the educational authorities satisfactory and they shall have a supplementation to their funds if they succeed to achieve educational aims with less expenses than public institutions.

Paragraph . The estimation of the above mentioned financial aid shall be in accordance with the number of costless enrolments and the modality of the offered courses, and the required standards of school efficiency and improvement shall be observed.

ARTICLE XLVI The financial State aid for those who have demonstrated improvement and who are able to prove lack or insufficience of funds, shall be given by the granting of scholarships.

Paragraph If there are no vacancies for students in the nearby first educational grade public schools, the state shall provide them with the granting of scholarships in private schools.

ARTICLE XLVII Agricultural, industrial and trading enterprises are required to provide the teaching of the first educational grade for their employees and their children from seven up to fourteen years old, or they must contribute with the Education Salary established in accordance with the legislation.

ARTICLE XLVIII The Education Salary established by Law no. 4.440 of October 27, 1964, is an obligation for all private enterprises and other private or public institutions linked to the National Social Assistance system, and the exemptions established by the specific legislation shall be observed.

ARTICLE XLIX The enterprises and the rural owners who cannot provide their properties the teaching for their employees and their children, must help and consent them to attend the nearest school or permit the construction and running of costless schools in their properties, and they must contribute with the Education Salary.

ARTICLE L The trading and industrial companies have to provide, in co-operation, the necessary conditions for apprenticeship for their minor employees and to promote the training of their qualified personnel.

ARTICLE LI The educational systems shall act in all kinds of enterprises which have employees living in their properties, to settle and support radio and television sets so that they are able to receive educative programs and instructions for their personnel, in accordance with the local

peculiarities and the complex norms of each particular system.

Paragraph Upon request, the private institutions that have obtained financial or technical aid from the State, must help the suppletive education by offering courses and other improvements, educational and cultural activities and by equipping radio and television places for the reception of educational programs.

ARTICLE LII   The Union shall give financial aid to the States and to the District Court to develop their educational systems and shall organize the Federal Educational System to supply the necessities in any part of the country in the strict limits of the local demand.

ARTICLE LIII   The Federal Government shall establish and carry out a national educational planning that, according to Article LII shall include the private programs and those which have obtained financed aid.

Paragraph   The sectional planning of education shall be regarded to the rules of direction and norms of the Government General Planning so that the main programming of the Ministry of Education and Culture shall harmoniously fit in the General Planning.

ARTICLE LIV   In order to have the right to financial aid, the educational systems planning shall last for no more than four years and they must have the approval of their particular Council of Education and they shall be included in the national planning for education.

1st Paragraph   The financial aid for the state educational systems and for the District Court system, shall aim to correct the regional social economic differences, according to the income per capita, the school age population, the particular teachership statute, the teachers suitability and exactitude of salary, and the educational services quantitative and qualificative improvement in the past two years.

2nd Paragraph   The financial aid to the States educational systems and to the District Court shall be given by agreement and shall be based on planning and projects presented by every particular main educational authority and they must have the appreciation of the Councils of Education.

3rd Paragraph   The financial aid for the Municipal Districts educational programs, included in the planning of the states, shall be given by agreement, based on planning and projects presented by every particular local educational authority and shall have the appreciation of the Council of Education.

ARTICLE LV   The Union shall organize and finance the territories systems of education, in accordance with the sectional national educational planning.

ARTICLE LVI   The Union shall apply the funds for the grant of scholarships.

1st Paragraph   The States, the District Court and the Municipal Districts shall add, for the same aim, their own funds to the Federal one.

2nd Paragraph   The complex of norms that regulate the grant of scholarships supported with federal funds, must execute the direction rules

of the Ministry of Education and Culture which may delegate the municipal educational assistance institutions, as mentioned in Article LXII, Paragraph 2, to be responsible for the financial application.

3rd Paragraph   The Special Program for Scholarships (PEBE) is a national institution which must execute the rules established by the Ministry of Work and Social Assistance.

ARTICLE LVII   The technical aid given by the Union to the States educational systems and to the District Court shall be sponsored by the main departments of the Ministry of Education and Culture and by the Federal Council of Education.

Paragraph   The technical aid shall include the assistance and supply of funds for the preparation, attendance and evaluation of educational planning and projects that aim at executing the National Education Plan.

ARTICLE LVIII   The supplementary state legislation, according to Art 15 of the Federal Constitution, shall fix the obligations of the States and Municipal Districts for the development of every educational grade and shall establish the norms to improve an efficient application of the public funds reserved for education.

Paragraph   The preventative steps in this article aim to the progressive transmission of sponsorship to the municipality of the educational duties, specially those of the first educational grade that can be satisfactorily accomplished by the local administrations.

ARTICLE LIX   The Municipal Districts which do not apply every year, at least 20% of its income taxations in the first educational grade, the rules of Art. 15, 3rd Para. of the Federal Constitution shall be inflicted.

Paragraph   The Municipal Districts must apply, at least 20% of the amount of the Participation Fund, on the first educational grade.

ARTICLE LX   It is not allowed to governmental or any other kind of institutions to create financially school and educational aids for unnecessary duplication or disadvantageous dispersion of human resources, according to the appreciation of the Council of Education.

ARTICLE LXI   The educational systems shall estimulate private enterprises which have mothers with less than seven years old children, to organize and support, with or without any financial help, even from the government, the education that precedes the teaching of the first educational grade.

ARTICLE LXII   To assure the conditions of scholastic efficiency for the needful student, and in addition to the educational aid services every educational system is required to have institutions to organise meetings of the teachers and the students, parents, aiming to help to run the schools.

1st Paragraph   The above-mentioned educational aid services must have a priority aim helping to assure the required school attendance and is included the aid for the purchase of school material, transportation, clothing, food, dental and medical assistance or other similar relative help.

2nd Paragraph   The government shall stimulate the organization of local educational aid institutions, which shall have in their administration,

honest, dedicated people familiar with the social and educational problems and necessities of study or help, and who will take care of the partial or complete execution of the established duties in this article, acting in common with the community and who will be responsible for the application of the grant of scholarships.

ARTICLE LXIII   In the second educational grade costless school enrolment or scholarships offered by the government shall be gradually substituted by refundment scholarships.

Paragraph   The refundment established in this article may be effectuated by money payments or professional work in accordance with specific legislation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE GENERAL PREVENTATIVE MEASURES

ARTICLE LXIV   The Councils of Education may authorize pedagogical experiments with different educational systems than those fixed in the present law and must assure the validation of such concluded studies.

ARTICLE LXV The Federal Council of Education shall fix the norms concerning revalidation of the professional diplomas and certificates awarded by foreign institutions, which correspond to the Brazilian second educational grade so that their holders may register them at the Ministry of Education and Culture and follow their profession in Brazil.

ARTICLE LXVI   The former educational legislation preventative measures shall be automatically readjusted according to their nomenclature, when the present law shall enter in force.

ARTICLE LXVII   The present law affirms the special system for the described students in Edict-Law no. 1.044 of October 21st 1969.

ARTICLE LXVIII   The teaching in military schools is ruled by a particular legislation.

ARTICLE LXIX   "Colégio Pedro II" shall integrate the Federal System of Education.

ARTICLE LXX   The administrations of public educational systems and private educational institutions can establish, for some or all the first and second educational grades schools which are supported by them, a unique statute to assure the common structural and working unity but keeping the necessary didactic flexibility for every school.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE TRANSITORY PREVENTATIVE MEASURES

ARTICLE LXXI The State Councils of Education may design part of their obligations to organized Municipal Councils of Education, in municipalities with the necessary requirements.

ARTICLE LXXII This present law shall enter into force gradually and according to the peculiarities, possibilities and the legislation of

every educational system, in agreement with the state Establishing Planning, which will be elaborated according to a previous planning made to fix the general lines of direction of the former, and which will establish the priorities to be executed immediately.

Paragraph   The previous planning and the State Establishing Planning, mentioned above, shall be organized by the planning experts of every particular educational systems, so that the previous planning will be ready within sixty days and the State Establishing Planning within two hundred and ten days, after the present law shall enter into force.

ARTICLE LXXIII   The Minister of Education and Culture, advised by the Federal Council of Education, shall decide about all caused doubts or questions which may arise during the transition of the former and present law, and may promulgate the necessary required acts.

ARTICLE LXXIV   All the private second grade teaching institutions which belong to the Federal Education System, from the present moment belong to their particular state educational system.

ARTICLE LXXV   In the present law system, the following instructions concerning public teaching institutions must be observed:

I - The actual primary schools must gradually fulfil the necessary missing levels to provide a complete first educational grade education.
II - The actual junior high schools may go on teaching only their corresponding grade levels, and they must adapt the curriculum content and distribution to provide the eight grade levels of the complete first educational grade.
III - In order to get their exercise authorization, new schools must indicate their particular planning showing the ways on which they immediately or gradually intend to develop the teaching of the first educational grade.

ARTICLE LXXVI   Work initiation and occupational qualifications may be anticipated:

a) if the grade level reached by costless school education is inferior to the eight level;
b) according to the suitability of the students conditions, necessities, vacations and age.

ARTICLE LXXVII   When the demand of legally licensed teachers is not sufficient to attend the educational necessities, shall be allowed to teach in transitorily and supplementary character:

a) in the First Educational Grade, until the 8th level, teachers with a license to teach up to the 4th level of the second grade;
b) in the first educational grade, from the 1st to the 6th grade level, teachers with a license to teach up to the 3rd level of the second educational grade;
c) in the second educational grade, from the 9th up to the 12th grade level, the holders of a bachelors degree or diploma equivalent to a 1st grade licentiateship.

Paragraph   Wherever and whenever the demand of licensed teachers exist, even after the above mentioned criteria is allowed to teach:

a) the first educational grade, from the 1st up to the 5th grade level, applicants who have finished the 8th level of the first educational grade and who have attended qualifying intensive teaching courses:

b) in first educational grade, from the 1st up to the 5th grade level, applicants who have a certificate awarded by their Council of Education of regular qualifying teaching courses;

c) in the other levels of the First and Second Educational Grades applicants with certificates awarded by proficiency examinations which are ruled by the Federal Council of Education and which will take place at official institutions of superior degree, designed by the same Council.

ARTICLE LXXVIII   When the demand of legally licensed teachers is not sufficient to attend the educational necessities, other professionals with a bachelors degree may be registered at the Ministry of Education and Culture, to teach subjects in the first and second Educational grades, according to their area of activities and after a supplementary pedagogical study always observing the criteria of the Federal Council of Education.

ARTICLE LXXIX   If the demand of legally licensed experts for schools administration at a particular educational system is not sufficient to attend the necessities, is allowed to have legally licensed teachers for the same grade, based on teachership experience in schools administration.

ARTICLE LXXX   Every educational system may offer special improvement programs for non-qualified teachers, as listed in Article XXIX of this present law, in order to help them to achieve the necessary qualification, gradually.

ARTICLE LXXXI   The educational systems shall fix the terms from the approved date of the State Educational Establishing Planning mentioned in Article LXXII in which the Schools of their jurisdiction must present the adopted norms of the present law.

Paragraph   During the first three years on which the present law shall enter into force, public first educational grade schools which have not their particular approved statutes, shall be regulated by rules established by the educational systems administration.

ARTICLE LXXXII   The actual federal inspectors for education, if necessary are available to the educational systems in need of their co-operation and which shall be given specially to those who are working in their jurisdictions.

ARTICLE LXXXIII   The examination contests for teaching in public schools that have their inscriptions ended at the date of the publication of this law, shall be ruled by the particular legislation mentioned in the edicts.

ARTICLE LXXXIV   The rights of the actual headmasters, inspectors, educational guidance experts and school administrators with government work stability will be warranted.

ARTICLE LXXXV   When the present law enters into force, the suppletive education legislation criteria and the age permission shall be observed for the present year.

ARTICLE LXXXVI   The rights of the actual teachers, registered definitely at the Ministry of Education and Culture shall be assured when this present law shall enter into force.

ARTICLE LXXXVII   Articles XVIII, XXI, XXIII to XXIX, XXXI to LXV, XCII to XCV, XCVII to XCIX, CI to CIII, CV, CIX, CX, CXIII and CXVI of

Law no. 4,024 of December 20th, 1961, are cancelled and so are all the other kind of legislation that establish rules different to these of the present Law.

ARTICLE LXXXVIII The present law shall enter into force on the date of its publication.

Brasilia, August 11th, 1971, the 150th year of the Brazilian Independence, and the 83rd as a free Republic.

EMILIO G. MEDICI
Jarbas G. Passarinho
Julio Barata

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